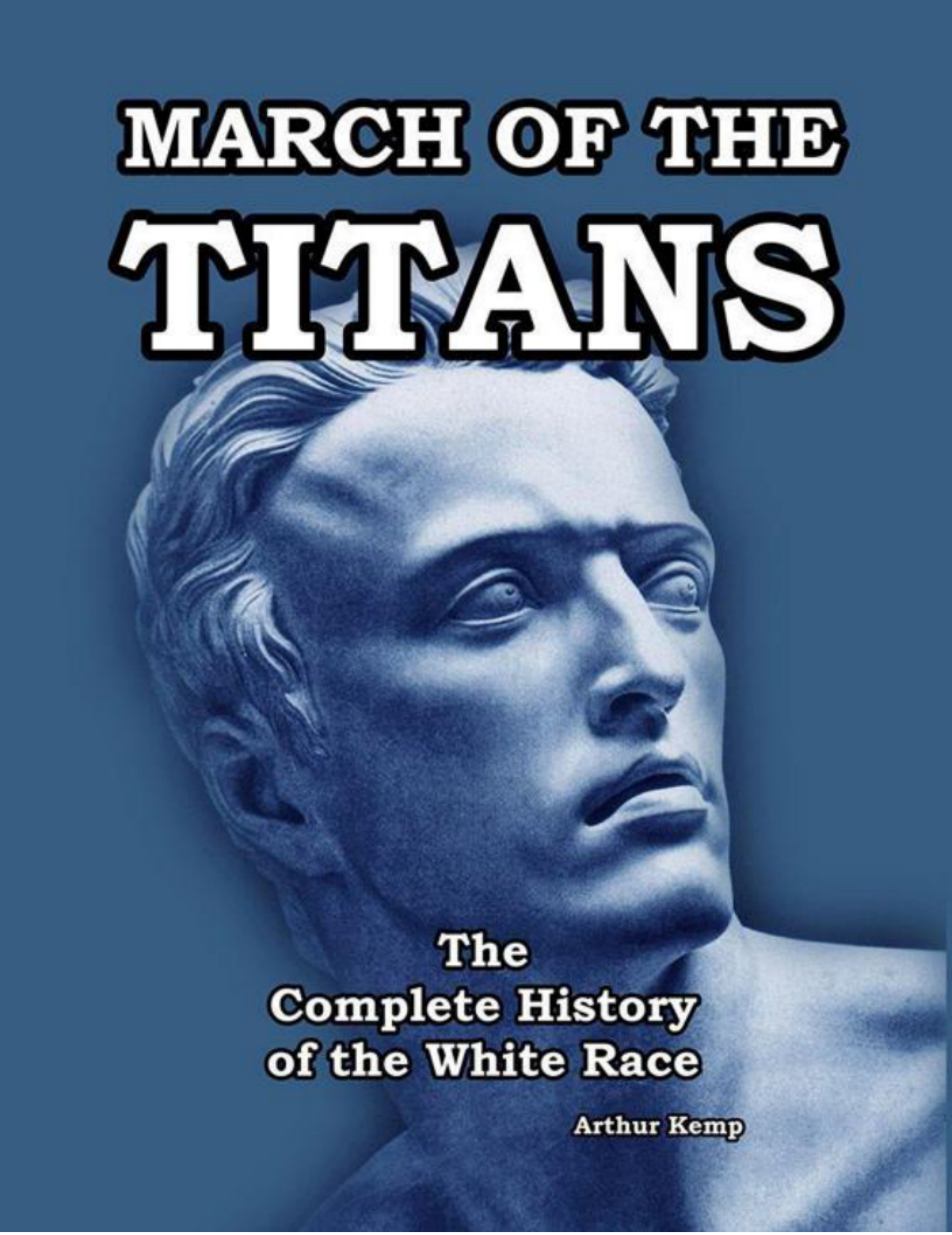

MARCH OF THE TITANS

The Complete History of the White Race

Arthur Kemp

MARCH OF THE TITANS: THE COMPLETE HISTORY OF THE WHITE RACE

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Pinnacle Edition

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The Complete History of the White Race

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Arthur Kemp was born of a British father and a Dutch mother in Southern Rhodesia in 1962. Educated in South Africa, he holds a degree in Political Science, International Politics and Public Administration, having studied at the University of Cape Town and the University of South Africa. He worked as a journalist on a major national daily newspaper; as an international risk consultant; as a retail market analyst for a blue chip company in the UK; and as a public relations consultant. The book you hold in your hands is the result of 30 years of work and travel to four continents.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

PROLOGUE: Some Important Facts

CHAPTER 1: The First White Racial Types

CHAPTER 2: The First Stirrings—the Late Paleolithic Age

CHAPTER 3: Vast Temples and First Cities—the Neolithic Age

CHAPTER 4: Laying the Foundations—the Old European Civilizations

CHAPTER 5: Born of the Black Sea—the Indo-European Invasions

CHAPTER 6: To the Ends of the Earth—Lost White Migrations

CHAPTER 7: Inexorably Overwhelmed—Whites in the Middle East

CHAPTER 8: Nordic Desert Empire—Ancient Egypt

CHAPTER 9: Genesis of Western Thought—Classical Greece

CHAPTER 10: Conqueror and Creator—Alexander the Great

CHAPTER 11: The Age of the Caesars—Pre-Christian Rome

CHAPTER 12: Power and Purpose—the Glory of Rome

CHAPTER 13: Opponents and Allies—Rome and

the Celts
CHAPTER 14: The Useful Foe—Rome and the Germans
CHAPTER 15: Racial Cauldron—Rome and the Middle East
CHAPTER 16: By Stealth and Steel—Christianity
CHAPTER 17: The First Great Race War—Attila the Hun 372–454 AD
CHAPTER 18: The Triumph of the Slaves—the Fall of Rome
CHAPTER 19: Eastern Bulwark—Byzantine
CHAPTER 20: The Second Great Race War—the Crusades 1095–1270
CHAPTER 21: Lessons in Decline—Spain and Portugal
CHAPTER 22:The Third Great Race War—the Moors Invade Europe 711–1492
CHAPTER 23: The Nordic Reservoir—Scandinavia
CHAPTER 24: The Fury of the Men of the North—the Vikings
CHAPTER 25: Flamboyance and Ferment—France
CHAPTER 26: Destiny and Destruction—Napoleon Bonaparte
CHAPTER 27: The Isle of Influence—England, Scotland, and Wales
CHAPTER 28: Civil War and Emigration—Ireland
CHAPTER 29: Small yet Significant—the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg
CHAPTER 30: The Fourth Great Race War—

Bulgars, Avars, Magyars, and Khazars 550–950
CHAPTER 31: The Fifth Great Race War—Genghis Khan and the Mongols 1220–1650
CHAPTER 32: Continual Conquest—the Baltic States
CHAPTER 33: The Test of Ethnicity—Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia
CHAPTER 34: The Sixth Great Race War—the Ottoman Holocaust 1300–1919
CHAPTER 35: Balkan Turmoil—Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, and Greece
CHAPTER 36: Risorgimento—the Resurrection of Italy after the Fall of Rome
CHAPTER 37: Gott Mit Uns—the Rise of Germany
CHAPTER 38: The Doomed Empire—Austria and Hungary
CHAPTER 39: The Rise and Fall of the Tsars—Russia 862–1917
CHAPTER 40: Christianity Dominant—the Dark Ages
CHAPTER 41: The Rebirth of Classical Culture—the Renaissance
CHAPTER 42: In the Name of God—the Christian Wars
CHAPTER 43: White Expansion—Voyages of Discovery
CHAPTER 44: The Yihequan—Race War in the Far East
CHAPTER 45: The Sun Never Sets—The British Empire

CHAPTER 46: The Well of Bibighar—the British in India

CHAPTER 47: Conquistadors—the White Conquest of Mexico and South America

CHAPTER 48: Revolution! The Birth of the United States of America

CHAPTER 49: The Seventh Great Race War—the Amerinds

CHAPTER 50: The Eighth Great Race War—Mexico

CHAPTER 51: Three Fifths of a Person—the History of Slaves

CHAPTER 52: White Men Cutting One Another's Throats—the American Civil War

CHAPTER 53: The Politics of Race—America until 1945

CHAPTER 54: Immigration and Racial Change—the Story of Canada

CHAPTER 55: The White Man's Burden—South Africa

CHAPTER 56: May It Be Worthy of the Name—the Story of Rhodesia

CHAPTER 57: The Iron Law of Demographics—the Story of Australia

CHAPTER 58: Murderer's Bay: The Race War in New Zealand

CHAPTER 59: Shaping the World—the White Technological Revolution

CHAPTER 60: The First Great Brothers' War—World War I

CHAPTER 61: The October Revolution—

Communism in Russia
CHAPTER 62: The Suppressed Link—Jews and Communism
CHAPTER 63: The Second Great Brothers' War—World War II
CHAPTER 64: The Shadow of the Ghetto—the Saga of the European Jews
CHAPTER 65: The Racial State—the Third Reich
CHAPTER 66: The End of White Supremacy—Decolonization and "Civil Rights"
CHAPTER 67: The Wall Falls—the Collapse of Communism
CHAPTER 68: The Changing Face—Nonwhite Immigration into the White Heartlands
CHAPTER 69: Ragnarök—the Coming Fall of the West
POSTSCRIPT: The Final Call, or, What Can Be Done?
APPENDICES
Appendix 1: Genetic Evidence for the Aryan Invasion of India
Appendix 2: Genetic Evidence of Europeans in Ancient China
Appendix 3: Western European Genetic Remnants in Egypt
Appendix 4: Genetic Evidence of Racial Mixing in Greece
Appendix 5: Classical Literature References to Race

Appendix 6: The Negro Presence in Ancient Greece

Appendix 7: Genetic Evidence of Racial Mixing in Italy

Appendix 8: Classical Roman Writers on Race Mixing in Rome

Appendix 9: Famous Historians on the Racial Decline of the Roman Empire

Foreword

Foreword to the Pinnacle Edition (2011)

This volume is, by far, the biggest and most complete version of *March of the Titans* yet published. It contains a large number of new sections, new pictures, and updated text. The sequential order of the chapters has remained the same, with one exception: the prologue now combines the basic explanation of race as a taxonomic concept and discusses the rise and fall of civilizations, as opposed to previous editions which saw it buried in chapter nine.

Finally, I must thank my wife Jeannine from the bottom of my heart for all her work, encouragement, and effort. She is also my editor-in-chief and has worked tirelessly in this regard. I cannot think what I would have done without her.
Arthur Kemp

15 November 2011, Chester, UK

Foreword to the 1999 edition

The idea for writing this book came from a perusal of the history section of the Jagger Library at the University of Cape Town, South Africa, in 1983. While undertaking some unrelated research, I chanced upon a book dealing with the history of the Chinese people.

Intrigued, I investigated further in that section of the library. I found rows of books dealing with the history of the Japanese, the black race, the Incas, Aztecs, the Australian Aborigines, the Arabs, the Native Americans, the Polynesians—in fact there was a history of every people and every race on earth—except, much to my surprise, the white race.

This lack of a history of the white people of the world has persisted to this day: and it is to correct this imbalance that this book has been written. As it is a history of a defined race, not of any particular country, its narrative follows several continents and centuries, not limiting itself to any one geographical region.

I have always felt that the point of studying history is not the memorizing of some dates and facts, but rather the search for and discovery of the forces causing the results we see before our eyes as historical events.

History lost its value through the efforts of academics producing lists of meaningless dates and names, expecting everyone else to be as interested in their lists as they are.

The proper study of history is in reality a tremendously exciting field of endeavour—the exploits and tribulations detailed in this book will hopefully convince sceptics of this!

More importantly, history does indeed contain lessons—sobering ones, with massive implications. As this book will show, it raises issues which confronted past civilizations and which confront modern society—how we answer them will determine if our society will survive or vanish like those of old.

Arthur Kemp
14 September 1998, Oxford, UK

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The staff at the Rijskmuseum, Amsterdam, Netherlands;
The staff at the National History Museum, Sofia, Bulgaria;
The staff at the Louvre Museum, Paris, France; and the staff at all the historical sites around Europe and North America used in the compilation of this work: far too many to mention individually.

PROLOGUE: Some Important Facts

Crucial to the understanding of the theme of this book and its related volumes is an understanding of the concepts of race, ethnicity, and culture.

Race, Ethnicity, and Culture

A race is defined as a group of individuals sharing common genetic attributes which determine that group's physical appearance and, more controversially, their cognitive abilities. Ethnicity is defined as the creation of groups by individuals (most often within racial groups but also possible across racial divides) of certain common traditions, languages, art forms, attitudes, and other means of expression.

A culture is the name given to the physical manifestations created by ethnic groups—the actual language, art forms, religion, social order, and achievements of a particular ethnic group. In practical terms then, it is possible to talk of a white race; of a Scottish ethnicity, and a Scottish culture. The last two—ethnicity and culture—are directly dependent upon each other, and flow from each other in a symbiotic relationship. This book deals primarily with white racial history, and flowing from that, white ethnic groups and cultures.

The White Race—Three Subgroups

What exactly is meant by the white race? Essentially there are three main subgroups with two further divisions of note. The three major subgroups are known to academics as Nordic, Alpine, and Mediterranean.

Although these names have come about mainly as a result of the geographic areas these subgroups have been associated with in the Christian era (Nordics in northern Europe, Alpines in central Europe and Mediterraneans in southern Europe), it is incorrect to believe that these groups always occupied these regions.

The three main subgroups have played a role in events in almost every geographical region where the white race as a group has appeared. Of these three original groups, only two are existent in any large number today: the Nordics and the Alpines. The original Mediterraneans of ancient history are not to be confused with those people loosely termed "Mediterranean" today. The original white

Mediterranean component has been largely dissipated into two distinct groups: those who have absorbed Alpine or Nordic white subracial elements; and those who have absorbed North African or other nonwhite racial elements.

To illustrate the concept of these three main subgroups: although there is a broadly termed "black race" in existence, there are major subgroups among that racial group. The Congo basin Pygmy and the ultra-tall Masai tribesmen of Kenya are two good examples of subgroups within the black racial group.

A subgroup, therefore, is a branch of a particular race which exhibits slightly different physical characteristics but still shares enough of a common genetic inheritance with other subgroups to be included in a broad racial category. This is known as the concept of genetic commonality, and is the basis of all racial categories.

Nordic—Tall, Slim, Light Eyes and Hair

The Nordic racial subgroup, which is still largely in existence today, is characterized by light colored hair and eyes, a tall slim build, and a distinctive "long" (that is, thin and extended) skull shape.

Alpine— "Solid" Body, Round Head, Brown Eyes

The Alpine racial subgroup, which also still exists in a large measure today, is characterized by brown hair and eyes, a short, more "solid" body build and a distinctive "round" (that is, almost, but not quite, circular) skull shape.

Mediterranean—Mixture of Body Types

The original Mediterranean racial subgroup no longer exists today. It was the first of the three white racial subgroups to disappear from the earth, submerged into the gene pools of surrounding races.

The Mediterranean subgroup was predominantly (but not totally) characterized by dark hair and eye color, slim (Nordic), or solid (Alpine) build and either long or round skull shapes. It is worth stating again, as it is of great significance in more ways than one, that there are very few of these original Mediterranean racial types left in the world today. They were known as the "Old Europeans" and inhabited large parts of Europe, the Middle East, and Egypt at the dawn of history. These Mediterranean types bear almost no resemblance to the present-day inhabitants of the Mediterranean basin.

The original Old Europeans have been absorbed almost completely into either the Nordic/Alpine stock in Europe, or the African/Semitic/Asian stock of North Africa and the Middle East.

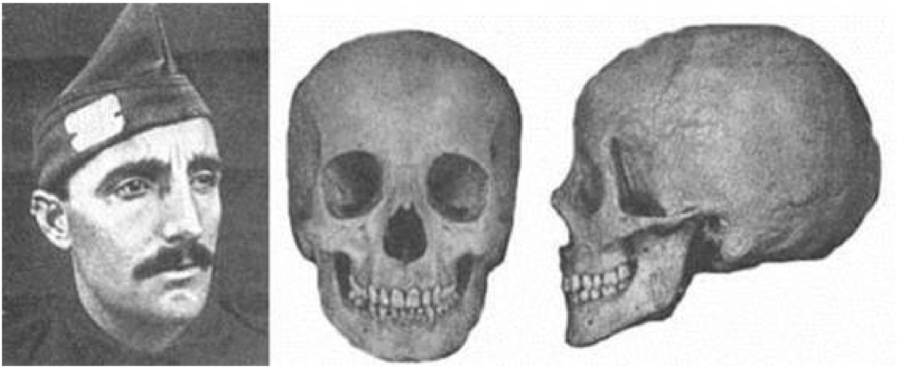
There are two places in Europe where occasional glimpses of this original Mediterranean racial subgroup can still be seen: the Celtic fringes of Britain (most notably in Wales and Devonshire) and in the Basque territory of Spain. In these regions there exists a short, dark strain—remnants of the original inhabitants of Europe.

Pure examples of this Mediterranean type are rare, as they have for the largest degree had some Nordic or Alpine admixture over the years. Unfortunately there has also been some admixture from North Africa. Nonetheless, it is still possible today to talk of "Mediterranean" whites even though they do not identically represent those of antiquity.

The White Race— The Three Main Subgroups

Nordic—The skull of a member of the Nordic white subrace, viewed from the front and the side. The "long" nature of the facial structure is clearly visible. Alongside is a classic Nordic male from Sweden.

Alpine—The skull of a member of the Alpine white subrace, viewed from the front and the side. The "shorter" facial structure is apparent. Alongside is a classic Alpine male from southern Germany.



Mediterranean—A skull of a member of the Mediterranean white subrace, viewed from the front and side. Alongside, a World War I soldier from Wales—as close an example of an original Mediterranean as can be found in modern times. In the present-day "Mediterranean" nations, most original Mediterranean types show admixture with other European types, or in some cases, with non-European types.

Other Subgroups—Dinarics and East Baltics

Two other white racial subgroups exist (Dinarics and East Baltics). These types differ slightly in skull shape and body dimensions from the three main groups outlined above, but they share a great number of physical characteristics such as hair and eye color. As with the Alpines and Mediterraneans, there has been a great deal of mixing with the three main subgroups. They are found in large numbers in present-day Eastern Europe. A very small percentage of these two subgroups also display the physical characteristics resulting from mixing with the waves of Asiatic invaders who penetrated Europe from the east during the course of history.

Whites Defined by Genetic Commonality

For the purposes of this book, an ethnic or cultural group is defined as part of the white race as long as it shares enough of a common genetic inheritance with the broader racial group. When an ethnic group loses this genetic commonality it is then formally excluded from the white racial category.

Tracking Race

How is race tracked in civilization? How is it determined whether the populations of certain societies or civilizations belonged to specific races? The answer to this is simple. Race in history is tracked in four ways: paleoserology, art forms, language, and the science of genetics. This last test has only come into its own in the last ten years of the twentieth century, but has proven to be a major aid in tracking racial history.

Paleoserology Reveals Racial Types

Paleoserology is the study of skeletal remains. As different racial groups have different physical characteristics, it is a relatively simple matter to determine the racial makeup of the inhabitants of a particular region by studying the contents of grave sites. This skill is often used by modern police pathologists to identify the race of corpses. This science has proven equally useful in historical diggings where the examination of burial sites has created an understanding of the racial makeup of ancient peoples.

Race Appears in Art Forms

Art forms (whether conventional pictures, illustrations on pottery, or even statues) also provide significant indicators of the racial makeup of contemporary inhabitants.

The ancient civilizations in particular—of all racial groups—reflected themselves in their art forms (often because their own racial types were the only human models from which they had to work). In this way, for example, early Chinese art depicted principally Chinese people; Incan and Aztec art depicted only Incan or Aztec people, and so on.

In all societies, original art forms which portrayed people closely followed contemporary physical appearances. This principle is well illustrated in the four art forms portrayed in this chapter.

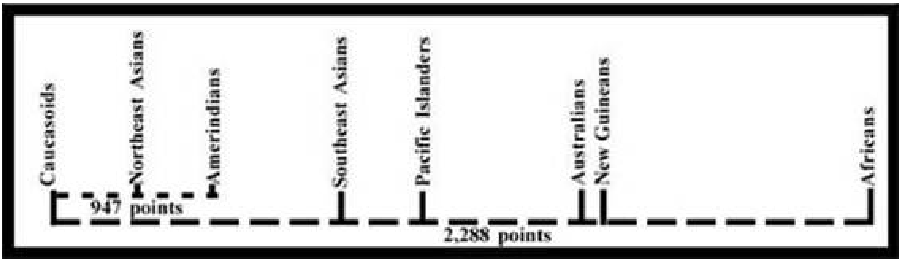
CULTURAL ARTIFACTS REFLECT RACIAL TYPES

Tracking race in history: race depicted in art forms. Early civilizations very often depicted images of their own racial types in their works of art, based on the reality that their own types were the most common (or only) human models with which they had to work. A comparison of (from left to right) Olmec art, 400 BC; African art, circa 1400 AD; Japanese art, 1000 AD; and Greek art, 340 BC, reflects this principle well. The study of art forms is a reliable indicator of the racial type of the communities in which the art works were created.

Genetics Reveals Racial Past

All human beings have three sorts of genes: mitochondrial DNA, which is inherited through the female line; Y-Chromosomes which are inherited through the male line, and autosomal DNA, which is inherited from both sexes.

The study of genetics has served to confirm the accuracy of many historical accounts of racial movements, and is particularly useful in showing cause and effect in the rise and fall of civilizations, as demonstrated in this book.

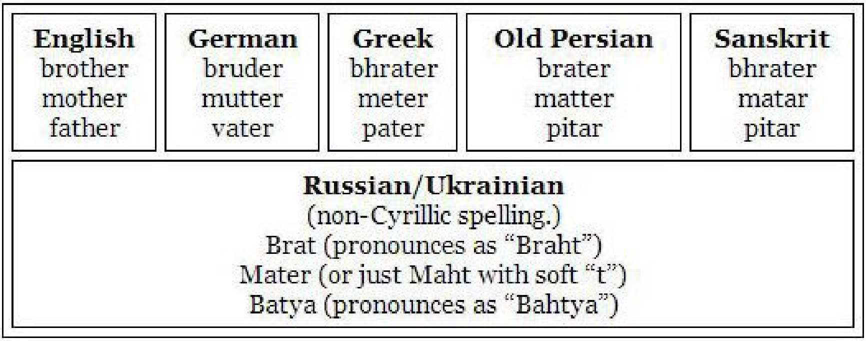


Research carried out by L.L. Cavalli-Sforza and two colleagues, P. Menozzi and A. Piazzia, in their work The History and Geography of Human Genes *(1994), has revealed an astonishing 2,288 genetic point difference between whites and black Africans The research found that the English differ from the Danes, Germans, and French by a mere 21–25 points of genetic distance, whereas they differ from North American Indians by 947 points, from black Africans by 2,288 points, and from Mbuti Pygmies by 2,373 points. Cavalli-Sforza also used Mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA—transferred through the maternal line) to divide the world up into seven distinct races, classifying whites as part of the "Caucasoid" group for his study.*

Language Reflects Racial Similarities

The study of language is another important clue to the dispersion of peoples. Commonalities in language forms leave clearly identifiable "fingerprints" in cultures.

Similar words, phrases, or language forms are a clear indication of a single origin for civilizations, due to the fact that the people in those civilizations would at some stage have had a common origin. In this way the route of a culture (and hence a people) can be traced by following a language.



<table>
<tr><th>English</th><th>German</th><th>Greek</th><th>Old Persian</th><th>Sanskrit</th></tr>
<tr><td>brother
mother
father</td><td>bruder
mutter
vater</td><td>bhrater
meter
pater</td><td>brater
matter
pitar</td><td>bhrater
matar
pitar</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">Russian/Ukrainian
(non-Cyrillic spelling.)
Brat (pronounces as “Braht”)
Mater (or just Maht with soft “t”)
Batya (pronounces as “Bahtya”)</td></tr>
</table>

An Objective Definition of Civilization

For the purposes of this book, civilization will be taken to mean the entire ambit of social/cultural manifestations which are characteristic to any particular nation or racial group. In this way the accusation of subjectivity can be avoided. Civilization, in the broadest sense of the word, includes all social manifestations, from social interactions to language, art forms, science, technology, customs, and culture. It is therefore possible to talk of a Japanese civilization, an American Indian (Amerind) civilization, a Polynesian civilization, an Australian Aboriginal civilization, a black civilization, and a white civilization, without being subjective about any of them.

The Question Posed by Rise and Fall

When reviewing the historical development of all nations, quite often mention is made of a “rise and fall” of a particular civilization. This poses a major question: Why have some civilizations lasted a thousand years or more, while others rise and collapse within a few hundred?

Why is it, for example, that nations such as Japan, Sweden, and England—all nations with limited natural resources—could have progressive active cultures for more than one thousand years, whereas mighty civilizations such as classical Rome, Greece, or Persia, among others, collapse after only a few centuries? Politically correct historians blame the rise and fall of the great nations of the past on politics, economics, morals, lawlessness, debt, environment, and a host of other superficial reasons.

However, Japan, England, and Sweden have gone through similar crises scores of times, without those countries falling into decay.

It is obvious that there must be some other factor at work—something much more fundamental than just variations in politics, morals, lawlessness, or any of the other hundreds of reasons that historians have manufactured in their attempts to explain the collapse of civilizations.

Each Society Unique to Each People

Herein lies the key to understanding the rise and fall of all civilizations. In any given territory, the people making up the society in that territory create a culture which is unique to themselves.

A society or civilization is only a reflection of the population of that particular territory. For example, the Chinese civilization is a product of the Chinese people, and is a reflection of the makeup of the population living in China. The Chinese civilization is unique to the Chinese people; they made it and it reflects their values and norms.

As the Chinese people made the Chinese civilization, it logically follows that the Chinese culture would disappear if the Chinese people were to disappear. Presently the overwhelming majority of Chinese people live in China, creating the Chinese civilization in that land. If, however, Australian Aborigines had to immigrate into China in their millions, and the Chinese population had to dramatically reduce in number, then in a few years the character of Chinese civilization would change—to reflect the new inhabitants of that territory.

In other words, the society or civilization of that territory would then reflect the fact that the majority of inhabitants were now Aborigines rather than Chinese people. If China had to fill up with Aborigines, this would mean the end of Chinese civilization. Aborigines would create a new civilization which would reflect themselves, and not that of the Chinese people.

That this should happen is perfectly logical. It has nothing to do with which culture is more advanced, or any notions of superiority or inferiority. It is merely a reflection of the fact that a civilization is a product of the nature of the people making up the population in the territory.

No Chinese People Means No Chinese Civilization

To go back to the Chinese example: If all Chinese people on earth had to disappear tomorrow, then fairly obviously, Chinese civilization and culture would disappear with them.

It is this startlingly obvious principle which determines the creation and dissolution of civilizations—once the people who create a certain society or civilization disappear, then that society or civilization will disappear with them. If the vanished population is replaced by different peoples, then a new society or culture is created which reflects the culture and civilization of the new inhabitants of that region.

Arrival of Whites Changed American Civilization

There are numerous examples of this process at work. One which will be familiar to all is the shift which occurred in North America. On that continent, the Amerind (American Indian) people lived for thousands of years, creating a civilization which dominated that continent.

In other words, the civilization and culture which dominated North America reflected the fact that the Amerind people lived and formed the majority population there. After 1500 AD that continent filled up with white immigrants from Europe. These white immigrants displaced the Amerinds by squeezing them out of possession of North America. The great shift in North American civilization then occurred. Whereas the Amerind culture had dominated for thousands of years, within a couple hundred years the dominant civilization on that continent had become white European.

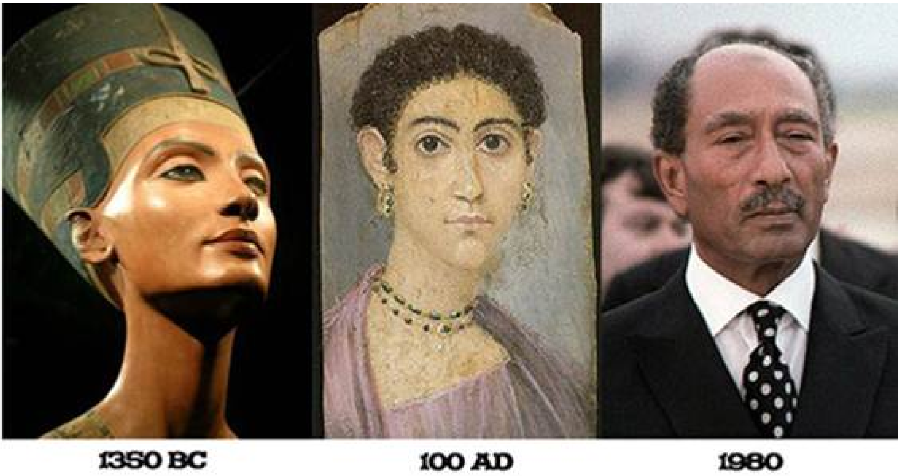
This shift reflected the fact that the majority of inhabitants of North America were white Europeans—and the Amerind civilization, for all practical purposes, disappeared. The Amerind civilization in North America "fell" because the population of North America changed.

Racial Shift Paramount

This effect—the displacement of peoples and the subsequent disappearance of their civilization—has direct implications in racial terms. The rise and fall of any particular civilization can be traced, not by the economics, politics, morals, etc., of a particular civilization, but rather by the actual racial presence of the people themselves.

If the society which has produced a particular civilization stays intact as a racially homogeneous unit, then that civilization remains active. If, however, the society within any particular given area changes its racial makeup—through invasion, immigration, or any decline in numbers—then the civilization which that society has produced will disappear with them, to be replaced by a new civilization reflecting the new inhabitants of that territory.

EGYPT—DIFFERENT PEOPLE, DIFFERENT CIVILIZATION



Egypt: Same country, different people. Above left: The white pharaoh, Queen Nefertiti, circa 1350 BC; Center: The effects of racial mixing are clearly to be seen on the face of this coffin portrait of a Roman lady in Hawara, Egypt, 100 AD; Right: The mixed race Egyptian, Anwar Sadat, president of Egypt in the twentieth century. Nefertiti ruled over an advanced civilization; Sadat ruled over a Third World country. The reason for the difference in cultures between Nefertiti's Egypt and Sadat's Egypt was that the Egyptian people had changed.

Disappearance of Whites Led to the Collapse of Their Civilizations

Originally created by Proto-Nordics, Alpines, and Mediterraneans, and then influenced by waves of Indo-European invaders, the white civilizations in the Middle East all flourished, producing the wonders of the ancient world.

These regions were either invaded or otherwise occupied (through the use of laborers, immigration, or in rare cases, by conquest) by nonwhite nations of varying races. When the original white peoples who created those civilizations vanished or became an insignificant minority (through death and absorption into other races), their civilizations "fell" in exactly the same way that the Amerind civilization in North America "fell."

500 BC—First Turning Point

It was around the year 500 BC that the first great turning point in white history was reached. This was the decline of the first great white civilizations in the Middle East and their subsequent replacement by nations and peoples of a substantially different racial makeup.

Up until this time the development of the white race's territorial expansion was such that they were a majority in Europe and all of Russia west of the Urals. They formed a significant component of the population of the Middle East and their rule extended into the Indus River Valley in Northern India.

India—Origin of the Caste System

In India, for example, the Indo-Aryan population was diminished by four factors:

- A large nonwhite (Indian) immigration northward to do work offered by the society set up by the conquering Indo-Aryans;

- A high natural reproduction level among the nonwhite immigrants;

- The level of racial mixing among Aryans and the Indians, which, by creating a new mixed ethnic identity, also changed the racial makeup of the inhabitants of the region; and

- A decline in the birthrate among the Aryans.

In India, the invading Indo-Aryans established a strict segregation system to keep themselves separate from the local dark-skinned native population. This system was so strict that it has lasted to this day and has become known as the caste system. However, even the strictest segregation (and Aryan laws prescribing punishments such as death for miscegenation) did not prevent the majority population from eventually swallowing up the ruling Aryans until the situation has been reached today where only a very few high caste Brahmin Indians could still pass as Europeans.

Exactly the same thing happened in Central Asia, Egypt, Sumeria, and to a lesser degree, modern Turkey. Slowly but surely, as these civilizations relied more and more on others to do their work for them, or were physically conquered by other races, their population makeup became darker and darker.

Miscegenation with Nonwhite Slaves Caused Egyptian Decline

From the time of the Old Kingdom, the original white Egyptians had been using Nubians, blacks, and Semites (or Arabs) to work on many of their building projects or as general slaves.

At various stages the pharaohs also employed Nubian mercenaries, and ultimately Nubia and Sudan were physically occupied and incorporated into the Egyptian empire. Although the buildings of ancient Egypt are very impressive—many having survived through to the present-day, their construction was dependent on the Egyptian ability to organize an unprecedented mass of human labor.

Under the direction of a scribe and architect, thousands of slaves and regiments of soldiers labored for decades to create the great buildings, using only levers, sleds, and massive ramps of earth.

It is impossible to think that such massive use of slave and foreign labor would not have left some mark on the population of the land. Interbreeding took place, and this, combined with the natural growth and reproduction patterns of the slaves and laborers, meant that in a relatively short time they comprised a significant section of the population.

Several attempts were made to prevent large numbers of Nubians from settling in Egypt. One of the first recorded racial separation laws was inscribed on a stone on the banks of the southern Nile which forbade Nubians from proceeding north of that point.

Nonetheless, the continuous use of Nubians for labor eventually led to the establishment of a large resident nonwhite population in Egypt, with their numbers being augmented by natural reproduction and continued immigration. The region was also occupied for two hundred years by the Semitic Hyksos, who intermarried with the local population, and this was followed by other Semitic/Arabic immigration, fueled by the long existing black settlement on the southernmost reaches of the Nile River.

Once again the factors which led to the extinction of the Aryans in India came into play in Egypt: a resident nonwhite population to do the labor, a natural increase in nonwhite numbers, physical integration, and a decline in the original white birthrate.

All these factors compounded to produce an Egyptian population makeup of today that is very different from the men and women who founded Egypt and designed the pyramids.

As the population makeup shifted, so the cultural manifestations, or civilization, of that region changed to the point where the present-day population of the Middle East is not by any stretch of the imagination classifiable as white.

This explains why the present inhabitants of Egypt are not the same people who designed the pyramids. The Egyptians of today are a completely different people, racially and culturally, living among the ruins of another race's civilization.

Identical Reasons for Decline in Middle East

The decline and eventual extinction of the white population in the Middle East marked the end of the original civilizations in those regions. In all the Middle Eastern countries the Semitic (Arabic) and black populations grew as they were used as labor by the ruling whites. In the case of Sumer, the white rulers were physically displaced by military conquest at the hands of Semitic invaders.

This process continued until almost all remains of the original whites in the greater region were assimilated into the darker populations. Only the occasional appearance of light-colored hair or eyes among today's Iraqis, Iranians, Syrians, and Palestinians serve as reminders of the original rulers of these territories.

Lesson—Role of Racially Foreign Labor in the Decline of a Civilization

The lesson is clear: a civilization will remain intact as long as its creating race remains in existence. This applies to all races equally—white, black, Mongolian, or any other. As long as a civilization's founding race maintains its territorial integrity and does not use large numbers of any other alien race to do its labor, that civilization will remain in existence.

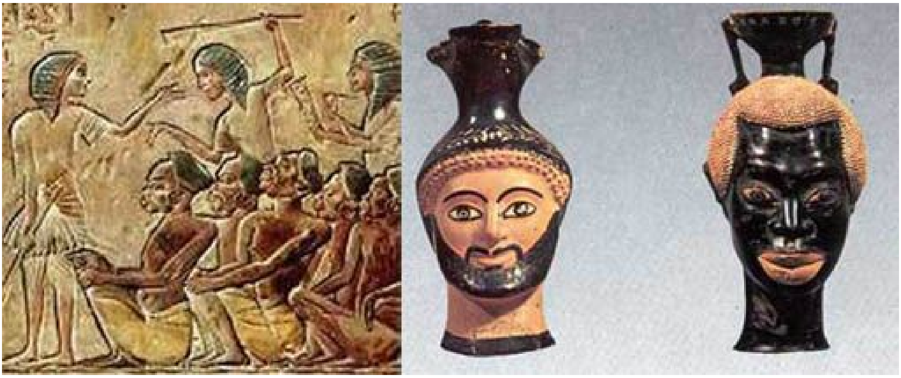
If a civilization allows large numbers of racial aliens into its midst (most often as laborers) and then integrates with those newcomers, that civilization will change to reflect the new racial makeup of the population.

Any civilization—be it white, black, Asian, or Aboriginal—stands or falls by the homogeneity of its population, and nothing else.

As soon as a society loses its homogeneity, the nature of that society changes.

This simple fact, often ignored by historians, provides the key to understanding the rise and fall of all civilizations, irrespective of race.

BLACK SLAVES IN EGYPT AND GREECE



Black slaves in Egyptian and Grecian society. Left: An Egyptian slave market, and right, two Greek vases, dating from the fifth century BC, show the racial types of two slaves: a Semite and a black.

History Is a Function of Race

The early white civilizations in Greece and Rome also fell to this process. The last great Grecian leader, Pericles, actually enacted a law in the year 451 BC limiting citizenship of the state according to racial descent. However, some four hundred years later this law was changed as the population shifts had become more and more evident. Certain Roman leaders tried to turn back the racial clock, but their efforts were in vain.

The sheer vastness of the Roman Empire meant that all sorts of races were included in its borders, and this brew ultimately led to the dissolution of the original Roman population.

Those who occupy a territory determine the nature of the society in that territory. This is an immutable law of nature. It is the iron rule upon which all of human endeavor is built—that history is a function of race.

The Rise and Fall of Civilizations Explained

- Each and every society and culture is the sum and unique product of the people making up that society;

- For example: The Chinese civilization is the product of the Chinese people; the Australian Aboriginal culture is the product of the Aboriginal people, and white society is the product of white people;

- This has nothing to do with subjective notions of superiority or inferiority;

- If the people in a society change their racial makeup, it is therefore logical that the culture of that society will change to reflect this shift in society;

- This is what is called the "rise and fall" of civilizations—where one culture gets replaced by a different culture;

- The cause of this replacement of cultures is the replacement of the people in that society;

- In this way, the American Indian culture "fell" because they were replaced by whites as the dominant race on the North American continent;

- Civilizations do not then "fall"—they are merely replaced by another culture, which is the product of the new population.

A civilization "rises and falls" by its racial homogeneity and nothing else. As long as it maintains its racial homogeneity, it will last—if it loses its racial homogeneity, and changes its racial makeup, it will "fall" or be replaced by a new culture.

CHAPTER 1: The First White Racial Types

It is often argued that climatic influence is the cause of physical racial differences. This is, however, not borne out by the historical facts. For example, the argument is often heard that the white race has its color because it originated in the cold north, and that the black race has its color because it originated in the hot south.

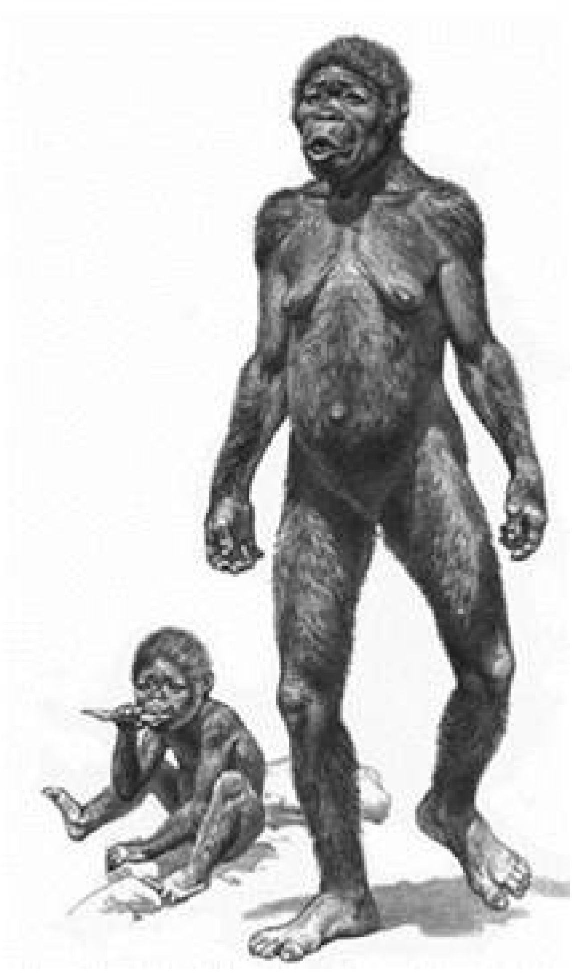
Apart from the obvious geographical impossibility of this conjecture (because many of the white race's greatest achievements were made in a hot climate—the Middle East and Egypt), this argument does not explain why members of the Mongoloid races (Chinese, Japanese, and others) have their distinctive racial characteristics. How did the climate of Asia create the distinctive eye shape and skull structure by which Mongoloid races are known?

The reality is that physical characteristics are genetically determined at the moment of conception, and there is absolutely no evidence to indicate that living in a cold or a hot climate changes the genetic makeup of a group of people. If a large group of Chinese people moved to Norway, and lived there for any length of time, all the while remaining (marriage and childrenwise) within their racial group, would anyone seriously suggest that they would "evolve" into blue-eyed blond people over any period of time?

The same argument can be used in reverse. Who would seriously contend that if whites moved to China (and remained within their own genetic community, not interbreeding with the local population), they would become Mongoloid in physical appearance after any length of time? People may grow a little taller, or live a little longer with better nutrition or medical services, but this is merely an extension of the genetic potential of those people, rather than a change in the genes themselves. Climate, then, can never change the gene pool of a people.

Genes Change through Mixing

The only way a gene pool can be changed is if enough members of that gene pool mix—physically integrate and have offspring—with a gene pool outside of that original group. This is the only way in which genes can "change." History is full of examples where this has happened, where original racial groups have integrated with other previously separate racial groups to produce new groups which overall have different physical and even cognitive characteristics from both the original parent groups.



A representation of Australopithecus—a Homo erectus type, based on archaeological and fossil evidence. There is no clear evidence linking any Homo erectus type with the modern white racial type, or even with the Neanderthal racial type.

Environment and Achievement

Another popular modern myth is that some racial groups developed faster than others because of the accident of their geographic location. This is known collectively as the environmental theory of development: because some races were "lucky" enough to live around fertile river basins, or had access to certain types of domesticated animals or edible plants, they then developed faster than other racial groups elsewhere in the world.

This worldview attempts to explain the huge technological gap which existed between the white Europeans and the black Africans, Native Americans (Amerinds), Asians, and Australian Aborigines at the time of white exploration and colonization of the world.

While it is not the purpose of this book to delve into what are, after all, subjective notions of superiority and inferiority (what is regarded as superior by some can be regarded as inferior by another), the issue of the technological gap between the races needs addressing, if only because it played such a huge role in the history of the white race's interaction with the other races of the world.

The "environmental" theory as expounded by modern sociologists is destroyed by two main examples: Egypt, and a comparison between the indigenous cultures of Equatorial Africa and Central America.

In Egypt, as will be shown, the black and white races shared an identical geographic location along the banks of the Nile River—yet the ancient white Egyptians produced a civilization which is still a marvel of world history, while the achievements of the black (Nubian) inhabitants of the same region were distinctly unremarkable in comparison.

If the "lucky environmental accident" were true, then there should not have been such a vast difference between the original white Egyptians and the black Nubians, since they shared an identical environment.

Often the argument is made that whites had an advantage because they had pack animals and horses while the native peoples did not—this argument ignores the fact that the white Egyptians did not have horses until long after the creation of many of their finest technological marvels.

In fact, horses were introduced to Egypt by the Semitic Hyksos invasion which occurred hundreds of years after the first flowering of Egyptian civilization.

Disparity in Achievement—Same Environment

It is of value to compare the achievements of the nonwhite Inca and Aztec Amerind peoples in Central and South America, lying just north and south of the equator, with that of the original heartland of the black race, also just north and south of the equator in Africa. Due to the proximity to the equator, virtually identical environmental conditions prevailed (and still prevail) in Central America and Central Africa. Neither region had horses, and both had the challenges of the equatorial rain forest with which to deal.

Despite the similarity in environment, the Amerinds in Central America were able to build sophisticated buildings, establish written forms of communication, produce gold, engage in precious metalworking, and a host of other advances, while in Africa little progress beyond the Stone Age was made. The disparity between the nonwhite Amerinds and the nonwhite Africans cannot be explained by the "accident of geography." Lastly, and most devastatingly, the "environment" argument falls flat when measured against the rise and fall of civilizations.

Why is it that Ancient Egypt at one stage led the world in culture and civilization, yet today is a backward third world country? If environment alone gave certain peoples a "permanent advantage" then it would surely follow that Egypt would today be one of the most advanced countries in the world. In reality it is, as any visitor to that land will testify, filled with misery, poverty, and backwardness—despite the "environment" being exactly the same as it was during the great age of the civilization which built the pyramids. The "environmental" theory does not, therefore, explain why Egypt, with exactly the same environmental conditions, lost its preeminence over the rest of the world.

Technological Ascendancy—Reasons

What caused the technological gap? If environment did not cause it, the only other logical explanation must be that certain types of cultures, or civilizations, are the products of certain types of people—representative of the innate potential of any given group. While this is presently deemed a politically incorrect point of view, the facts of historical development support no other conclusion.

Another example: North America was for the greatest part colonized by white Europeans, and subsequently became the leading power in the modern world. South America, on the other hand, having far richer natural resources than North America, was never majority colonized by white Europeans and today has a majority mixed-race population. This continent is classed as third, or at best, second world.

If environment were the only factor determining levels of achievement, South America should in theory be more advanced than North America, since it has far more "environmental advantages."

Homo Erectus and Neanderthals

Archaeology and its allied science, paleoserology, have revealed that life forms in the general shape of humans (that is, two arms, two legs, a torso, a head, and the ability to walk upright on the two legs) appeared in different places across the earth approximately two million years ago. These were the “Homo erectus” (or “upright man”) racial types so favored by evolutionists as the “ancestors of man.” These creatures have been found scattered throughout Europe, Africa, China, and Australia. It remains speculative to say with any certainty that modern man is descended from any of these Homo erectus racial types.

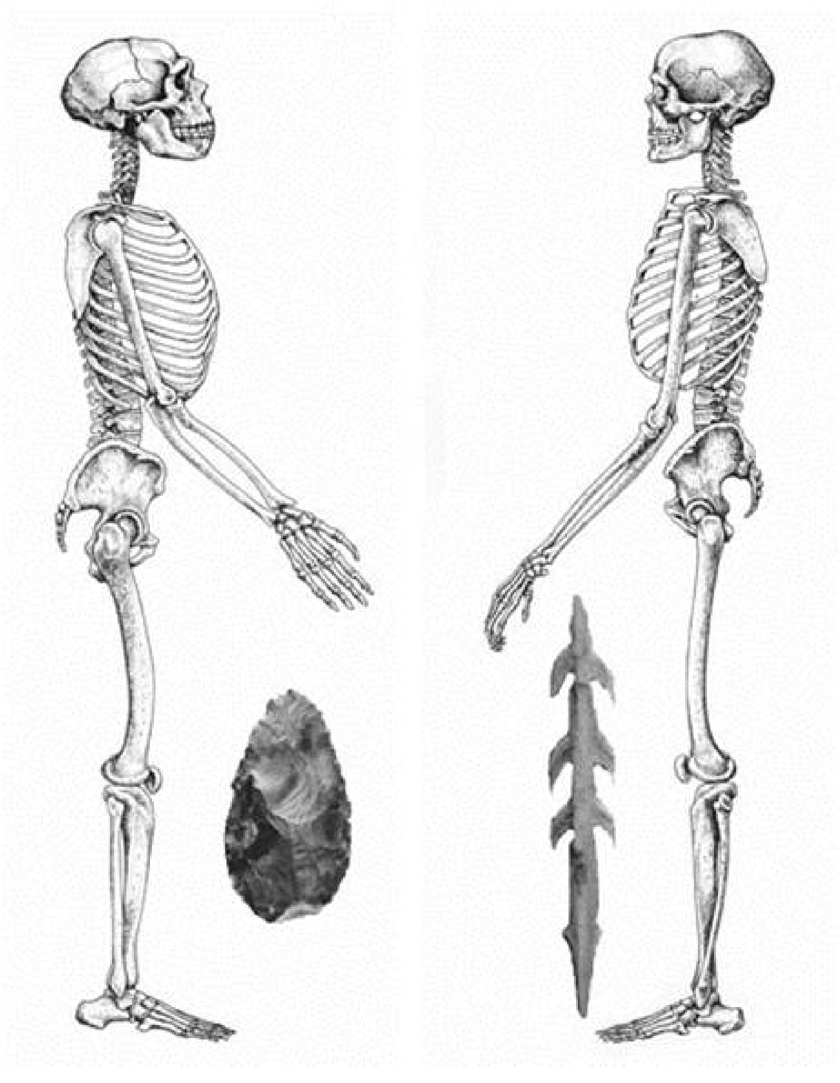
The time of the Homo erectus types is known as the Paleolithic Age, and is deemed to have come to an end coinciding with the appearance of a new racial type, Neanderthal man. The results of DNA tests carried out on Neanderthal remains by researchers at the University of Glasgow, UK, and published in the journal *Nature,* in March 2000, suggested that modern humans do not have Neanderthal ancestors in their family tree. This finding was contradicted by a study in 2010 (Richard E. Green et al , "A Draft Sequence of the Neanderthal Genome," *Science* 328 (5979): 710–722) which indicated that between 1 and 4 percent of modern human DNA is Neanderthal in origin.

Cro-Magnon—First White Racial Type

The first modern white racial type, known as Cro-Magnon man (after a site in the Dordogne region of France where the first skeletal remains were found), emerged between approximately 40,000 BC and 15,000 BC in parts of Europe and the Middle East during the Late Paleolithic period. Cro-Magnon man was the first life form with whom modern whites can claim a direct genetic affinity. White racial history therefore originates around the year 35,000 BC—and so it is with the Late Paleolithic period that the story in this book really begins.

CRO-MAGNON MAN—FIRST WHITE RACIAL TYPE

Above left and center: The well-preserved skull of a complete example of Cro-Magnon man, discovered in the Cheddar Gorge in England. The skeleton was originally dated at between forty thousand and thirty thousand years old, but recent research indicates that it may be only nine thousand years old. Above right: A reconstruction bust of Cro-Magnon man, made by the famous anthropologist, M. P. Coon. It is from Cro-Magnon man that recorded white history begins.



NEANDERTHAL MAN versus CRO-MAGNON MAN

A comparison of the skeletons of Neanderthal (left) and Cro-Magnon man (right) reveals many basic differences which indicate separate races. The *tools of the respective types (next to each skeleton) also indicate different levels of technology and achievement. Left, a Neanderthal-era sharpened stone scraper recovered from a Neanderthal site. Right, a Cro-Magnon barbed harpoon head, showing an advanced degree of skill in toolmaking ability.*

CHAPTER 2: The First Stirrings—the Late Paleolithic Age

The first racial types identifiable as similar to modern whites first appeared in parts of Europe, southern Russia, and the Middle East during the time period 30,000 BC to 15,000 BC, following the end of the last great Ice Age around the year 40,000 BC.

The new arrivals were known as Homo sapiens (or "wise man") in order to differentiate them from the other life forms known as Homo erectus and Neanderthal man.

These first racial types occurred in two main physical forms: the original Mediterraneans ("Old Europeans") who had dark hair and dark eyes, and the Proto Nordic or Cro-Magnon racial type—tall, with light hair and light eyes. In certain isolated areas in Europe—centered in Scandinavia—it is possible even today to find perfect living examples of this Proto Nordic racial type, differing only slightly in height from present-day Nordics.

This Proto-Nordic race's physical remains are plentiful because they wandered far and wide. They lived in a broad band spanning from Spain right across Europe all the way to Asia, where skeletal remains have also been found.

EARLY ART 30,000 BC WILLENDORF

An example of some of the earliest art: The Woman from Willendorf, *present-day Austria, dating from 30,000 BC.*

Nordic Types Comprise Ruling Elite

The Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic types often inhabited the same geographic areas—particularly so in the Middle East, but also extending to western Europe and the Balkans. A certain amount of mixing took place, but as the Mediterranean types were in the overwhelming majority, the incidence of Nordic characteristics among these first whites was relatively low, with most Nordic types comprising the ruling elite of these peoples.

This time period, circa 25,000 BC, is known as the Late Paleolithic era and was marked by two main characteristics—the hunter-gatherer stage of early white existence, and the extinction of Neanderthal man (through conflict with the new arrivals).

Hunter-Gatherer Existence

The Proto-Nordics of the Late Paleolithic age wandered from area to area, sometimes following new lands opened up by the retreating last ice sheets, but never settling for long, often driven on by the elements and the need for food and shelter. As a result of the transient nature of these people, they generally traveled in family groups, usually varying between five and twenty individuals. Small numbers of livestock and hunting provided their main means of sustenance.

While no great buildings or fixed structures remain from this period, smaller day-to-day artifacts are relatively plentiful. Excavations across Europe and Russia have shown that these early whites had fire, paint, stone blades, and the ability to fashion animal bones into weapons and tools. Sewing needles were also developed during this period.

SUNGIR, RUSSIA 27,000 BC—BEADS AND MATERIAL

One of the most remarkable finds from the Upper Paleolithic era is this clothed adult white male, discovered in Sungir, Russia, buried some 25,000 years ago. This was the type who created the first known inklings of white civilization during the interglacial period, starting approximately 40,000 BC. The intricacy of the beadwork and material with which the corpse was *buried is evidence that white Upper Paleolithic man was at this stage already fairly advanced—compared to Africa where woven material was introduced as recently as five hundred years ago.*

27,000 BC—Introduction of Musical Instruments and Use of Coal and Ceramics

Musical instruments also made their appearance—at sites in southern France, flutes dating back twenty-seven thousand years have been found. Coal was also first used as a fuel at about this time.

The southern parts of Europe would have been the primary point of contact between the northern Proto-Nordics and the Mediterranean types. These early whites also developed fired ceramics. Statuettes and other fired objects dating from approximately 26,000 BC have been found in the present-day Czech Republic.

Two significant weapons were also developed at this time which marked a great improvement: the spear thrower (an instrument made of bone which gave the thrower greater leverage and thus greater speed and distance) which made its appearance around 12,000 BC, and the bow and arrow, which first made its appearance around 9,000 BC. It was this period which produced, across Europe, a number of voluptuous female figure forms which have become known as "primitive Venuses." It is speculated that these figurines were fertility symbols.

Azilian Art 7000 BC

Perhaps the greatest difficulty in studying people of the Late Paleolithic age is that they left no written records of their achievements—only paintings on rock walls. One of the best preserved examples is also the most intriguing—the rock paintings found in the caves of Mas d'Azil in southern France. Here stones were found with what appears to be writing on them, although they have never been deciphered. If it is indeed writing, then it might be the first and oldest form of written communication in the world.

AZILIAN "ART"—FIRST WRITING?

Earliest Houses—Circa 30,000 BC

The earliest building remains of the Late Paleolithic period date from the time of the hunters who inhabited the areas now known as the Czech and Slovak Republics and southern Russia. To withstand the cold weather, Late Paleolithic hunter groups made clothes from sewn skins—traces of which have survived in sites in the Czech and Slovak Republics.

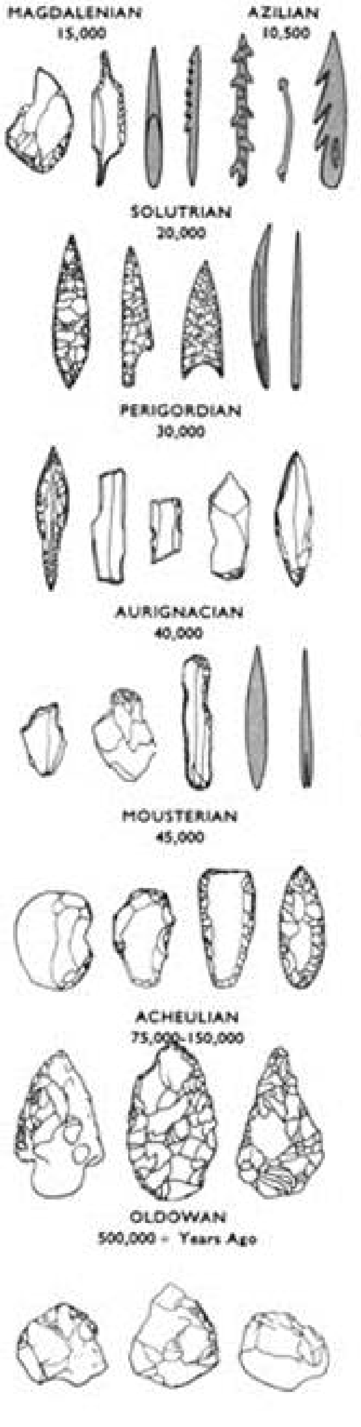
Mammoths—elephant-like creatures now extinct—were hunted during this period and houses were constructed out of mammoth ribs (which were used as roof supports). There is also evidence showing that Late Paleolithic people used the limestone caves of western Europe as shelters. All in all, Late Paleolithic life must have been bare, hard, and cruel.

The transient nature of society at this time was the primary cause of the lack of any great fixed settlements. This would be a development that would come with the establishment of agriculture, a feature of the time period after 10,000 BC.

Around this time the Alpine subgroup appeared: possibly as a result of mixing between the Proto-Nordic and Mediterranean types (this is, however, speculation).

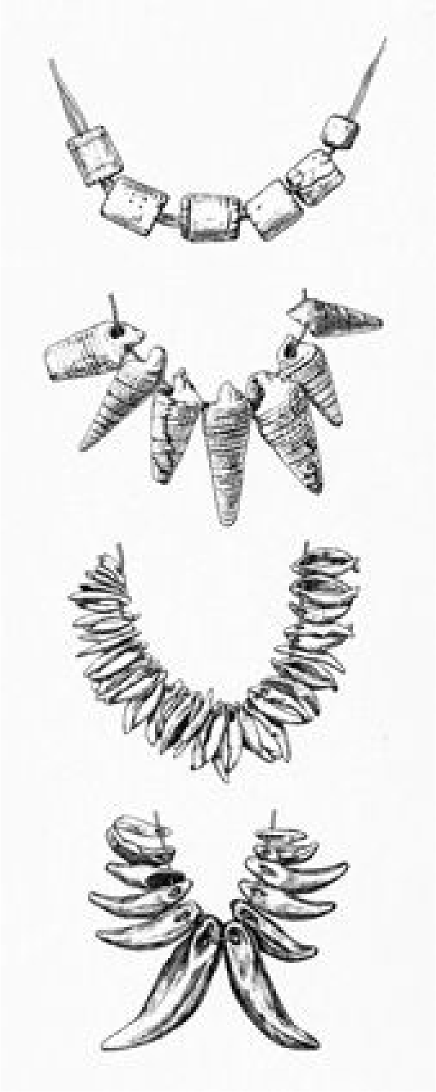
These three groups: Proto-Nordics, original Mediterraneans, and Alpines, settled large parts of Europe and the Middle East, a situation which remained stable until the entire continent was subjected to invasions by Nordic tribes—called the Indo-European peoples, which started around 5000 BC. The Indo-Europeans, the original European groups, and the Alpines, together form the basis of the white race which today inhabits Europe. These three white subgroups eventually combined to dominate territory which stretched from Britain to the Ural Mountains; from Scandinavia to North Africa and the Middle East.

With the advent of time, the Middle East was to become a maelstrom of races, with waves of settling whites, Arabics, Semites, and even Mongoloids at one time or another dominating the region and establishing their own cultures and civilizations. The present-day inhabitants of the Middle East are the product of many thousands of years of mixing between all these groups, and traces of each can be seen in their physiognomy.


MAGDALENIAN
15,000
AZILIAN
10,500
SOLUTRIAN
20,000
PERIGORDIAN
30,000
AURIGNACIAN
40,000
MOUSTERIAN
45,000
ACHEULIAN
75,000-150,000
OLDOWAN
500,000 - Years Ago

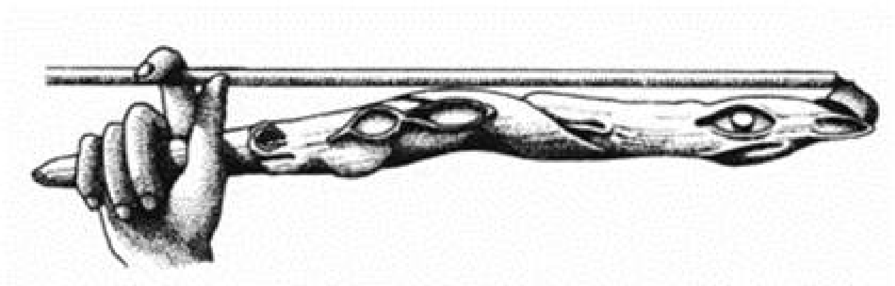
TOOL DEVELOPMENT MARKS APPEARANCE OF HOMO SAPIENS

Archaeological research has mapped different types of tools and their age periods. Note the massive jump in tool shape and technological ability coinciding with the arrival of the first white racial type, Cro-Magnon man, simultaneous with the so-called "Aurignacian" period.



DRILLED NECKLACES, CZECHOSLOVAKIA 20,000 BC

The technical ability of early whites is demonstrated with the intricacy of these four necklaces, all dating from approximately 20,000 BC, which were found in Upper Paleolithic sites in the Czech Republic. All items have had holes drilled in them, which is a remarkable feat for such an early time period.



SPEAR THROWER 12,000 BC

The first improvised propulsion mechanism for a spear or dagger. This spear thrower circa 12,000 BC, Late Paleolithic period, provided a lever by which a spear could be thrown further and with greater force.

CHAPTER 3: Vast Temples and First Cities—the Neolithic Age

As the climate improved with the recession of the last great ice age, Late Paleolithic man gradually became more settled and stayed in places which provided shelter and arable land.

These first fixed settlements led to a shift from a food gathering society to a food cultivating society, and the appearance of crops and the domestication of animals became features of their way of life. This change in culture is called the Neolithic Age. A regular and continuous food supply created by the establishment of farming meant that bigger populations could live in settled, more secure areas, and this marked the first time that the luxury of non-food producing professions within society became possible.

This shift from hunter-gatherer to settled agriculturalism occurred in fits and starts all over white-occupied Europe and the Middle East. The earliest farming sites in northern Europe were found in Ireland and dated from approximately the same time as the cultivation of crops in the Mesopotamian River Valley. As a general rule, the first Neolithic settlements can be said to have been established around 10,000 BC, and the cultivation of edible plants and the domestication of animals were commonplace all over Europe and the Middle East by 5000 BC.

Europe and the Middle East—Equally Advanced Around 5000 BC

The existence of an original civilization on the continent of Europe which predated the civilizations in the Middle East, has to a large degree been ignored by traditional history writers, particularly those who wrote during the dominant Christian era in Europe.

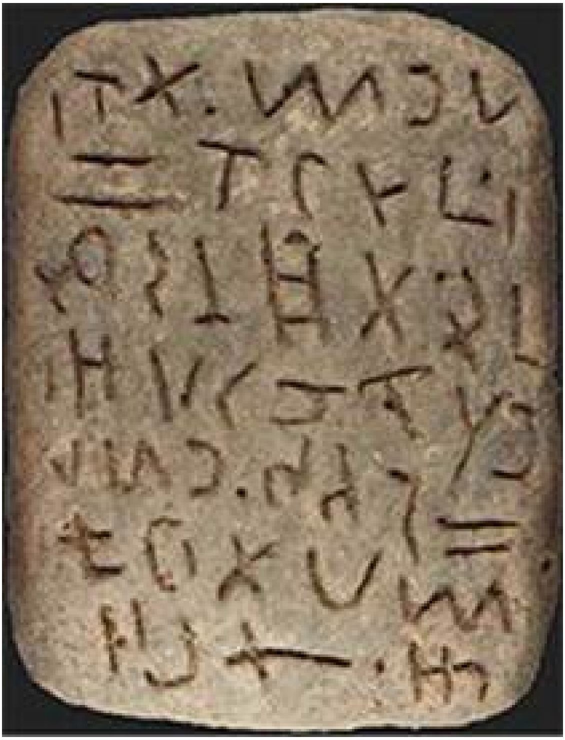
This was largely because of a biblical Judeo-Christian bias which held that all civilization started in the Middle East (the biblical Old Testament deals exclusively with events in the Middle East, and conventional wisdom during the Age of the Church held that the Garden of Eden was in that region).

This is not an accurate reflection of the facts, as in many parts of Europe relatively advanced societies were in existence either before or simultaneously with the Mesopotamian or Egyptian civilizations.

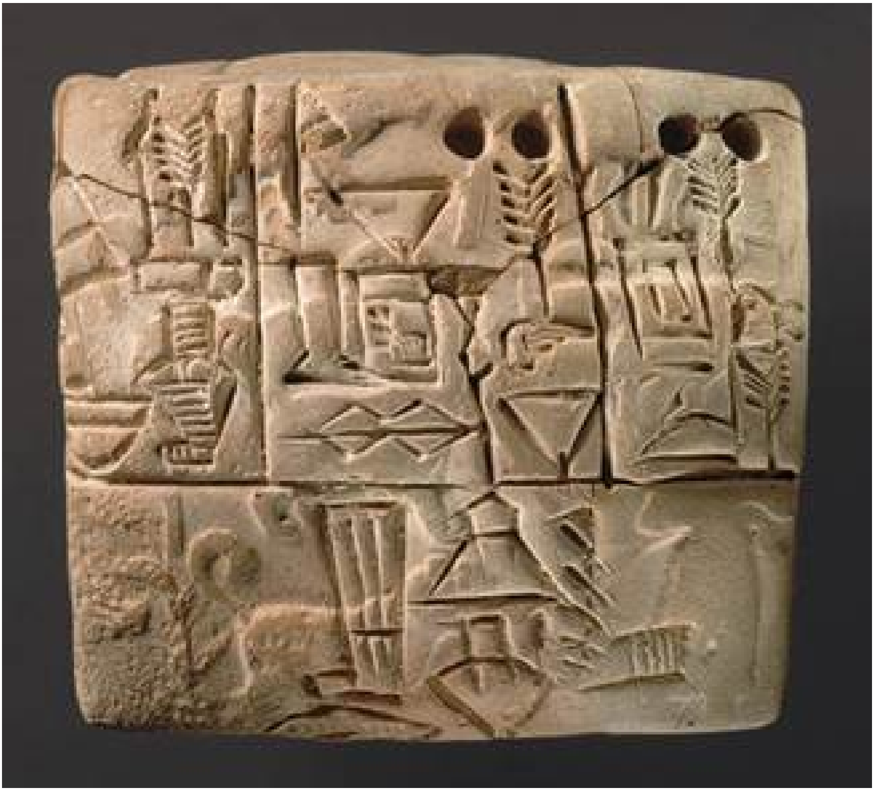
While it is most certainly true that the great cities and states in the Middle East were towering achievements, it is incorrect to regard them as the only flowering of civilization in the world at that time.

There are many huge buildings (called megaliths), early Neolithic settlements, artifacts, burial sites, and even a form of writing, which show that the inhabitants of Europe were advanced in the evolution of their societies and culture. This Old European civilization lasted for approximately three thousand years, and then fell before waves of new invaders, the Indo-European tribes sweeping in from the area we now know as Russia.

World's First Writing



Undeciphered writing found on tablets at Glozel, central France, dating from around 1500 BC.



Writing from Jemdet Nasr, Sumeria, Middle East, dated at around 3000 BC;

Undeciphered writing on the Tartaria tablet, found in Tartaria, Romania, and dated at 4500 BC.

White Mediterraneans and Proto-Nordics Populate Middle East

This is not to say that the original Old European inhabitants—mainly Mediterranean racial types with a minority of Proto-Nordics—were of a different race than the inhabitants of the Middle East at that time. Indeed, the first civilizations in the Mesopotamian River Valley (in present-day Iraq) were also created by white Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic racial types, as can be seen by the large number of surviving artifacts and images dating from this period in early white history.

Europe—Organized Farming and Copper

Cereal grain farms were established in central Europe by 8000 BC (almost simultaneous with the Mesopotamian “Fertile Crescent” River Valley crop cultivation) with some of the best preserved farming settlements in France and Britain positively dated as existing prior to 4000 BC.

Significantly, copper working had been established in the Balkans by 5000 BC—some two thousand years before it was produced in the Mesopotamian River Valley. In Neolithic Europe, where wood was abundant, rectangular timber houses were constructed. Some had two rooms and even gabled roofs. Remains found in Switzerland dating from around 5000 BC show that on soft, swampy ground the builders were able to erect houses by first laying down wooden foundations or by using piles driven deep into the ground.

By 5000 BC, white Neolithic settlements had taken the form of established villages, towns, and in a few cases, even cities, scattered throughout Europe and western and southern Russia. These early Neolithic farmers cultivated cereals, and kept domesticated animals such as pigs, cattle, and dogs.

Farms were established across the European continent, with some of the best preserved sites being found in Ireland. Their tools and hunting weapons were mostly made of flint, and their houses of timber. Clothes were made of leather, and there is also evidence of weaving. Other small implements were made of antler and bone, and they have left many examples of fairly sophisticated pottery.

Burial Mounds Expose Racial Makeup

The leaders of this early white society were buried according to religious rituals which are now lost, but the physical graves are a good source of knowledge about their society as a whole. Important leaders were buried in specially constructed narrow mounds called barrows. The existence of these grave sites—and a number of chance discoveries of less important graves—has served as a valuable indicator of the racial makeup of these early Europeans.

The general rule is that the further north, the more dominant Nordic or Proto-Nordic, while in places like Britain and central Europe there were a significant number of Alpine and Mediterranean racial types.

Old European Linear Script 4000 BC—Basis for Runes

These original continental European inhabitants had also developed a form of writing—called Old European linear script—around 4000 BC.

The exact origins of this language are lost (there is evidence that some or all of it may have come from Indo-European or Nordic invaders who penetrated Europe from their bases in southern Russia around this time), but it most likely laid the basis for sharp angular writing known as runes.

Fired Pottery and Gold Working in the Balkans

Hand fired pottery was produced in the Balkans around 6500 BC. Cities of more than one thousand inhabitants—huge by the standards of the time—had been established by approximately 5000 BC. There are copper mine shafts—some twenty meters deep—still existing in the Balkans which date from before 4000 BC. Gold worked jewelry discovered in the Balkans predates the gold working skills of the Egyptians by at least 1,600 years. By 2500 BC, copper working had spread all over continental Europe, with archaeological evidence showing extensive trade between settlements in England, France, Holland, and also into central Europe.

Critical Development—Iron Working 1000 BC

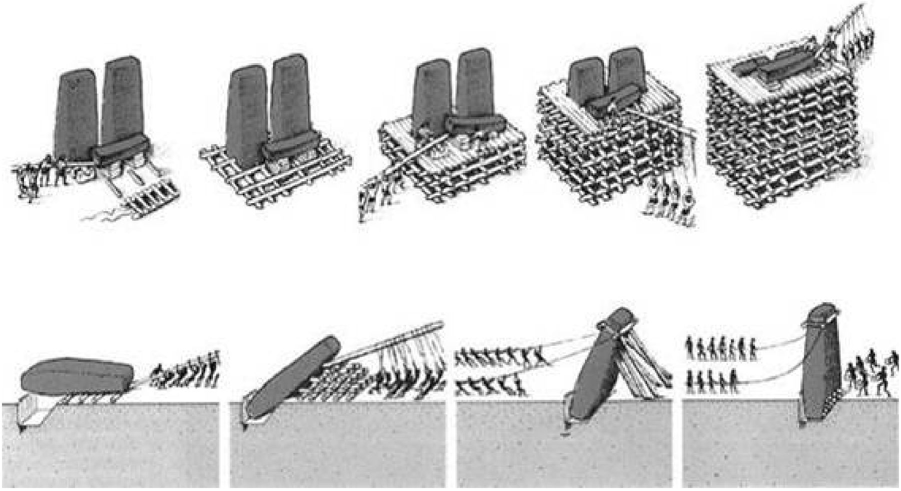
The introduction of iron working into western and northern Europe around 1000 BC—from central Europe and the Middle East—ushered in a new era, and it is from approximately this time that the early western Europeans started building hilltop forts, which later evolved into castles. These hilltop forts are scattered all over Europe, and some remained in use as forts right until the time of early Christianity, approximately 1,600 years later.

Megaliths—Formidable Achievements

In many parts of Europe, the longest lasting remnants of this era are the megaliths (large stones) which may have had some religious or recreational purpose. Massive blocks of stone, and sometimes wood, were moved great distances and erected in chosen areas throughout Europe: from Britain right across the Continent, some even as far as the Black Sea in southern Russia—a stupendous achievement.

The most famous of these megalith sites is Stonehenge in Wiltshire, England, which was built in stages, the first part being erected between 3500 BC and 3000 BC. To put this in perspective, the first stage of Stonehenge was built about one thousand years before the great Egyptian pyramids. The last part of Stonehenge was built around the year 1000 BC—hundreds of years before the Greek and Roman civilizations.

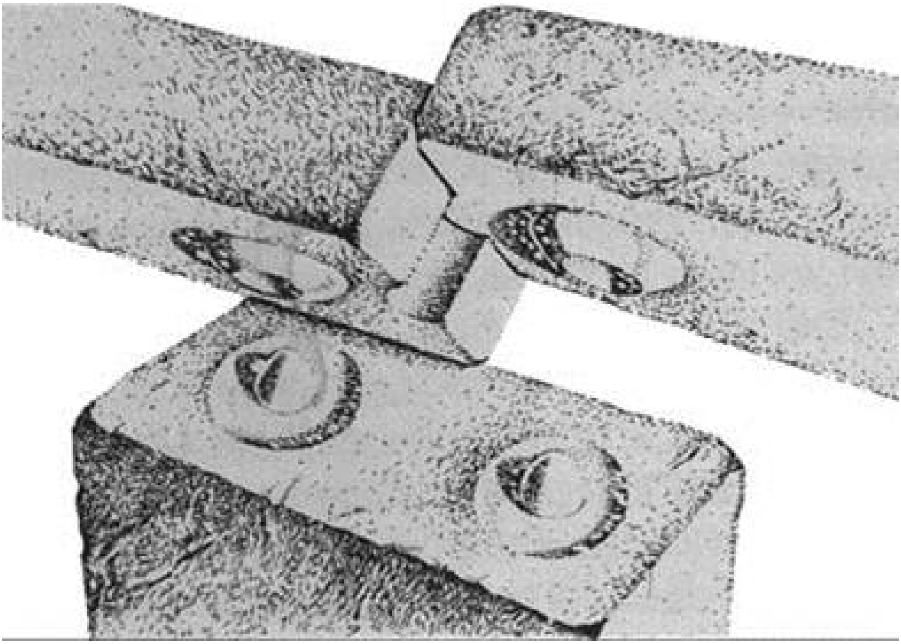
INGENIOUS Megalith Building Techniques



Building megaliths was no easy task. Pulling one of the massive stones erect was in itself a marathon effort, and then raising the equally huge lintels onto the top of other stones required a great deal of planning and foresight. Exactly how the early whites did it is still a puzzle to archaeologists. These illustrations of how the stones were raised and lintels placed are the most commonly accepted theories to explain how these superhuman feats were achieved.

Joints—In Stone

The megalithic monuments of Neolithic times were not simply piles of stones thrown on top of each other. The stones used at Stonehenge, *England, were cut on site and used an ingenious ball and joint system to lock into place. The ball can still be clearly seen on the top of the upright stone to the right, and below, an illustration of how the locks worked. The ability to create such structures from stone shows that these people were intellectually adept, and not the "savage barbarians" so often portrayed in the popular media.*



Neolithic farmers in Europe created a number of other impressive structures which predate Stonehenge. One of the earliest is situated quite close to Stonehenge, called Robin Hood's Ball, and consists of what appears to be circular foundations for either a large hall, or a number of buildings, and a grave site (judging by the human remains found in surrounding ditches). This structure dates from the very early Neolithic time, around 4000 BC, and indicates the establishment of set social structures at this early stage of European history.

Burial Chambers and Tombs All Over Europe

Often overlooked as historical evidence for the technological ability of the Neolithic settlements are the burial chambers and tombs which are scattered over large parts of Europe. Some of the oldest megalithic chamber tombs have been radiocarbon dated at 6000 BC—some 3,500 years older than the famous Egyptian pyramids. There are four types of megaliths: the menhir, or monolith, which is a single standing stone often of great size; a group of menhirs set in a circle, as at Stonehenge in England; a row of menhirs such as those to be found at Carnac in France; and the burial chamber, or chamber tomb, sometimes called a dolmen.

FIFTY THOUSAND MEGALITH SITES IN EUROPE REVEAL EXTENSIVE STONE AGE CIVILIZATION

Intricately carved walls on a Megalith tomb dating from before 3000 BC in Brittany, France. There are over fifty thousand such sites in Europe—proof of a flourishing culture thousands of years old.

A Megalith temple, Malta, circa 3000 BC. This island in the Mediterranean contains a massive Neolithic temple complex.

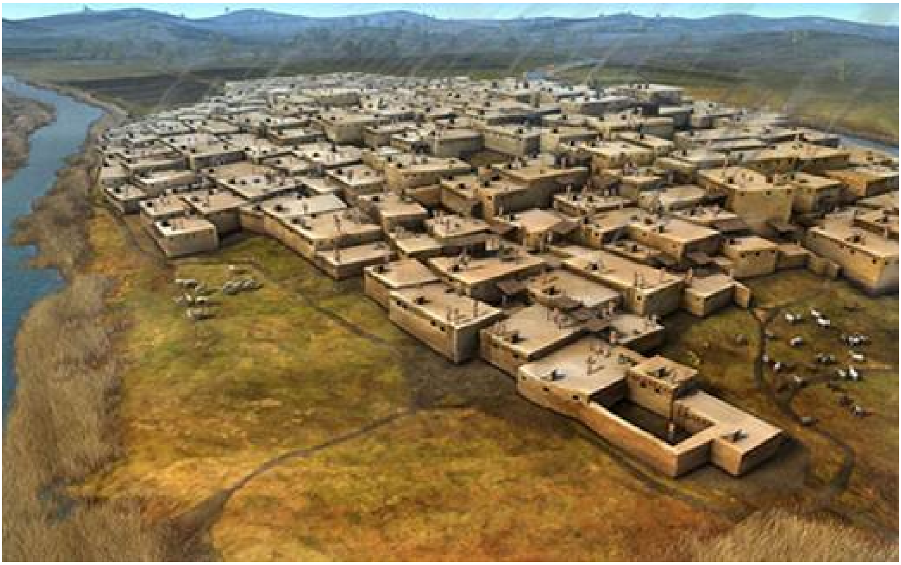
The chamber tombs are the most common type of megalith, and more than fifty thousand examples have been found on the European continent. Some of these tombs' interiors were decorated with intricate stone carvings and geometrical patterns, making stunning viewing even thousands of years after they were created.

Creation of World's Oldest Cities Circa 7000 BC

The growth of Neolithic settlements in Europe was matched by the growth of similar settlements in the Middle East. Once again the majority of the population were Mediterranean racial types accompanied by a significant number of Proto-Nordics who were very often tribal leaders (a tradition which was most pronounced in Egypt).

By 7000 BC, a town of mud brick houses and town walls had been built by Mediterraneans at the site now known as Jericho in Palestine. In Anatolia, Turkey, remains of another major city, Catal Huyuk, have been excavated, dating from approximately 6200 BC. This city also possessed brick making facilities, as well as the already established cereal crop cultivations. By around 5000 BC, farming villages were established all over the Middle East.

Catal Huyuk, as excavated and reconstructed.



At this time pottery was developed by the inhabitants of the Neolithic settlements. In the Middle East, the original white racial types were eventually displaced (and intermingled with) by massive waves of Semitic Arabs, imported Negroid slaves, and eventually by Mongoloid invaders. It is from this mixture that the modern Egyptian and many other North Africans are descended.

With the creation of fixed settlements and continuous, albeit slow, technological advances, it became inevitable that these communities would take their next great step: the creation of a system of literacy and law establishing a formal social contract between the individuals making up the communities.

The creation of fixed settlements in Europe and the Middle East as a result of the farming revolution, known as the Neolithic Age, laid the basis for the next great leap in white civilization: the establishment of Old European civilizations in central Europe and in the Middle East.

CHAPTER 4: Laying the Foundations—the Old European Civilizations

As the Neolithic revolution became more widespread and larger fixed settlements began to spring up, it was inevitable that these Old Europeans and Proto-Nordic types would start establishing formal societies. The Old European civilizations then came into being, laying much of the groundwork for the later development of classical Greece and Rome.

Although these Old European civilizations were quite distinct from classical Greece and Rome, they are often mistakenly thought of as one and the same thing. The original, or Old European settlements, dominated huge areas of Europe and Russia, stretching from Italy right through to the Black Sea, including all of modern Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, and part of the Ukraine. The crucial difference is that the Old European civilizations were created by the original continental Europeans (Proto-Nordic, Alpine, and Mediterranean, with the latter two being in the majority), while the classical civilizations of Greece and Rome received their impetus from Indo-European or Nordic invasions which had started around 5000 BC.

The continental Old European civilizations in the Aegean were the Cretan civilization, centered at Knossos on the island of Crete; the city-state of Troy, situated adjacent to the Dardanelles in Asia Minor; certain smaller city-states on the Greek mainland; and the Etruscans in Italy. These city-states were the first to fall before the great Indo-European invasions. Absorbed into the Indo-European peoples, the Old Europeans largely disappeared and this mix of white peoples laid the basis for the Mycenaean culture which replaced the Cretan civilization as the dominant force in the Aegean.

Crete—World's First Flushing Toilets

The island of Crete, situated to the south of Greece, was home to the Cretan civilization, also known as the Minoan civilization (named after Minos, in legend the most powerful of the Cretan kings).

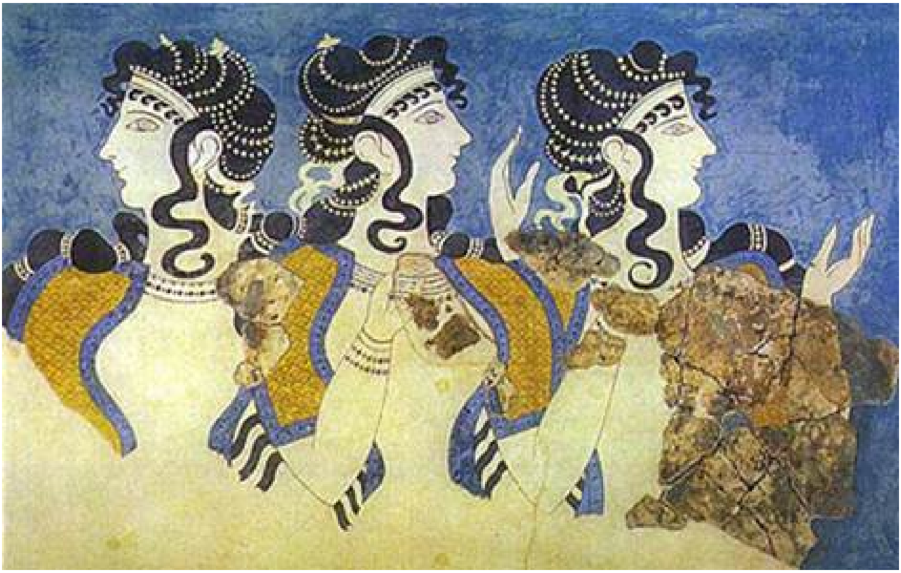
IMPOSING KNOSSOS PALACE 2000 BC

An idea of the enormity and sophistication of the Old European palace of Knossos, Crete, can be gained from this view of surviving pillars and stairs. Three floors high with thousands of rooms, the palace was a masterpiece of early architecture.

The original Mediterranean racial composition of this first Cretan civilization has been confirmed by the anatomists Bowdy Dawkins, W.L.H. Duckworth, and Felix von Lauschan, all of whom excavated and examined skeletal remains on Crete.

Their unanimous conclusion was that the Cretans were all members of the Mediterranean subrace (*Race,* John R. Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 516). This skeletal evidence is backed up by the art forms left by the Cretans themselves, particularly in the depictions of social events which are still existent on the walls of the now ruined great Cretan palace at Knossos.

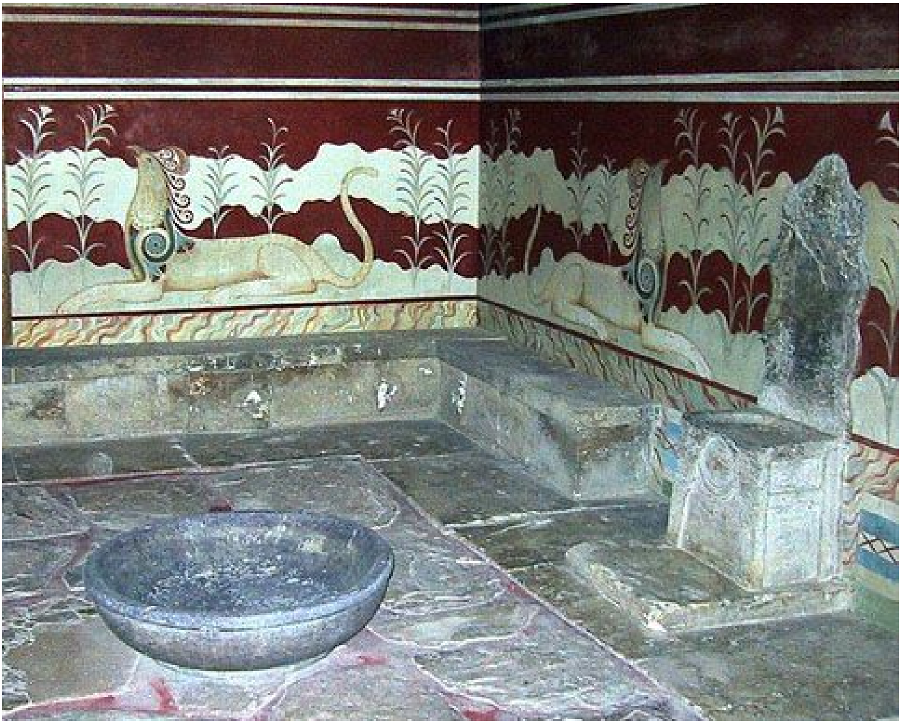
OLD EUROPEAN TYPES IN CRETE



An image of three Old European, or Mediterranean, racial types, taken from a surviving fresco on the walls of the ruins of the palace at Knossos. The links between this ancient civilization and ancient Egypt are confirmed through surviving records and the fact that the artists at Knossos followed the Egyptian convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins.

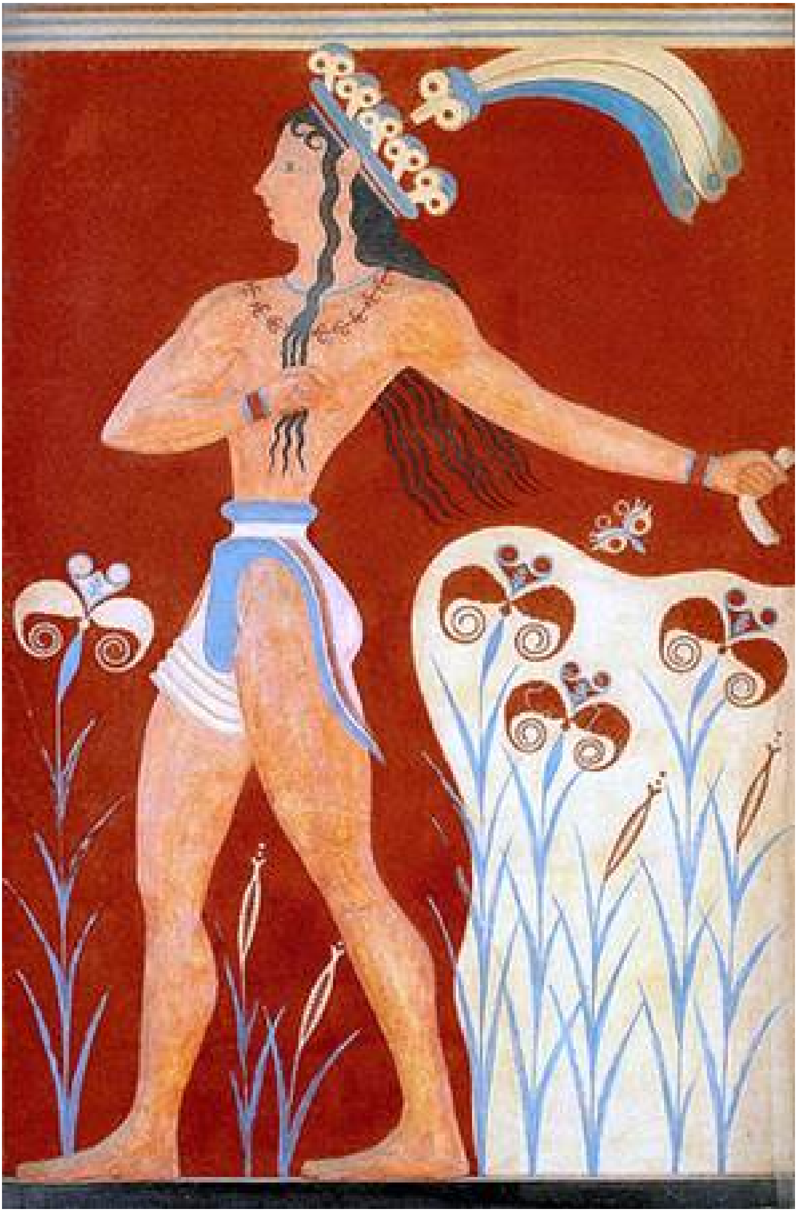
KNOSSOS—SOPHISTICATED BUILDING

The sophisticated nature of the palace of Knossos on Crete is apparent from the fine staircases which can still be seen today—a magnificent example of Old European civilization at its height. The palace remains suffered earthquake damage and possible war damage after the Old European civilizations were toppled by Nordic Indo-European invaders. The vast palace, with its thousands of rooms, spawned the myth of the Minotaur, a half bull, half man creature in Greek mythology, and of the labyrinth or maze in which it lived.



WORLD'S OLDEST EXISTING THRONE 2000 BC

A reconstruction of the throne room of Minos in the palace of Knossos on Crete, and inset, the remarkably well preserved room as it may be viewed today. It is the oldest existing throne in the world, cut out of stone and built into the wall. The palace was constructed circa 2000 BC.



A fine depiction of a Minoan king, as shown on a fresco on the walls of the palace of Knossos on Crete.

By the year 3000 BC, Crete had contact with the budding Egyptian civilization, and many Cretan religious customs and social habits were taken directly from Egypt. Being an island state, it would be fairly logical that the Cretans would possess well developed seafaring skills. The Cretans were governed by a priest king who had his residence at Knossos. This palace was three stories high and was the ultimate in luxury at the time. The city of Knossos appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake in 1400 BC—the result of the titanic volcanic eruption which destroyed the neighboring island civilization of Santorini. However, enough artifacts have survived to provide a clear picture of the racial types who inhabited the island.

Most of the walls were of painted plaster, decorated with elaborate frescoes, with the most famous being of a Cretan national sport, “bull jumping”—where brave athletes would grab a charging bull by the horns and somersault backward over the length of the bull’s body.

Minoan art provides fascinating insight into the nature of the society at the time—men and women dressed for the warm climate, with women bare breasted, and men beardless.

Ancient Cretans followed the Egyptian artistic convention of painting males with red skins and females with white skins. Flowers, plants, sea creatures, and dolphins feature prominently in their art forms, indicating that their society was advanced and wealthy enough to concern itself beyond just basic survival activities. One interesting original development introduced at Knossos was a running water sanitation system—the first “flushing” toilet in the world.

The exact date of the collapse of the Cretan civilization is unfortunately not recorded, but it stopped functioning as a cultural unit when the island was invaded by an Indo-European Nordic tribe, the Mycenaeans, around the year 1500 BC.

The Cretans were thereafter physically absorbed into the Mycenaeans, and later became an integral part of the civilization of classical Greece.

In 1900, a British archaeologist, Sir Arthur Evans, rediscovered Knossos and found baked clay tablets with two types of writing dating from around 2000 BC. These are called Linear A and Linear B scripts which are possibly the oldest identifiable forms of European continental writing (if the “writing stones” found at the Caves of Mas d’Azil in France and the Tartaria Tablet from Romania are discounted).

Later research showed that the Linear B script was a form of Mycenaean writing (which has been deciphered), while the Linear A script was original Cretan (which has not been deciphered).

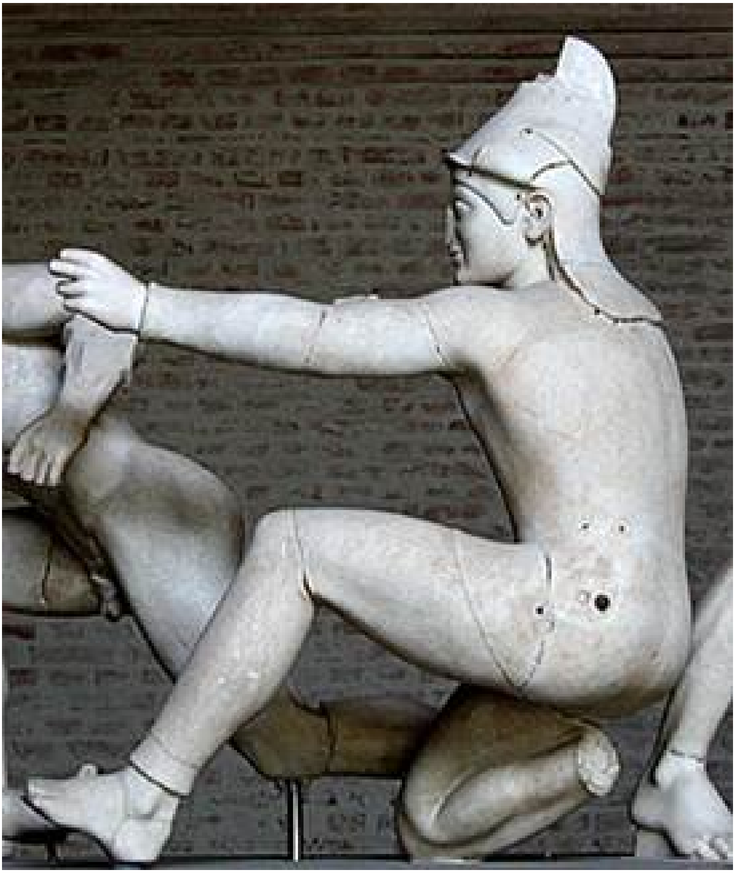
City of Troy—First Built 3000 BC

Around the year 750 BC, two great epics, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey,* were set down and attributed to the blind poet Homer. *The Iliad* describes the war between the Greek city-states and the city of Troy, while *The Odyssey* tells of the adventures of an Ionian king, Odysseus, during his journey home after the war with Troy had ended.

For many years the city of Troy was thought to exist only in Homer's poems and was associated with the famous story of the wooden horse. (Greek soldiers supposedly infiltrated the city of Troy hidden in a trick wooden horse after having unsuccessfully besieged Troy for nearly ten years.) In 1870 an amateur archaeologist, Heinrich Schliemann, discovered the city of Troy. He unearthed a total of nine cities, all built on top of one another, indicating entire periods of history about which very little is known.

LEGEND BECOMES REALITY—TROY REDISCOVERED

Once thought only to exist in the imagination of the poet Homer, the city of Troy did, in fact, exist and was discovered by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann in the late nineteenth century. Instead of finding one city, Schliemann discovered nine different cities, each built on top of the other. Very little is known about some of the earliest cities. Troy was originally founded by the Old European civilizations and was occupied by numerous powers during its history: hence the nine different layers. The wall at the very left of the picture dates from the city built by the Romans *when they occupied Troy.*



A Trojan bowman, carved from marble. A figure on the east facade of the temple of Aphaia, in Aegina, Greece, and below, as reconstructed.

The earliest city on the site dates from about 3000 BC, and the various cities (called Troy I–IX) were destroyed in a series of earthquakes, fires, or wars, as recounted in Homer's poems. It is difficult to state for certain how much of the wooden horse story is true but it is likely to have some basis in fact as Troy and many Greek city-states were at war with one another around the year 1200 BC.

The last Trojan city, number IX, appears to have been a Greek and later a Roman city known as Ilium. As with Crete, the date of the exact end of Troy has also been lost with the passage of time. By the time Troy had fallen, the great Indo-European invasions of the Greek mainland had begun, and it is possible that the city may at one stage have been destroyed during one of these invasions.

The Etruscans—Origins North of the Alps

The Etruscans were one of the original Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic peoples living in the Italian peninsula before the Indo-European invaders reached that part of the world.

Originally called the Villanovans (after a place where they lived), the Etruscans penetrated Italy from somewhere north of the Alps. They apparently had close contact with some of the Old European civilizations around the Aegean Sea, as they adopted Greek characters for writing their language.

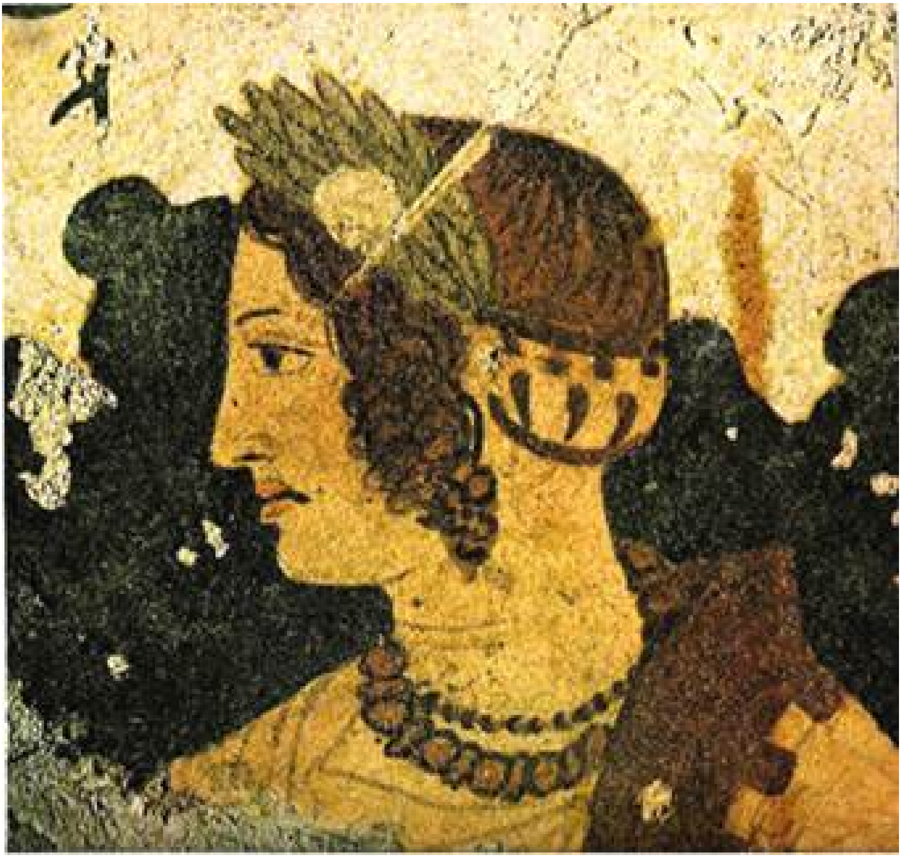
Villanovan grave sites have revealed a rich yield of impressive worked metal armor and personal artifacts, some dating from 1000 BC, the time when ironworking first became widespread in Italy.

With the advantage provided by iron weapons, the Etruscans quickly subdued other original Mediterranean peoples in Italy, and established a state running from the Po River Valley in the north to about a third of the way from the end of the Italian peninsula.

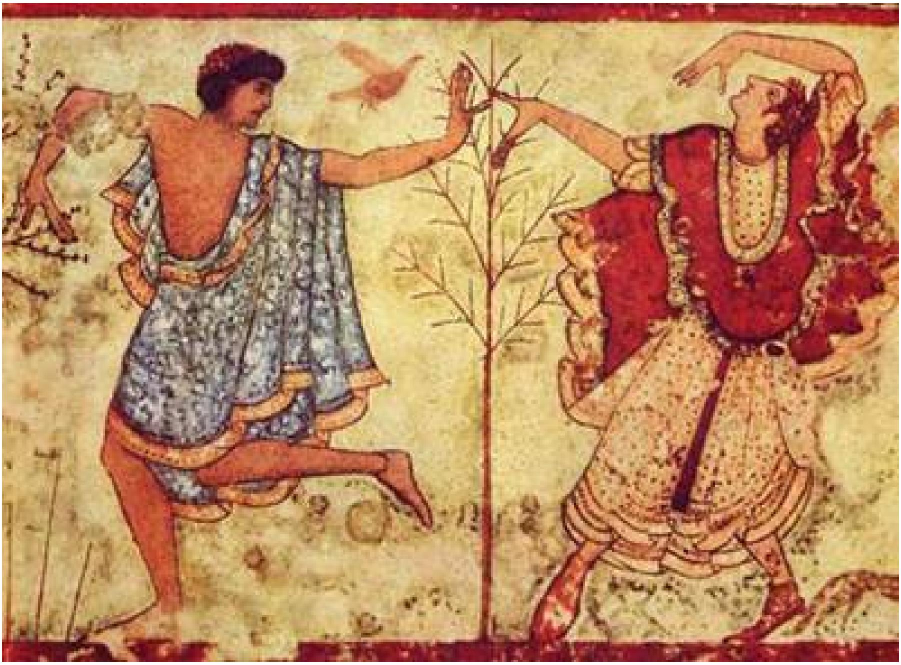
Their most notable achievement was the settlement of towns and concentrated urban areas, one of which was later to become the city-state of Rome.

ETRUSCANS—FOUNDERS OF ROME

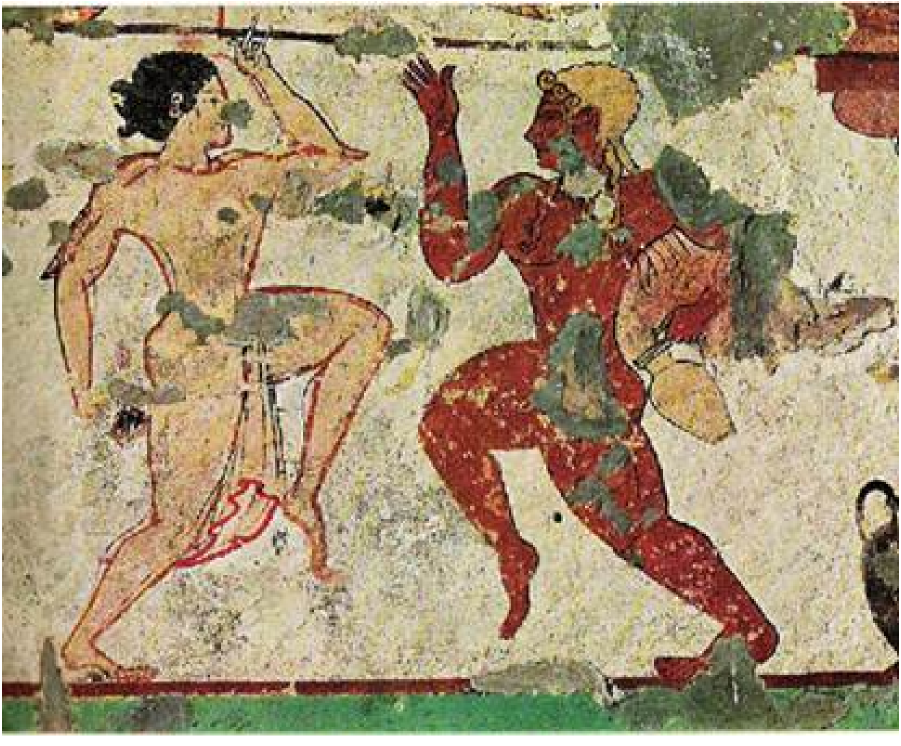
Original representations of the racial characteristics of the Etruscan peoples, who occupied the Italian peninsula before the arrival of the Indo-European Latini tribe. The Latini, who gave their name to the language they spoke, Latin, mixed with the Etruscans and from this combination came the Romans.



Profile of a Woman—*Etruscan, late fourth century BC. Wall painting, Tomb of Orcus, Tarquina.*



Dancing woman and lyre player—*Etruscan, fifth century BC. Wall painting, Tomba del Triclinio, Tarquinia. (Note the Old European artistic tradition of painting the men red.)*



Ritual Dance—*Etruscan, sixth century BC. Wall painting, Tomba delle Leonese, Tarquinia. Note the hair coloring, both Old European (Mediterranean) female on the left, and Nordic, or proto-Nordic, male, on the right.*

With the arrival of new invading Indo-European tribes—in this case the most important being the Latini—the Etruscans were absorbed into the new Roman state, with the last official Etruscan king being expelled from Rome in 509 BC.

After a few hundred years, the assimilation process between the Etruscans and the Indo-European Latini tribe (the Romans) had reached the point where the Romans offered the Etruscans full citizenship. By 100 BC, the Etruscans had been completely absorbed into the Roman Empire, which was in turn to dominate the known world.

In addition to the Old European civilizations on the European continent, the Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic subracial groups had, by 4000 BC, occupied much of what is today known as the Middle East—from Egypt through to the Fertile Crescent (the region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers).

These original Mediterraneans were responsible for many of the civilizations in that region. They were subject to almost constant invasion: either by waves of Nordic Indo-Europeans from the north, or by waves of invading Semites from the south.

Sometimes these Old Europeans managed to defeat the invaders, but more often than not they were unable to resist. In this way they were gradually absorbed into the gene pools of their conquerors—these events are reviewed in another chapter.

Ancient White Civilization in India Circa 2500 BC

One of the most far-flung of the Old European settlements was to be found in present-day northern India. Known as the Harappan culture (after an excavated city, Harappa in modern Pakistan) or the Indus Valley Civilization, it was unknown until 1927 when the first major excavations took place.

The remains of settlements belonging to this culture have been found throughout the Indus River Valley in Pakistan, westward along the coast to the Iranian border, in India's northwestern states as far east as New Delhi, and on the Oxus River in northern Afghanistan.

The Old European, or white Mediterranean, racial makeup of the people who created the Indus River Valley civilization has been proven by an examination of skulls and skeletal remains, undertaken by Col. R.B.S. Selwell and Dr. B.S. Guha of the Zoological Society of India, who both conclusively found that almost all were of the Mediterranean subrace (Chapter 11, in *Mohenjo-Daro and the Indus Civilization*, Marshall. J, 1931, London).

The first Old European settlement of the region was made around 2500 BC, when the white Mediterraneans probably arrived after trekking from the Tigris and Euphrates River Valley. They found darker natives in the region who were easily subjected. The Old European civilization lasted until the region was invaded by Indo-European Nordics around 1500 BC. The two major cities of the Indus Valley civilization were Mohenjo Daro, in the lower Sind, and Harappa, in the Punjab.

In many respects the cities of the Old European Indus Valley civilization were almost identical to that of other Old European civilizations, particularly that of Knossos on Crete. Even the layout of the cities, with their huge square buildings, was identical.

Mohenjo-Daro—Forty Thousand Inhabitants

The major site in this region is the city of Mohenjo-Daro. The remains of this citadel—excavated between 1927 and 1930—bear a striking physical resemblance to the Old European settlements in early Mesopotamia and Crete.

At its peak, Mohenjo-Daro must have had over forty thousand inhabitants, a substantial amount for the time. The city was based on an advanced grid plan layout, with streets running in very clearly arranged city blocks. One of the most astonishing aspects of the city was the sewerage system—the people of Mohenjo-Daro developed both public and private hygiene to a degree unmatched in many parts of the modern world. Each house, large or small, was provided with earthenware pipe fitted crossways into the walls which opened into a small individual gutter. This, in turn, joined central covered sewers.

At intervals there were decantation ditches where the main sewers joined. These were designed to collect the heaviest waste so that it would not obstruct the mains. The houses also all had baths—another innovation for the time—and the water for this purpose was supplied from the many wells throughout the city.

All the Indus River Valley civilization towns had great building works and an orderly administration built upon an agricultural economy. Many of the houses were built on mud-brick platforms that protected the buildings from seasonal floods, and multiple story dwellings were common.

Other structures included large buildings that may have been used for storing grain for private or government use. The Old European inhabitants of the Indus River Valley also developed pictographic writing. A large number of clay seals bearing this language have been recovered, but sadly they have never been deciphered.

THE INDUS RIVER VALLEY CIVILIZATION

Mohenjo-Daro, the center of the Old European Indus River Valley civilization. Excavated first in 1921, this white Mediterranean civilization was situated in the present-day Sind and Punjab regions of India. It was settled by Old Europeans around 2500 BC who were possibly migrants from the Tigris/Euphrates River area. Mohenjo-Daro was the greatest city of this civilization and its ruins and water borne sewerage system can be seen to this day.

A bust recovered from Mohenjo-Daro shows the racial type of the inhabitants of this civilization, which extended north to the borders of modern Afghanistan. These white Mediterraneans were absorbed into two sets of outsiders: nonwhite dark -skinned locals and Indo-Aryan invaders who entered the region around 1500 BC. A study of the racial composition of the inhabitants of this region—taken from grave sites—confirms the great mix of racial types and the ultimate vanishing of the original Old Europeans into this new mixed population.

Old Europeans Absorbed

It is often suggested that the drying up of a major river in north India—the Hakra River—was the cause of the collapse of the Indus River Valley civilization. This is not the likely cause of the collapse of the entire culture as it was spread out further than just around one river.

The real reason for the disappearance of the people of the Indus River Valley is much simpler. Like all of the Old European civilizations, the Indus Valley Harappans were overwhelmed and integrated into other peoples, whether dark natives or the new white invaders, the Indo-European Aryans (as detailed in chapter 5).

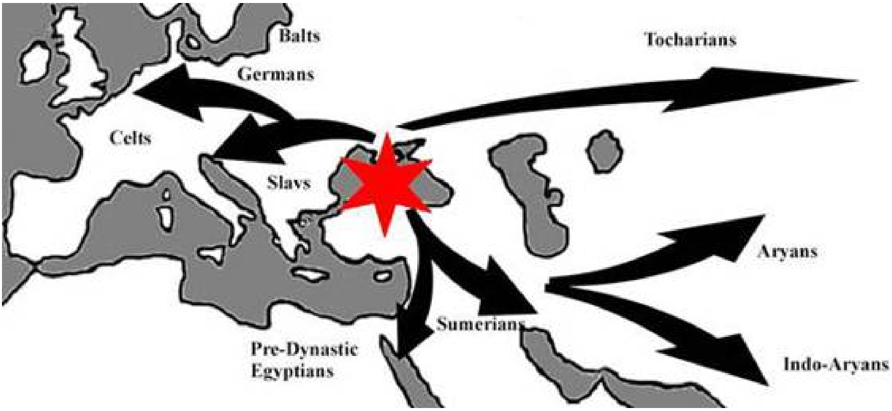
In this way all the original white Mediterranean civilizations—from western Europe right through to northern India—were all but wiped out through racial assimilation.

CHAPTER 5: Born of the Black Sea—the Indo-European Invasions

Many present-day whites are either direct or partial descendants of a great wave of white peoples who swept into Europe from about 5500 BC till around 500 BC.

These peoples, largely Nordic in terms of the white racial subgroups, had their original heartland in the region known today as central and southern Russia. Genetic studies of European populations which have emerged since the year 2000 have confirmed the Indo-European invasion, but have also shown that it was not as numerically overwhelming as previously thought. Its importance in cultural terms was unquestionably significant, sparking an upsurge in civilizations from China to Europe. Research by Robert Ballard and *National Geographic* magazine has proven that the Black Sea basin was flooded from the Mediterranean around 5600 BC—and that this was the probable cause of the first great Indo-European movement. With the aid of the horse, the first Indo-Europeans moved in all directions, disrupting the slow but steady pace of development everywhere they went. Large numbers settled in northern Europe; others moved off to the Middle East, and yet more ventured west, crossing into Britain and Spain.

BLACK SEA FLOOD CAUSES INDO-EUROPEAN MIGRATION 5600 BC



Meltwaters from the retreating ice sheets at the end of the Pleistocene caused the world's oceans to rise by almost 328 feet (100 meters). In 5600 BC, the risen waters of the Mediterranean Sea burst through the narrow neck of the Bosporus, inundating and destroying the civilization ringing the *fertile Black Sea basin. It is this catastrophe which triggered the great Indo-European migrations and spawned the legend of the biblical flood. Leaving the Black Sea basin, the Nordic Indo-European peoples invaded Europe and Asia. Europe was settled by four main groups: the Celts, the Germans, the Balts, and the Slavs. Offshoots included the Mycenae (A) into Greece and the Latini (B) into Italy. In all of these regions, the invaders found the already present population of Old Europeans to be racially assimilable. In the south they settled pre-dynastic Egypt and the Middle East, penetrating India (the Indo-Aryans), Afghanistan (the Aryans), and China (the Tocharians).*

"Battle Axe People"—Iron Making Advantage

These Nordics moved slowly westward, invading and reinvading western Europe for a period of nearly six thousand years, finally resulting in the establishment of a new Nordic heartland in northern Europe. Their great advantage over the already existing white Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic populations was that they brought with them the secret of ironworking: this is why some became known as the "battle axe people."

From this heartland in northern Europe—the womb of nations (*vagina gentium,* as the Romans called the region)—successive waves of Indo-European invaders swept down over a period of centuries into all parts of Europe and into the Near East, conquering or displacing the peoples they found. These original tribes had stone buildings and worked bronze and copper.

How much of this metal working skill was passed south to the Middle Eastern civilizations remains a matter of debate. However, what is certain is that successive waves of Indo-European tribes started invading central and southern Europe in earnest about 2000 BC.

They occupied large areas of present-day Turkey, Crete, Greece, southern Europe, and Italy. It was not long before these groups integrated, although the Indo-Europeans often provided the leadership elite of the societies which were created.

Some migrated into the Far East—as far as China, where Nordic remains have been found in burial chambers. The Indo-European tribes were responsible for many of the world's principal civilizations: the Aryans in India, the Kassites, the Hittites, and the Persian, Mycenaean, Greek, Roman, Celtic, Teutonic, Slavic, and present-day western European cultures.

The Indo-European Invasions—Europe

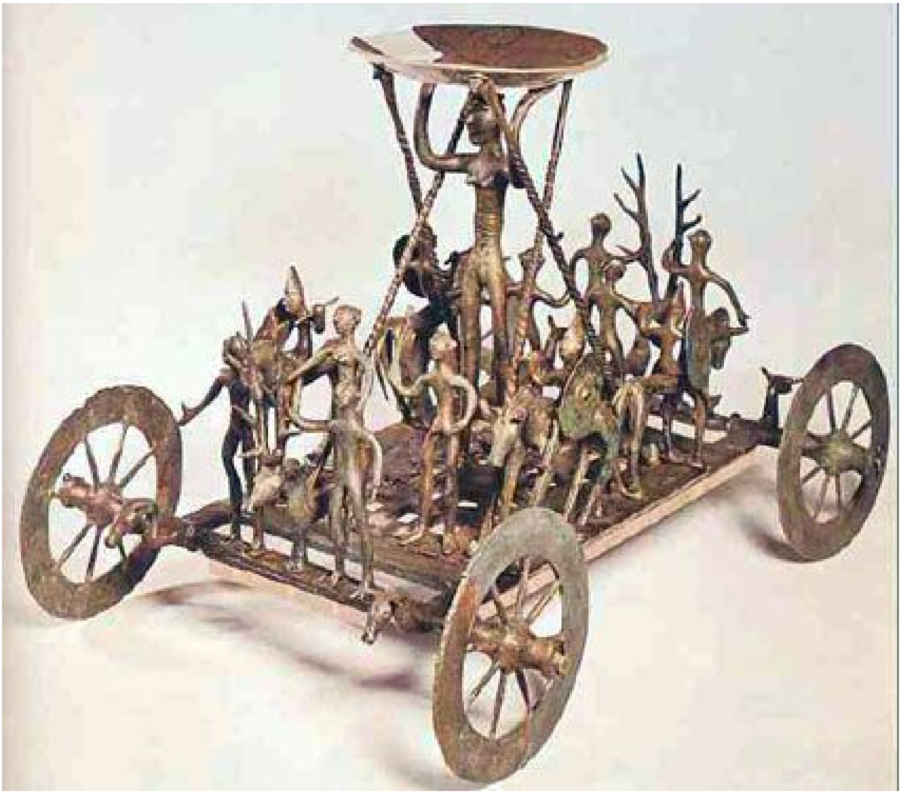
The largest Indo-European invasion of Europe was carried out by four main groups: Celts, Germans, Balts, and Slavs. These four major groups arrived in the European continent in waves from around 4000 BC up to as late as 500 BC. The great Indo-European invasions of Europe took place in four main waves, culminating in a series of subwaves. Each subwave was a smaller tribe from one of the four major migrations.

Leaving their ancestral homeland in the Caucasus, the Celts, Germans, Balts, and Slavs settled different regions of Europe, often giving their names to those areas. Subwaves of note included the Mycenae into Greece, and the Latini into Italy—which sparked off the great classical civilizations for which those lands became famous.

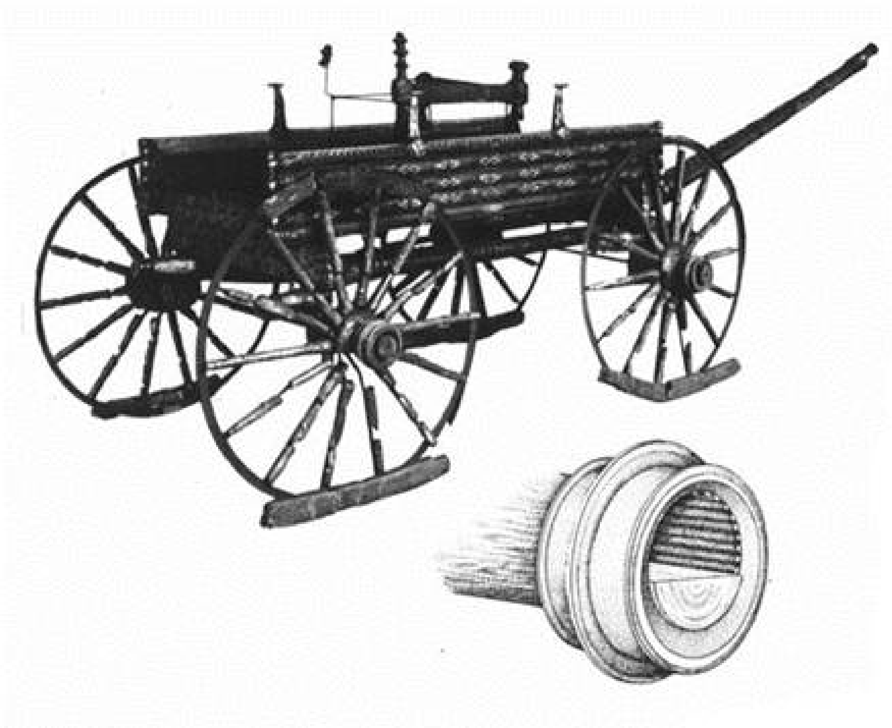
In all of these regions, the invaders found the already present population of Old Europeans to be largely racially assimilable. Hence the Latini mixed with the Etruscans in Italy, producing a Nordic/Mediterranean mix which typified the original Roman type. The same process occurred in Ireland, which is the cause of the “Irish look” varying between Nordic (blue eyed and blonde) and dark hair and dark eyes, or dark hair and light eyes.

PRE-ROMAN GERMANIC ROLLER BEARINGS CIRCA 700–500 BC

Two wagons which illustrate the technical sophistication of pre-Roman Germans.



A finely cast bronze wagon complete with figures from Strettweg, Austria, 700 BC.



The Dejbjerg wagon, dated between 500 and 50 BC, on display at the National Museum, Copenhagen, Denmark. It contains an astonishingly sophisticated roller bearing system of wooden pins in a bronze brace, to facilitate the turning of the wheel on its axle. Such sophisticated technology shows that the pre-Roman Empire Celts, Germans, Balts, and Slavs were actually not "barbarians," but highly developed people capable of stunning technological feats.

The word Celt is derived from Keltoi, the name given to the invaders by the Greek writer Herodotus. To the Romans, the Celts were known as Galli, or Gauls, and in the British Isles as Britanni. Celtic tribes also invaded Greece and Italy.

In 390 BC Celts sacked Rome, and followed this up with a raid on the holy Greek site of Delphi in 279 BC. Although these Indo-European tribes used different names, they were all of common Nordic subracial stock. Their languages all stemmed from a single proto-Indo-European language, which formed at a time when all of their ancestors lived together in their original Indo-European heartland in present-day Russia.

The influx of a relatively large amount of new Nordic subgroups into Europe affected the racial makeup of the various regions in different ways, depending upon the nature of the already existing original European population. In areas where there was a sparse population, or where there were larger numbers of Proto-Nordics, the Indo-Europeans maintained to a greater degree their Nordic characteristics.

Where there was an already existing Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mix, the Nordicism of the new arrivals was soon diluted. The least populated areas and the region with the fewest number of Alpine/Mediterranean peoples were in northern and western Europe. These areas became a new Nordic heartland, a situation which remained unaltered until very recently.

By 600 BC, the Britanni Celts had occupied much of what is today known as western Europe: France, parts of the Low Countries (Belgium, Holland), Britain, and Spain. The names Brittany (in France) and Britain are derived from this group. These Celts migrating westward found the regions sparsely populated with an already quite mixed Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean people. In most parts the Celts mixed easily with these groups, producing a wide range of subgroup racial types. This led to the Celtic "look" varying between the typical short, brown-eyed and haired "Celtic" Welshman, and the red-haired, blue-eyed Scotsman also being called a "Celt." These western European Celts were later overrun by the descendants of other Indo-European tribes who had invaded Italy.

The Germans and Balts in Central and Northern Europe

The Germani Indo-European tribes initially settled in what is today Denmark and southern Scandinavia around the year 4000 BC, but soon thereafter starting moving south, closer to central Europe, later giving their name to Germany. The Balts occupied the northern coast of the continent (giving their name to the Baltic Sea) and the Scandinavian countries (dominating them, with the notable exception of Finland, which has to this day retained a large part of its original Alpine/Mediterranean population makeup).

From 1800 to 400 BC, Celts in southern Germany and Austria developed two advanced metal-working cultures, named by archaeologists after the places where the most plentiful artifacts were found: Urnfield and Hallstatt in Upper Austria. They introduced the use of iron for tools and weapons, and the skills developed in these cultures spread throughout Europe.

In Central Europe the Germans also established themselves in an area running from eastern France through to Poland and south into the Balkans. It is presumed that advance parties of Germans could also have been responsible for the wave of Indo-European peoples called the Latini, who penetrated Italy around this time.

GERMAN CHARIOT 1,400 BC

Ancient German religious ceremonial chariot, with bronze and gold worked disc and horse, circa 1400 BC. The workmanship gives lie to the "barbarian" accusation so often heard from the Romans. Found in the Trundholm Bog on the Danish island of Seeland.

The Celts Invade Southern Europe

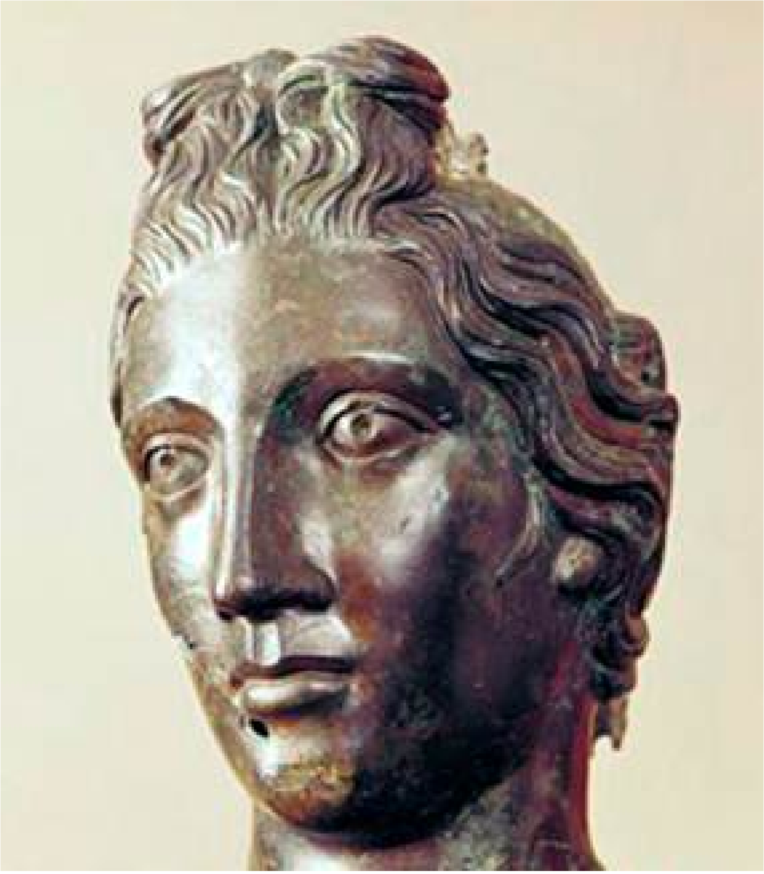
A tribe of Indo-Europeans called the Latini penetrated as far south as Italy, taking control of that peninsula and mixing with the existing original European populations, creating what was later to become the world's greatest empire—Rome. The Latini gave their name to the language they carried with them, Latin. In an act of irony, Roman military power was to later overwhelm their distant Indo-European cousins, the Celts in France and Britain, but was in turn to be overrun by the descendants of the Indo-European Germans.

The Latini were not the only Celts to move down the Italian peninsula. Around 400 BC another tribe of Celts invaded northern Italy, drove out an Etruscan settlement, and founded the city of Milan. In 390 BC, a Celtic army succeeded in invading the city of Rome, and only left once the Romans had paid them a ransom in gold.

In southern France and Spain, the Celts met and mixed with a well-established Mediterranean population, losing much of their original Nordic physiology because of the far greater number of Mediterraneans present there.

Spain would later be occupied by Arabic Islamic armies during the first thousand years AD. Intermingling with the Arabic conquerors produced many people in Spain who are actually Celtic/Mediterranean/Arabic mixes, displaying less of the physical characteristics of their original Indo-European ancestors. There are still many examples of original Celtic and Mediterranean peoples in Spain to this day.

BRONZE OF ROSEMETRA SHOWS EARLY GERMANIC TYPE 250 BC



The racial makeup of early German tribes is illustrated by this bronze head of the Celtic goddess, Rosemetra, circa 250 BC.

Mycenae—the First Indo-European Invaders

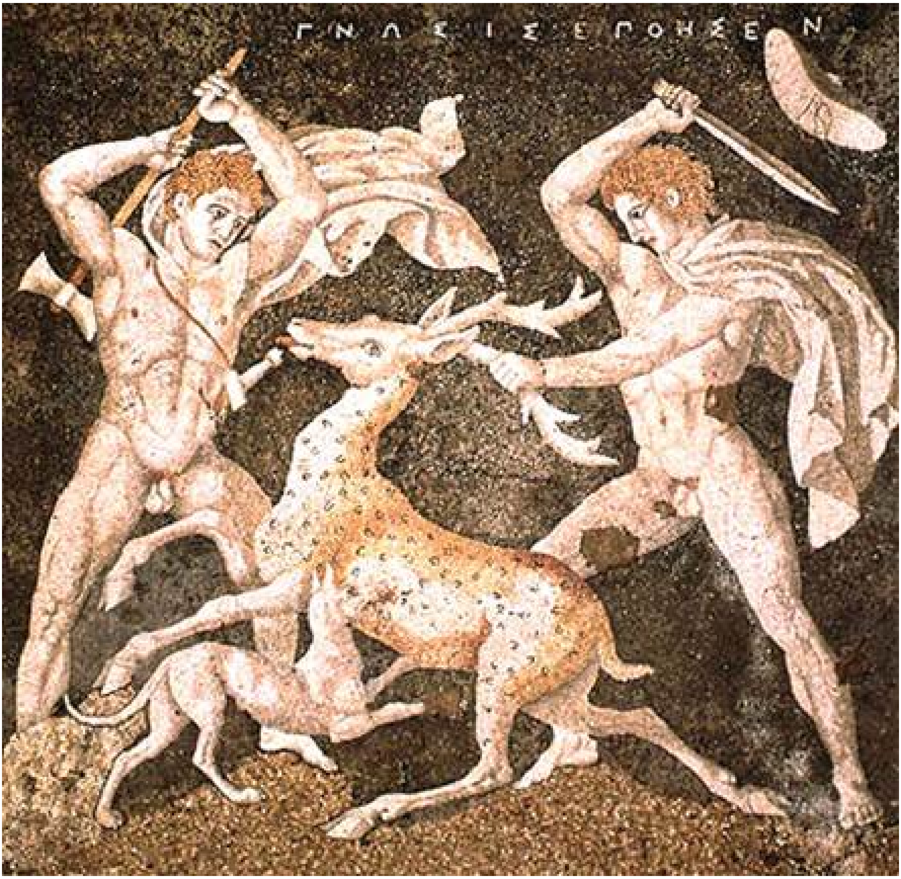
The Greek mainland, which was occupied by original Old European Mediterranean types, fell before an invasion of Indo-Europeans called the Mycenae. They flourished on a part of the Greek mainland known as the Peloponnesus, around 1900 BC. There is evidence that the Mycenae had contact with another invading Indo-European tribe, the Hittites, as indications of trading activity exists between these two groups.

On the Greek mainland, many towns emerged at this time, and Mycenaean colonies were established on the coast of Turkey, and even as far as Syria. Mycenaeans are regarded as the forerunners of the classic Greek civilization. They left a magnificent city at Mycenae, whose most famous inhabitant was King Agamemnon. Mycenae was sacked and destroyed in 1100 BC by an invasion of another Indo-European tribe, the Dorics.

The descendants of the Dorics were known as the Spartans and the Corinthians, two peoples later to feature dramatically in Greek history. The destruction of Mycenae caused many Mycenaeans to flee the Peloponnesus, and a sizable number went to the east coast of today’s Turkey.

This coastal settlement became known as Ionia, and the Ionian civilization retained the rich legacy of Mycenae and also added elements of Lydian culture. The civilization that was later to rise to great heights in Athens was born in Ionia.

BLOND NORDICS IN GREECE—MOSAIC AT PELLA c. FOURTH CENTURY BC



The influence of Indo-European Nordic racial types (even the pubic hair of the figures is blond) on the Balkans is clear from this floor mosaic at the Macedonian capital of Pella, just northwest of Salonika in northern Greece, circa fourth century BC.

The Dorics—Founders of Greece 1100 BC

The period from the time of the Dorian invasion to about 750 BC, is known for the introduction of ironworking to the Grecian peninsula.

The time of the Dorian Age is known to historians as the Homeric Age, because little is known about it except from the writings of the poet Homer, in his epics *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*.

Homeric man was warlike, brave, and desirous of hardship. By all accounts it seems that he had all three attributes in abundance. The economies of the time were subsistence agricultural systems with tribal kings and advisors drawn from noble families.

It was at about this time that the city-state was started. Each city had an elevated fortified site, known as its acropolis—where the city's important inhabitants could take refuge or gather to worship their gods. In time the place directly below the acropolis developed a residential and trading area known as the asty.

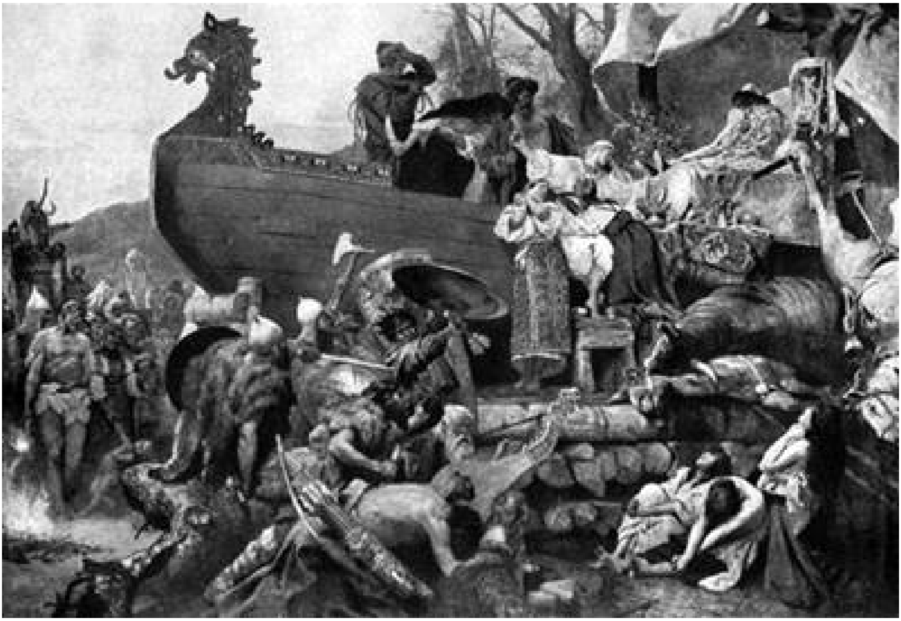
The asty and the acropolis combined under one central jurisdictive rule, and this unit became known as the polis. The very word politics is derived from this Greek word.

The Slavs—from the Cauldron of Conflict

The Slavs were the one migratory group who settled the closest to the ancestral Indo-European homelands in southern Russia. The land they settled—today known as the Ukraine and Byelorussia ("White" Russia)—was ideal for cereal farming and this encouraged the settlers to turn to agriculture rather than war or conquest.

By 1000 BC, they had started to move westward, occupying territory around the Vistula River, in present-day Poland.

Slavic Funeral With Viking-Style Boat



This idealized painting is of a Slav funeral pyre for one of their chieftains around the year 900 AD. In common with many Indo-Europeans, the Slavs traditionally cremated their important dead along with all their possessions. When burial was chosen over cremation, it was also common to bury all *the chief's artifacts with the corpse. This painting was made based on a description provided by a visitor to southern Russia. It is significant that the painting contains a Viking-style boat—an indication that the original Slavs were of identical racial and cultural stock to the Indo-Europeans who settled in Scandinavia and became Vikings.*

Around 700 BC, the whole region was conquered by yet another Indo-European tribe, the Scythians, who appeared from the south (where another branch of that tribe had penetrated into Asia Minor and the Middle East).

By 200 BC, the Scythians had mastered much of the area, easily conquering the agricultural Slavic farmers. However, by 100 BC another Indo-European invader, a tribe called the Sarmatians, had replaced the Scythians as masters of the Slavic lands, and the last of the Scythian peoples were absorbed into the new Indo-European conquerors, the two groups being almost racially identical. By 600 AD, another tribe of Indo-Europeans, the Goths, swept down from northern Europe and conquered the Sarmatians, taking possession of the lands in eastern Europe.

This repeated conquering and reconquering by peoples who were all essentially of the same stock—Indo-European—created the mix known as the Slavs. Originally then, the Slavs were a pure Indo-European people.

Later, a small number of the Slavic population mixed with Mongoloid conquerors, creating a number of mixed-race peoples, who quite incorrectly have come to be regarded as "Slavic." They are nothing of the sort, and true Slavs are as European as any other subgroup, despite much early twentieth century propaganda, from German nationalists in particular, to the contrary.

Probably because of their proximity to the ancient homeland in southern Russia, the tribes who eventually formed the Slavs retained the cultural traits of their ancestors the longest. The Indo-European sun worship religion persisted right into the twelfth century among the Slavs, and principal among their gods was a hammer-wielding deity who rode in a chariot—obviously sharing a common mythological ancestry with the Scandinavian god, Thor.

As the Roman Empire began to unravel at the seams, the Slavs started moving westward, first penetrating into the Balkan Peninsula, and then into central Europe.

By 650 AD the Slavs had seized the coastline along the Adriatic

Sea opposite Italy (today's Albania). They later penetrated as far south as Turkey, where they were swallowed up into the larger mixed -race mass occupying that country. The Slavs in eastern Europe not only bore the brunt of the Mongoloid Hunnish invasion of Europe, but also were occupied for nearly one thousand years by the Muslim Turks.

Celtic Innovations—Chain Mail and Soap

The Roman conquest of southeastern Europe, France, and Britain effectively destroyed the Celtic cultural heritage. The Celts were not as literate as the Romans and thus had less of the organizational skills or abilities of their conquerors. However, the Celts were the inventors of chain link armor, iron horse shoes, and seamless iron tires for their chariots. Another important Celtic innovation was soap.

In their art forms, the intricacy of which has become legendary, the links the Celts had with other Indo-European tribes is revealed. Celtic patterns are characterized by a preference for stylized plant motifs, usually of Greek origin, and fantastic animals, derived from the Scythians and other Russian steppe Indo-Europeans.

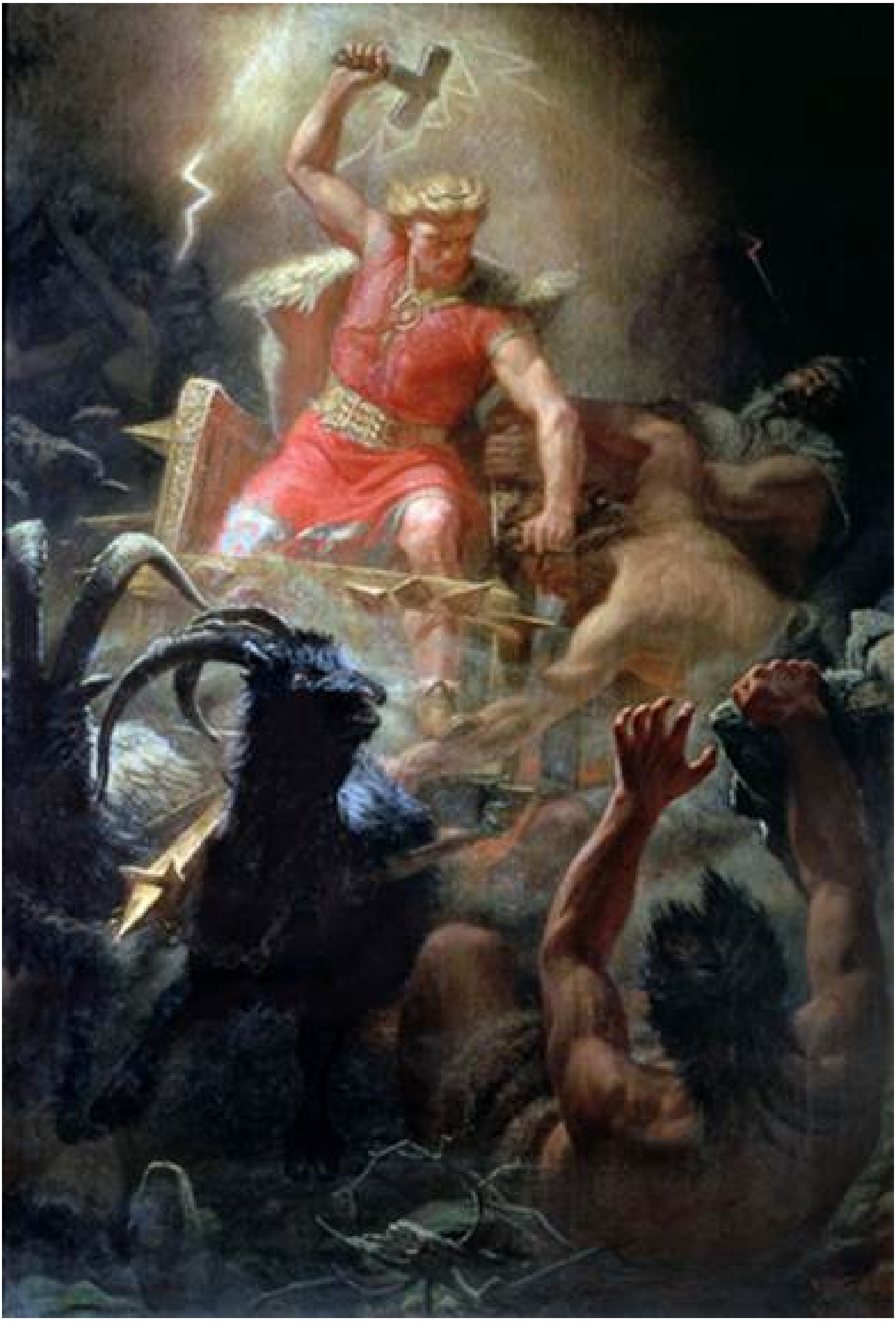
Other favorite designs were elliptical curves and opposing curves, spirals, and chevrons, also derived from Russian steppe art. Almost all of the original Indo-Europeans worshipped the sun, and the sun wheel image, a circle with a cross through it, dominated many designs. The modern Celtic cross, regarded today as a Christian symbol, was directly copied from this original Indo-European root and was originally a pagan symbol. Today Celtic as a language has survived at only the extreme ends of the area occupied by the Celts: Wales, Scotland, and a few areas in Ireland.

The Original European Religion

The influence of the Indo-European gods was such that their names and some of the customs associated with their worship live on to this day.

Many of the original Indo-European gods' names were either taken over by Christianity (Hel, the name of the goddess of the underworld was, for example, taken over directly by Christianity) or were kept in various forms, so that five of the seven days of the modern week are named after them, as detailed below. That this is so should not be surprising: these gods were the main religion of the white people of Europe for at least six thousand years, compared to the less than one thousand years that Christianity has existed in northern Europe to date.

THURSDAY—FROM THE NORSE GOD THOR



Thor, son of Odin, striking down enemies with his mighty hammer, Mjollnir. Thursday is named after him. Four other days of the week are *also named after Nordic gods.*

The chief characteristics of this religion and its array of gods were:

- The world itself was the product of the great world-tree, Yggdrasil, which reached through all time and space. Yggdrasil was, however, always under attack from an evil serpent, Nidhogg. The fountain of Mimir, source of hidden wisdom, lay under one of the roots of the tree.

- Worship of any of these gods was usually conducted in the open—often near holy trees or within arrangements of stones, with the Indo-Europeans using and building megalith sites in Europe for this purpose.

- Odin (also known as Odhinn—called Woden by the Anglo-Saxons, and Wodan or Woutan by the Germans) was the king of the gods. His two black ravens, Huginn ("Thought") and Muninn ("Memory"), flew all over the world to report on the doings of men and gods alike.

- Odin's court was in the great citadel of Valhalla, where all brave warriors went after dying in battle. When Odin took to travel he used his eight-footed steed, Sleipner. He armed himself with his spear, Gungnir, and his most precious jewel, the ring called Draupner.

- Odin was also the god of wisdom, poetry, and magic, and he sacrificed an eye for the privilege of drinking from Mimir, the fountain of wisdom. Odin had three wives.

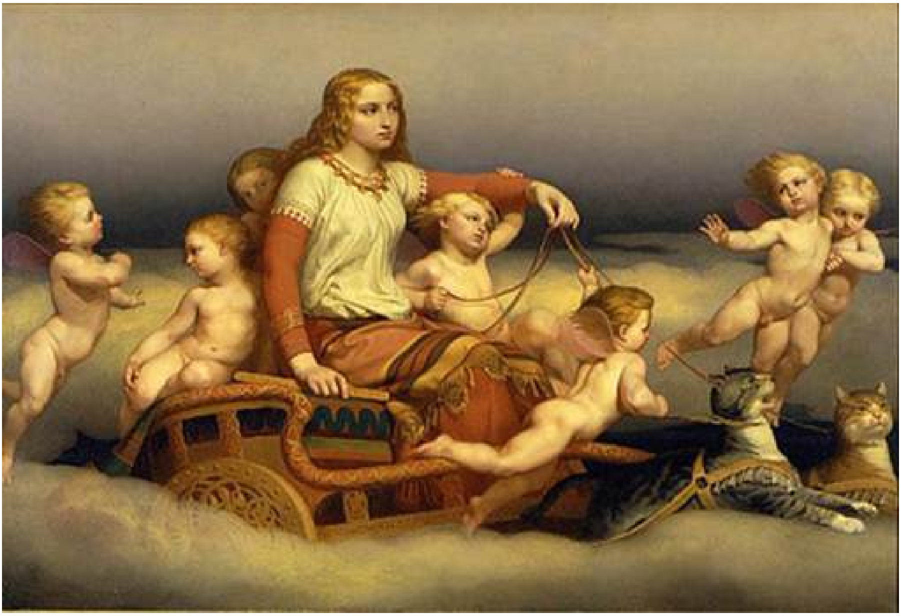
- Thor was the eldest son of Odin and the strongest of the gods. He had a magic hammer, which he threw with the aid of iron gloves and which always returned to him.

- Odin's other son was Balder (or Baldur), the god of the sun and of light and joy, who was killed after the evil god Loki tricked his blind twin brother, Hoder, the god of darkness, into killing him.

- Frei or Freyr was the son of the fertility god Njord. Freyr was the god of fruitfulness, prosperity, and peace, and also the bestower of sunlight and rain. He wakened the earth from the long sleep of winter, and prayers for a bountiful harvest were addressed to him. Frey was the patron god of Sweden; his chief shrine was at Uppsala. His sister was Freyja.

- Freyja or Freya was the goddess of love, fertility, and beauty, sometimes identified as the goddess of battle and death. Blonde, blue-eyed, and beautiful, Freyja traveled on a golden-bristled boar or in a chariot drawn by cats. In Germany, Freyja was sometimes identified with Frigg, the wife of Odin.

FREYJA—GODDESS OF LOVE AND BEAUTY



Freyja, the Indo-European goddess of love and beauty, riding her chariot drawn by cats. A nineteenth century painting.

- Frigg or Frigga, was the goddess of the sky and wife of Odin, the chief of the gods. She was worshipped as the protector of married love and housewives. A bunch of keys was her symbol.

- Tiu was the god of war and battles. He was represented as having only one hand. Some versions say it was because he could only give victory to one side, and others that it was bitten off by the wolf Fenris.

- Hel was the goddess of the dead. She dwelt beneath one of the three roots of the sacred ash tree, Yggdrasil, and was the daughter of Loki. Odin condemned Hel into the underworld and placed her in charge there, never to emerge again.

- Loki was a giant who represented evil and was possessed of great knowledge and cunning. Loki and Hel would lead the forces of evil against the gods, in the final battle between good and evil, the "Ragnarok," or end of the days.

- Besides these major deities, there were a number of lesser gods: Hermod, Bragi, Forseti, Idun, Nanna, and Sif.

- The Valkyries were a band of warrior-maidens who were sometimes portrayed as Odin's daughters. They included Brunhilde who was immortalized in a Richard Wagner opera. The Valkyries helped Odin choose which warriors deserved to go to Valhalla after dying in battle.

At Valhalla, the warriors would spend their time fighting or feasting waiting for "Ragnarok."

Five Days of the Week Named after the Northern Gods

Tuesday is named after Tiu, the god of war; this day is still called Tisdag in Sweden and Tirsdag in Denmark. Wednesday is named after Wodan, or Wotan/Odin (Wodansday). In Sweden and Denmark, the day is called Onsdag.

Thursday is named after Thor (Thorsday), while his mother, Frigg, is remembered in the day called Friday (Frigg's day). Baldur, god of the sun and light, is remembered on Sunday. While the name of the day Saturday is not derived from northern gods, it is drawn from the pagan Indo-European Roman celebration of Saturnalia. Monday, or day of the moon, is the only day not directly named after a pre-Christian god.

Indo-Europeans in the Middle East

In their wanderings south and east, the Indo-European tribes took with them various species of northern European grain together with plowing instruments and cattle species—remains of which have been found all the way from northern Europe into present-day Turkey and further into the Middle East.

Indo-European tribes started arriving in the Middle East shortly after the first Old European society had been established in that region, in the fertile river valley between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in present-day Iraq.

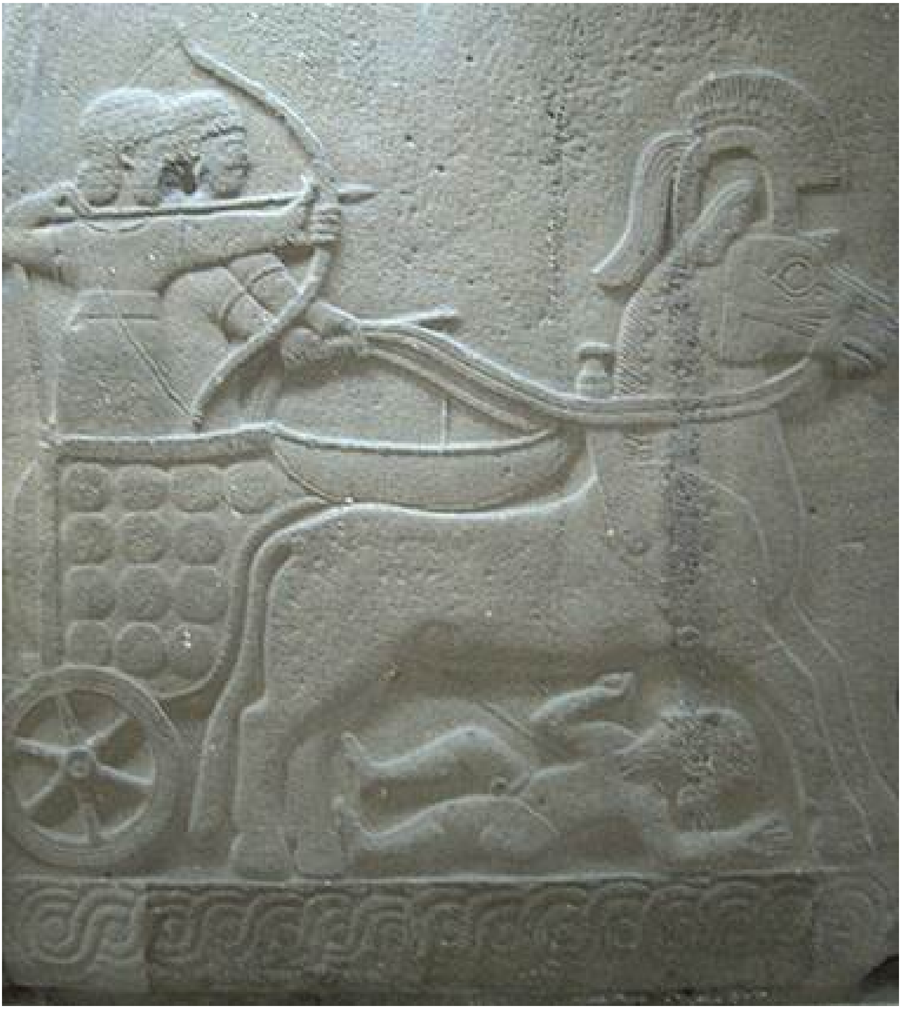
The great Indo-European invasions of the Middle East took place in fits and starts. Some of the more famous were: the Indo-Aryans to present-day India, the Aryans to Afghanistan, the Hittites to the Middle East, the Sumerians and Gutians to Mesopotamia, and the Galatians to present-day Turkey. Names of countries in this region—Iran, Iraq, and Afghanistan—are derived from the word "Aryan."

Further migrations spread even further into China.

The great difference between the western and eastern migrations of the Indo-Europeans was that in the West they found genetically similar populations with whom they mixed, while in the east they mixed with, and were eventually submerged by, genetically dissimilar peoples.

ANCIENT IMAGES OF INDO-EUROPEANS in the Middle East

Hittite spearmen, in plumed helmets and carrying shields, part of an impressive frieze in the palace at the Hittite city of Carchemish.



A Hittite chariot rides over a conquered Semite. In common with all Nordic Indo-Europeans, the Hittites brought the horse with them into the Middle East. The racial conflict which followed the Indo-European invasion of the region is accurately captured in this detail from the frieze at the great city of Carchemish.

An original statue of Idrimi, the first king of the Mitanni, an Indo-European kingdom in northwestern Mesopotamia, established in 1475 BC. It lasted until about 1275 BC, being severely mauled at the hands of a rival Indo-

European tribe, the Kassites.

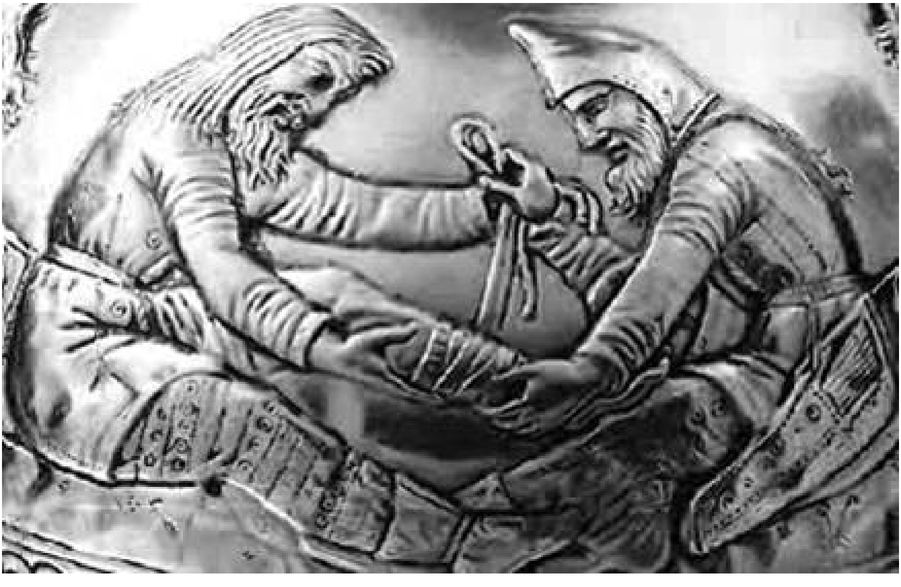
Some of the more notable Indo-European tribes who invaded the Middle East:

- The Amorites were an Indo-European tribe who invaded Asia Minor (Turkey) from the Aegean Sea around 1500 BC, and were noted among the local people for worshipping a hammer-wielding "Thunder God"—obviously related to the northern European Thor. Egyptian paintings of the time depict the Amorites (the "Amurru") as fair, light-eyed men with Nordic features who were still launching attacks on the Egyptian state as late as 1300 BC. A number of Amorites settled in Palestine, becoming one of the first Indo-European tribes to mix with the Semitic speaking Jewish tribes in that region and later became associated with Semitism.

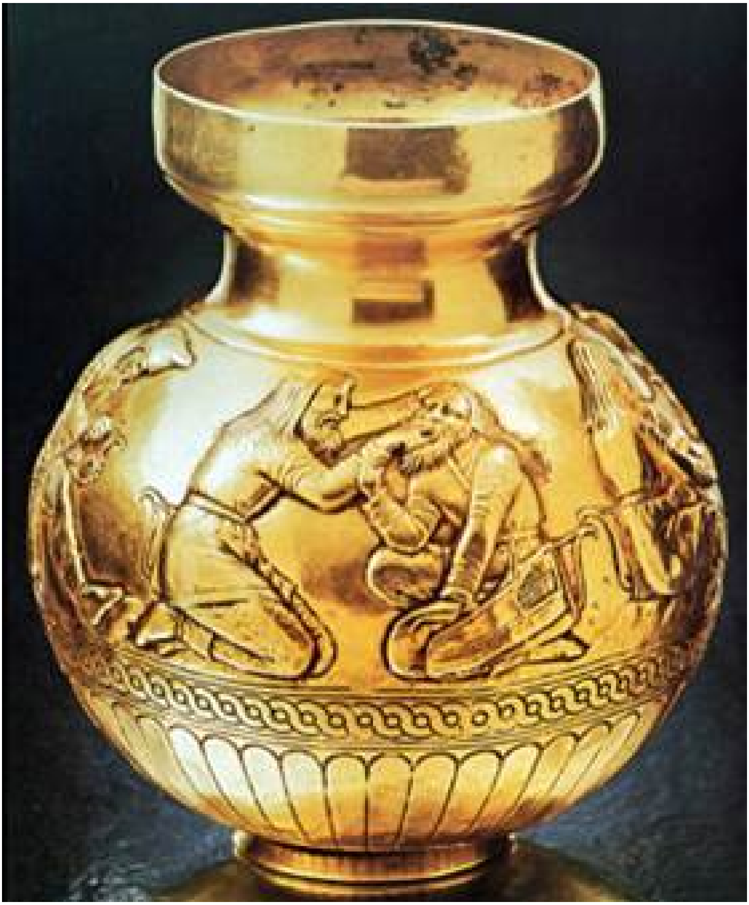
- The Scythians overran what is today Palestine, Israel, and Lebanon in the seventh century BC, and some of their light-eyed and light-haired descendants can still be found among the Druse peoples of Lebanon.

The Scythians moved through Asia as far as Afghanistan, with forward groups penetrating to the Indus River in India. Many early writers such as Polemon of Ilium, Clement of Alexandria, and others, recorded that the Scythians were similar to the Celts in appearance, always being described as "fair or ruddy" in hue.

NORDIC INVADERS OF THE STEPPES



Scythians, as depicted by themselves on a steel bowl found in a grave site near the Black Sea. At different stages the Scythian area of influence stretched from eastern Europe to the Middle East. Eventually they were overwhelmed by the nonwhite/mixed-race peoples, although it is still possible to see light hair and light eyes—flashbacks to the invaders of these lands many thousands of years ago.



A Scythian mummy on display at the Hermitage Museum, St. Petersburg, Russia.

- The Philistines were an Indo-European tribe who also invaded the Middle East, coming from Crete and bearing many cultural similarities to the Mycenaean culture. The Philistines established an unpopular iron rule over the Jewish tribes they found in the region.

- The Cimmerians were a smaller Indo-European tribe who reached the Middle East around the eighth century BC, and established a short-lived kingdom in the region known today as northern Iran.

- The Indo-European Phyrgians reached present-day Armenia around the eighth century BC, and established another short-lived kingdom.

- Around 900 BC, yet another Indo-European tribe, known as the Persians, reached Azerbaijan, from where they entered present-day Iran, followed closely by the Indo-European Medes tribe.

The Persians, who were more numerous, overpowered the Medes and together these two tribes established what became known as the Persian Empire, ruling over a large number of Asiatic and Arabic racial types. All of these tribes eventually disappeared through interbreeding with the non-Indo-European peoples in the regions they occupied. It is still possible to see genetic throwbacks among the peoples of the Middle East—with fair eyes and fair hair—in that region.

A mummy from Iran, presumed to be a Scythian.

The Indo-European language survived the extinction of many of the tribes from that group, primarily because of the power and dominance of their reigns in the areas of their settlement. Common Indo-European root words are still easily found in a variety of languages spoken in those regions in which they left their mark. As a result, modern academics, cowed by the racial implications of the concept "Indo-European," generally only accept this word as having a linguistic meaning.

Aryana—the Aryan Origin of Afghanistan

Around 2000 BC, a sun-worshipping Indo-European tribe calling themselves Aryans invaded central Asia and occupied territory as far as the north of India. These invaders, who used the Sanskrit written language, were what became known as the original Aryans. Far-off distant racial cousins of the Aryans went west, penetrating as far as Ireland, giving the name “Eire” to that land—also a derivative of the word Aryan. After 2000 BC, waves of Aryans flooded into present-day Afghanistan, setting up a nation which became known as Aryana, or “Land of the Aryans.”

NORDIC REMNANTS IN MODERN AFGHANISTAN

Aryan survivors in modern Iran. Left: Two children from a northwestern village of Iran; Center: Afghan children in a refugee center, in Toza-Lokai refugee camp, October 2001. Note the blond child, compared to the other children, some of whom show distinctly Asiatic racial traits; Right: A Qashqai girl from the Fars region in southern Iran near the Persepolis ruins.

By the middle of the sixth century BC the Persian Empire had incorporated Aryana into its boundaries, and by 330 BC, Alexander the Great had occupied the region. By this time most of the original Aryans in Aryana had been absorbed into the local native population, although it is still possible to this day to see light-eyed and light-haired individuals among the present-day Afghanistan population.

During the first century AD, the Kushans, an Asiatic race, occupied Aryana, destroying the last vestiges of the original Indo-Aryan culture and race. Thereafter Aryana fell under the rule of a large number of different nonwhite races, until the seventh century AD when Arab Muslim armies occupied the region.

In 1220 the region was once again overrun by Mongols under Genghis Khan, who devastated the land. By this time the people of Aryana had passed into history—and only that country’s name is remembered today.

The Aryans and India

Another branch of the Aryans penetrated as far east as India, where they also settled and built a civilization. Although the Aryans established a powerful white civilization in northern India, it would be incorrect to think that the native Indians had not created anything of their own.

Mixed with original white Mediterraneans, the Indus civilization created by the Harappans was already in existence by the time the Aryans invaded.

The invading Aryans were more advanced and referred to the conquered Indians as "Dasyu"—the "dark ones" or slaves. Indo-Aryan poetry (the *Rigveda*) is full of stories of war against the Dasyu, and reflects the stark racial divisions between the conquering Aryans and the conquered Indians.

Racial Conflict in the **Rigveda**

The *Rigveda,* the original holy book of the Aryan conquerors of India, contains a great many references to the race of the conquerors and the conquered. According to this book, the leader of the Aryan invasion was one Indra, and his role in "slaying the Dasyus" (the Negroids in India) is a prominent theme: "*Thou, Indra, art the destroyer of all the cities, the slayer of the Dasyus, the prosperer of man, the lord of the sky"* (RgV. VIII 87.6). It goes on to use the word "black" in a number of instances to describe the Dasyu: *"Indra, the slayer of Vrittra, the destroyer of cities, has scattered the Dasyu (hosts) sprang from a black womb" (*RgV. II 20.6).

The "Aryan Color" in the **Rigveda**

The *Rigveda* praises the god who *"destroyed the Dasyans and protected the Aryan color"* (Rg.V. III 34.9). It then goes on to thank the god who *"bestowed on his white friends the fields, bestowed the sun, bestowed the waters"* (Rg.V. I 100.18).

Black skin is repeatedly referred to with abhorrence. Starting with a description of the "black skin" ("Krishnam Vacham") in RgV. IX 41.1, Sam. V I. 491 and II. 242, and in RgV. IX 73, it is said that *"stormy gods who rush on like furious bulls and scatter the black skin,"* and it claims that *"the black skin, the hated of Indra"* will be swept out of heaven (RgV. IX 73.5).

NEGROID DEMONS IN HINDUISM

From a Hindu temple in India: In Hindu mythology, the white goddess Durga slays the Negroid demon Mahishasura. In Hindu mythology most of the gods have white skins and European-like features, while the demons are distinctly Negroid. The Hindu holy book, the Rigveda, *is very graphic in its description of racial conflict.*

Rg.V. I 130.8 tells how the "black skin" was conquered: *"Indra protected in battle the Aryan worshipper, he subdued the lawless for Manu, he conquered the black skin."* The *Rigveda* thanks God for *"scattering the slave bands of black descent,"* and for stamping out "*the vile Dasyan color*" (Rg.V. II.20.7, II 12.4). It also contains this choice remark which sums up the Aryans' opinion of their nonwhite subjects: *"Black skin is impious"* (Sans., Rg.V. II. 12.4).

Other extracts from the *Rigveda* further illustrate the sharp racial divisions in this time:

- Indra - 1.130.8 - *"Indra in battle helps his Aryan worshipper, he who hath hundred helps at hand in every fray, in frays that win the light of heaven. Plaguing the lawless he gave up to Manu's seed the dusky skin; Blazing, 'twere, he burns each covetous man away, he burns the tyrannous away."*

- Indra - 4.16.13 - *"Thou to the son of Vidathin, Rjisvan, gavest up mighty Mrgaya and Pipru. Thou smotest down the swarthy fifty thousand,*

and rentest forts as age consumes a garment.”

- Indra - 5.29.10 - *“One car-wheel of the Sun thou rolledst forward, and one thou settest free to move for Kutsa. Thou slewest noseless Dasyus with thy weapon, and in their home o’erthrewest hostile speakers”* (“Noseless Dasyus” would suggest a reference to flat-nosed Negroid types).

- Soma Pavamana - 9.41.1 - *“Active and bright have they come forth, impetuous in speed like bulls, driving the black skin far away.”*

- Soma Pavamana - 9.73.5 - *“O’er Sire and Mother they have roared in unison bright with the verse of praise, burning up riteless men, blowing away with super-natural might from earth and from the heavens the swarthy skin which Indra hates.”*

Rigveda *Describes Aryan Gods as Blonds*

- Indra - 10.23.4 - *“With him too is this rain of his that comes like herds: Indra throws drops of moisture on his yellow beard. When the sweet juice is shed he seeks the pleasant place, and stirs the worshipper as wind disturbs the wood.”*

Indra - 10.96.8 - *“At the swift draught the Soma-drinker waxed in might, the Iron One with yellow beard and yellow hair. He, Lord of Tawny Coursers, Lord of fleet-foot Mares, will bear his Bay Steeds safely over all distress.”*

- Indra - 1.9.3 - *“O Lord of all men, fair of cheek, rejoice thee in the gladdening lauds, present at these drink-offerings.”*

In what could easily be another indicator of the common cultural origins between the *Rigveda* and the Indo-European gods, Indra’s greatest weapon is said, in the Hindu holy book, to be a lightning bolt—identical to the weapon of Thor, the northern European god:

- Indra - 1.100.18 - *“He, much invoked, hath slain Dasyus and Simyus, after his wont, and laid them low with arrows. The mighty Thunderer with his fair-complexioned friends won the land.”*

- Indra - 1.101.1 - *“Sing, with oblation, praise to him who maketh glad, who with Rjisvan drove the dusky brood away. Fain for help, him the strong whose right hand wields the bolt, him girt by Maruts we invoke to be our Friend.”*

- Indra - 1.103.3 and 4 - *“Armed with his bolt and trusting in his* *prowess he wandered shattering the forts of Dasas. Cast thy dart, knowing, Thunderer, at the Dasyu; increase the Arya's might and glory, Indra. For him who thus hath taught these human races, Maghavan, bearing a fame-worthy title, Thunderer, drawing nigh to slay the Dasyus, hath given himself the name of Son for glory."*

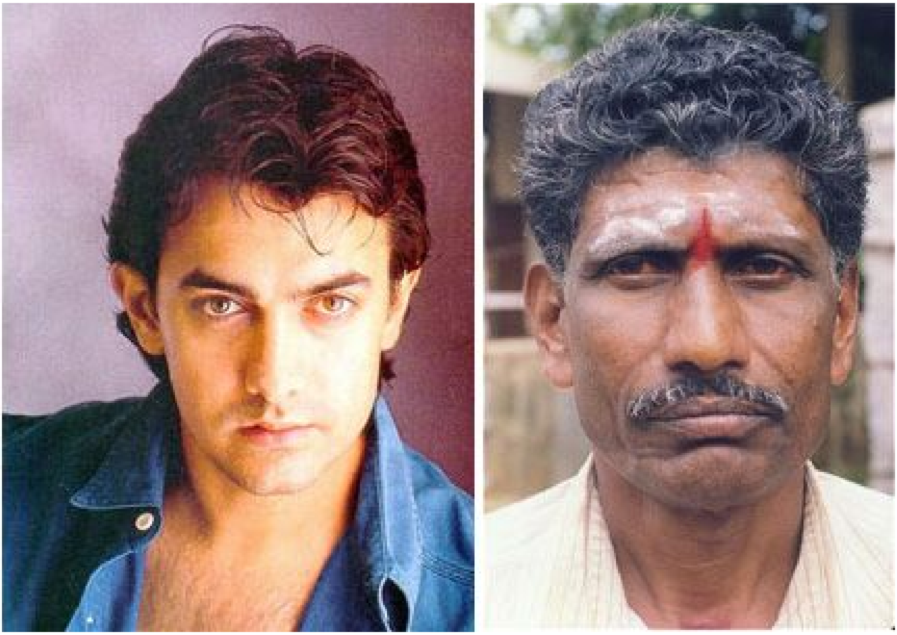
Aryan Origin of Caste System

At the time of the writing of the *Rigveda,* a clear distinction was drawn between the two types of people in the Indus River Valley: the "fair" conquering immigrants and the "dark" native people. Within three hundred years, however, physical mixing had proceeded to the point where these two racial classes had been subdivided further. Membership in each class was determined solely by the color of an individual's skin. This came to be known as the caste system. The word "caste" was the term given by Portuguese travelers many centuries later, from the Latin word castus, meaning pure. The original Sanskrit for the caste system was "varna," which means color. As assimilation and integration between the Aryans and the Dasyu increased, the caste system became more and more complex, till four major divisions were created, with membership in each group dependent upon the coloring of the individual. This four tier system still exists in India today, with the highest caste, the Brahmans (or "priests"), being the lightest in color, and the Sudas or "untouchables" being the darkest.

Within a few hundred years the original Aryans had become so assimilated that their contribution to Indian civilization can be considered to have ended. Their legacy lives on in the language, religion, and poetry of India—and the caste system. Blue or gray eyes can, however, still be found in the Indian upper classes, which tend to be concentrated in the northern parts of that country, where the original Aryan settlement took place. Many of these lighter colored Indians become successful actors and actresses in India's film industry which is nicknamed "Bollywood."

BOLLYWOOD—THE LAST OF THE ARYANS

The last of India's Aryans can be found in that country's film industry, Bollywood. Above: The features of actress Pooja Bhatt contrast with those of a more typical Indian female, alongside.

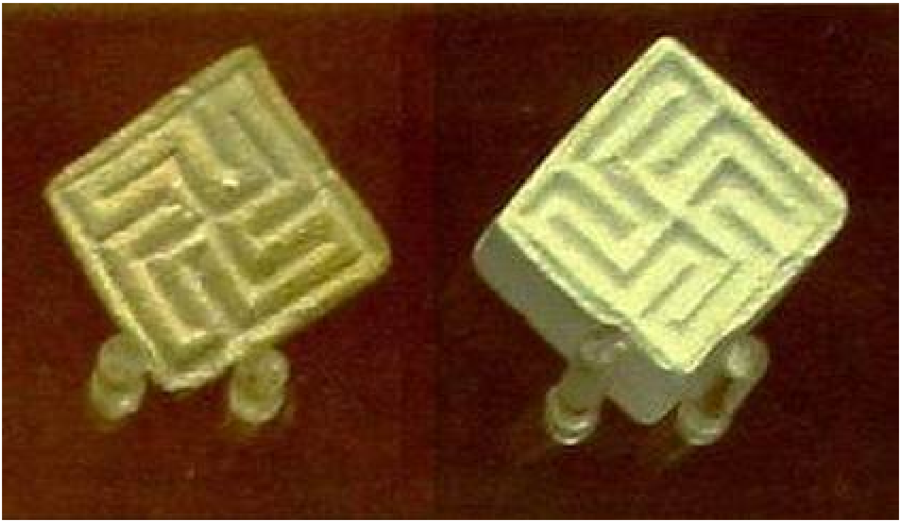


The male Indian actor Aamir Khanall, whose Aryan ancestry contrasts strongly with the more typical Indian male, alongside. The wide variety of types is typical of a racially-mixed society.

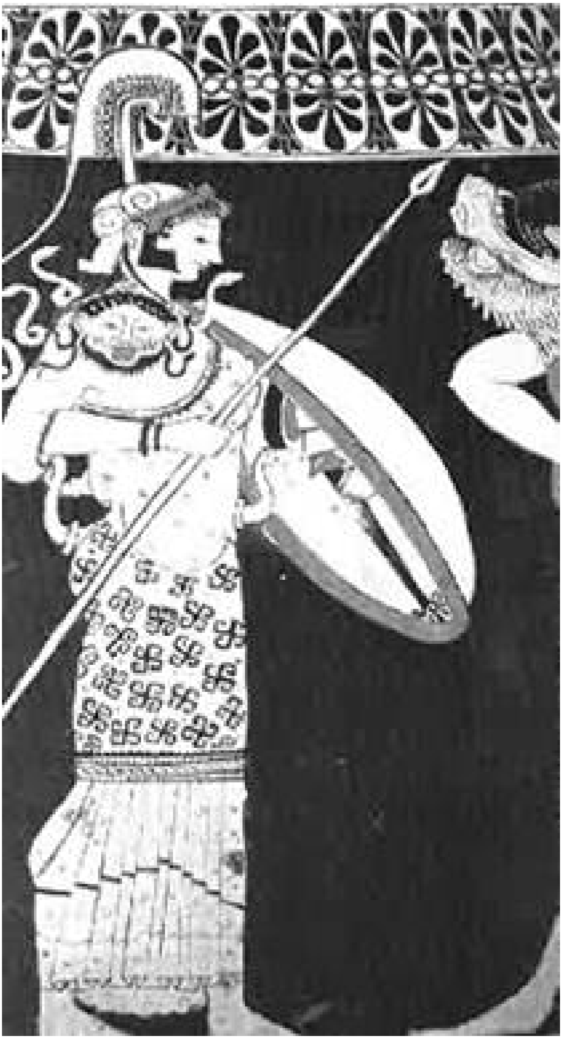
In accordance with the caste system, the more European looking the actors, the more successful they tend to be. Genetic studies conducted in India have confirmed the Indo-European invasion and the considerable genetic gap between the castes.

THE HISTORY AND USES OF THE SWASTIKA

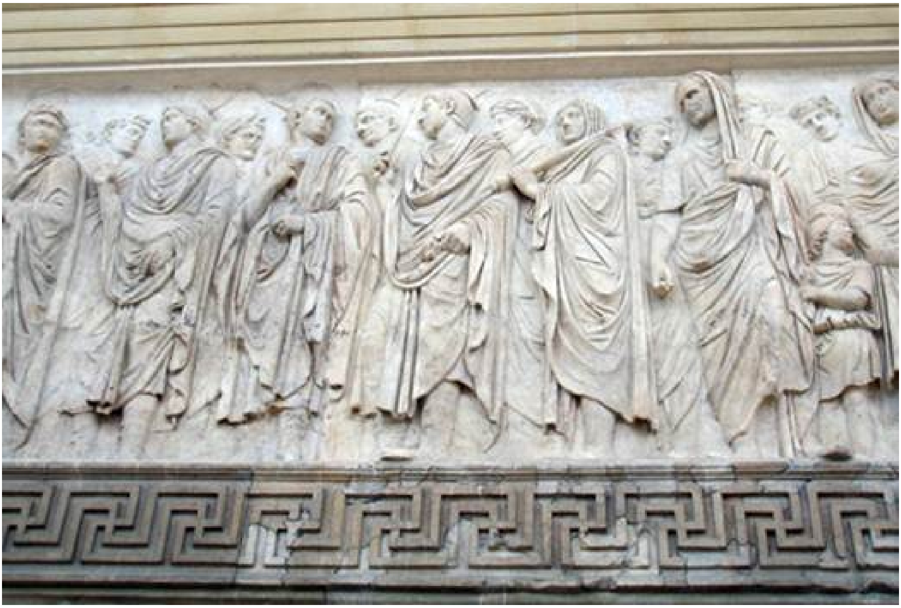
The swastika was a letter of the ancient Indo-European Sanskrit language, and originally was a symbol of the sun, meaning “well being.” This emblem was carried by Celts, Germans, and Slavs throughout their wanderings, and became the Celtic cross. It was incorporated into the Indo-Aryan religion, and then transported to the Hindu religion. As an enduring symbol of the Indo-European peoples wherever they went, the swastika is found in all the lands where these people settled. Some examples:



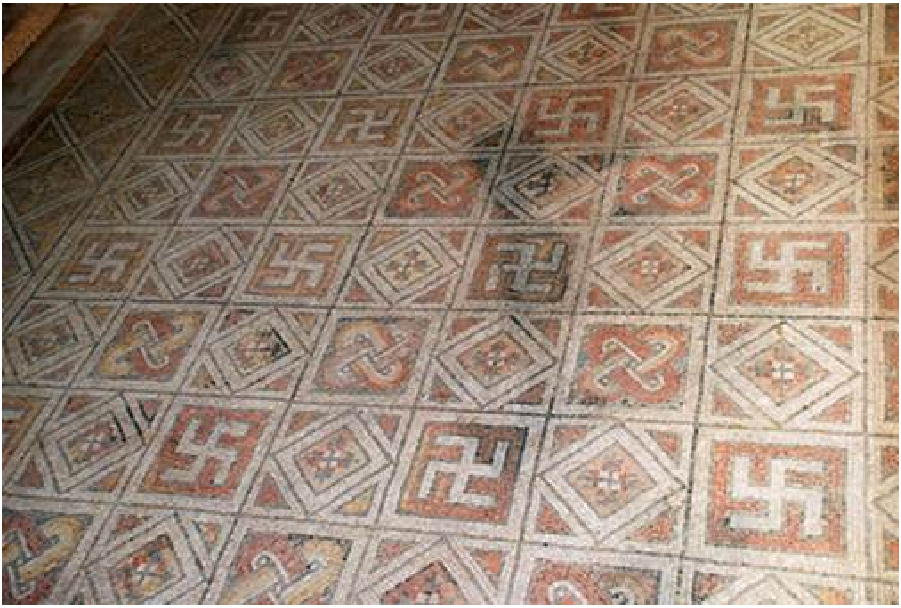
1. The swastika in India: The swastika can be seen on these seals from the Indus Valley civilization, on display in the British Museum in London. gThe emblem is one of the last remains of the tribe of Indo-Europeans—who called themselves Aryans—who invaded India. In that land, they were eventually absorbed into the overwhelming nonwhite mass, creating the caste system still present in that country to this day.



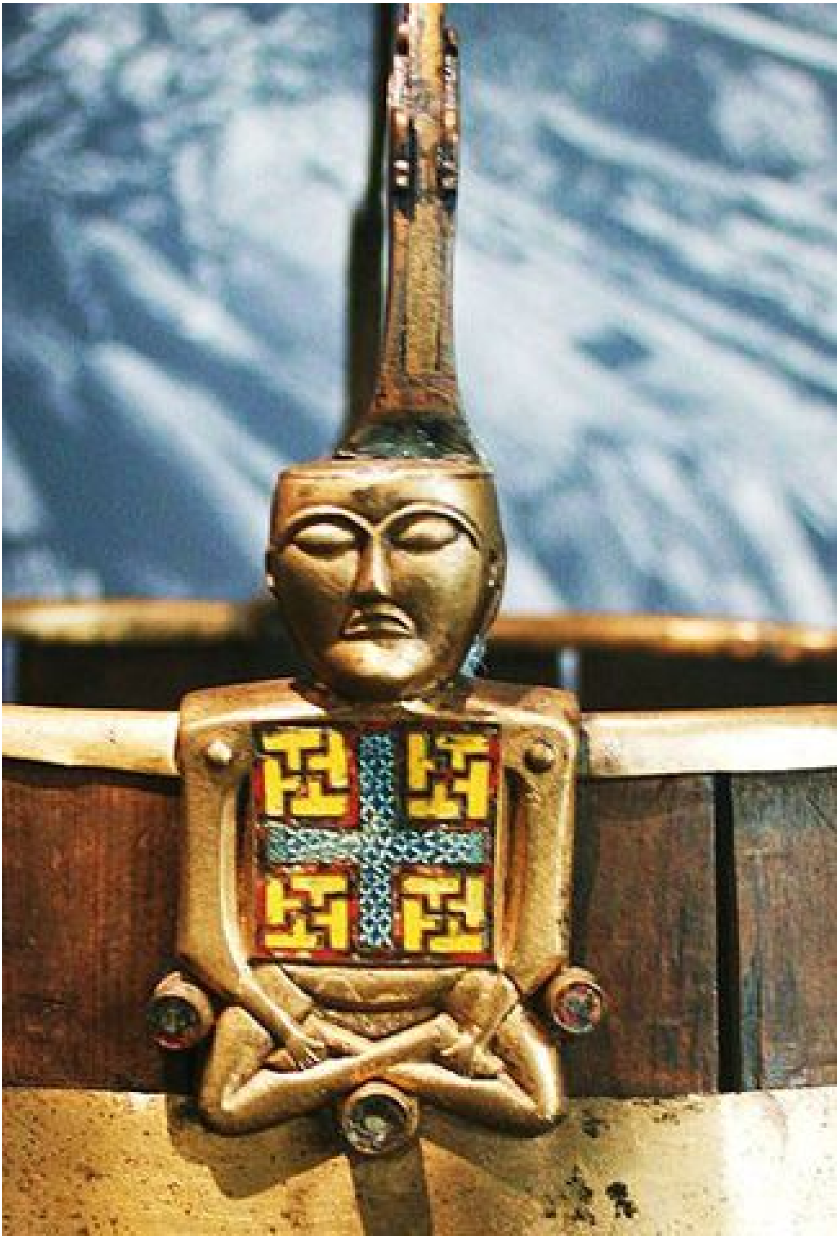
2. The swastika in classical Greece: Decorations on the clothing of Athene, the goddess of wisdom, the arts, and war—and also patron of the city of Athens. This detail is from a Greek vase dating from approximately 500 BC.



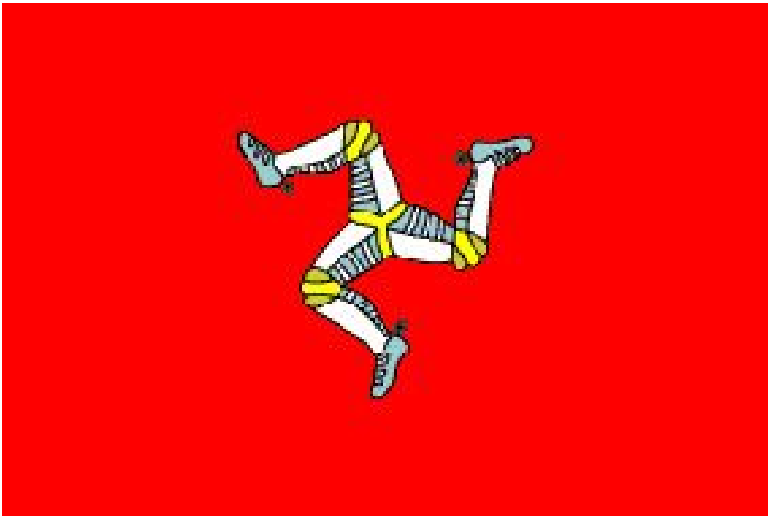
3. The swastika in classical Rome: The Indo-European origins of the Romans—in particular the Latini tribe—are apparent through their liberal use of the swastika as an emblem. Here the swastika can be seen underneath the figures on the Ara Pacis Augustae: the altar built to commemorate the peace established by Augustus, consecrated July 4, 13 BC.



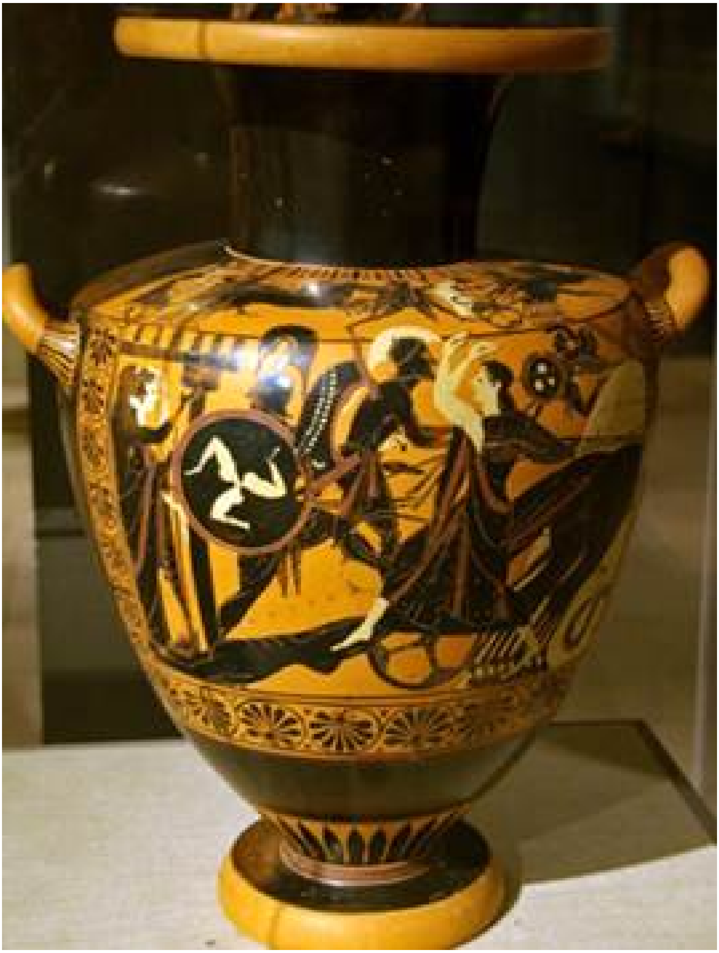
4, A Geometric roman mosaic in roman villae of La Olmeda, Pedrosa de la Vega (Palencia, Castile and León).



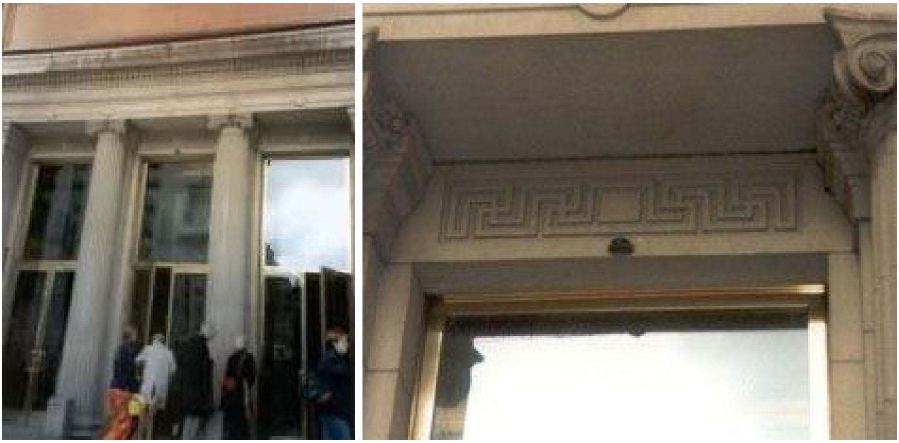
5. The swastika in the Viking era: A swastika-bearing detail from a bucket handle on the well preserved Viking ship, called the Osberg Ship, circa 800 AD. The handle depicts a figure carrying a shield with four swastika sun emblems in its corners.



5. The Isle of Man triskelion, circa tenth century AD. The flag of the Isle of Man, called a triskelion, a direct derivative of the swastika. According to that island's history, this symbol was of Norsk [Norwegian] origin, and was displayed on the armorial bearings of the kings of Norway.



The triskelion also appears on this sixth century BC Greek vase—evidence of cultural links through time.



6. The swastika in Western architecture: The swastika was a popular motif *in Western architecture, and was widely used in major public buildings in Europe and North America, from the Opera Building in Paris through to the front door of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City. Alongside is the entrance to the "Met" in New York City.*

CHAPTER 6: To the Ends of the Earth—Lost White Migrations

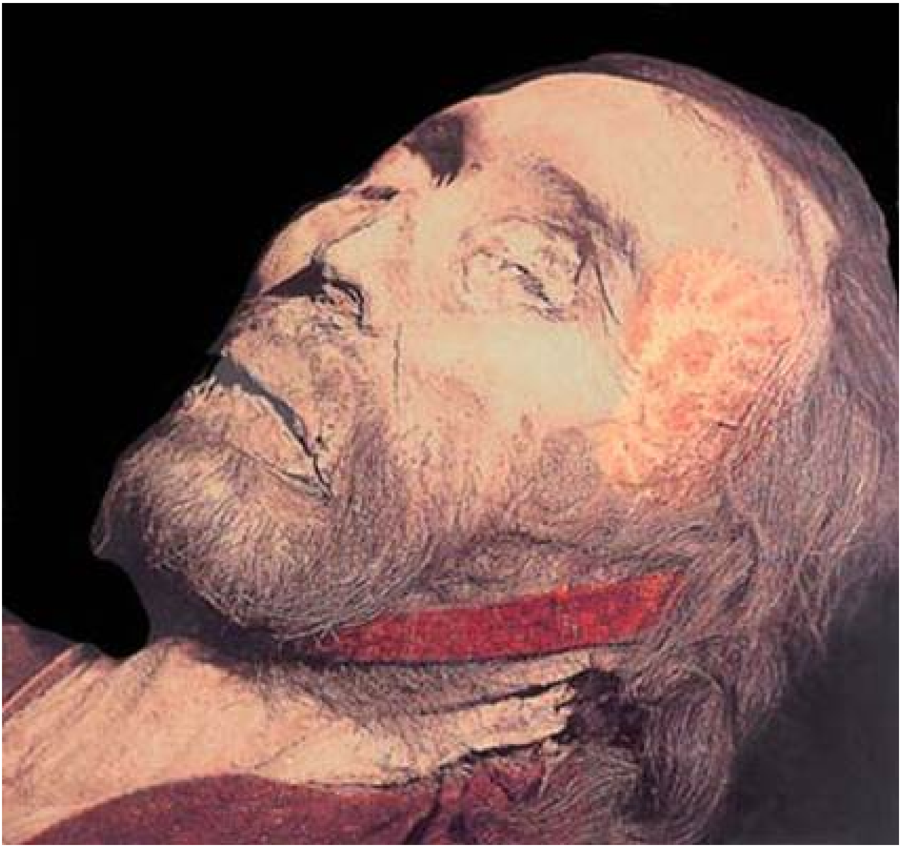
In addition to the great Indo-European migrations, several other waves of white migration occurred, varying in number, influence, and reach—the most spectacular being a white settlement in North America dating from approximately 7000 BC.

Knowledge of these migrations had been lost for centuries. Due to relatively recent archaeological finds, many have now been rediscovered. In this way Nordic and white Mediterranean remains (sometimes preserved naturally, sometimes preserved through artificial means) have been discovered in China, the Canary Islands, and in North America. Some are thousands of years old. The discovery of these mummies shows without question that early white migrations across seas and continents took place; it is just the exact number of individuals who undertook these migrations which is still a matter of debate.

The Tocharians—Ancient Whites in China

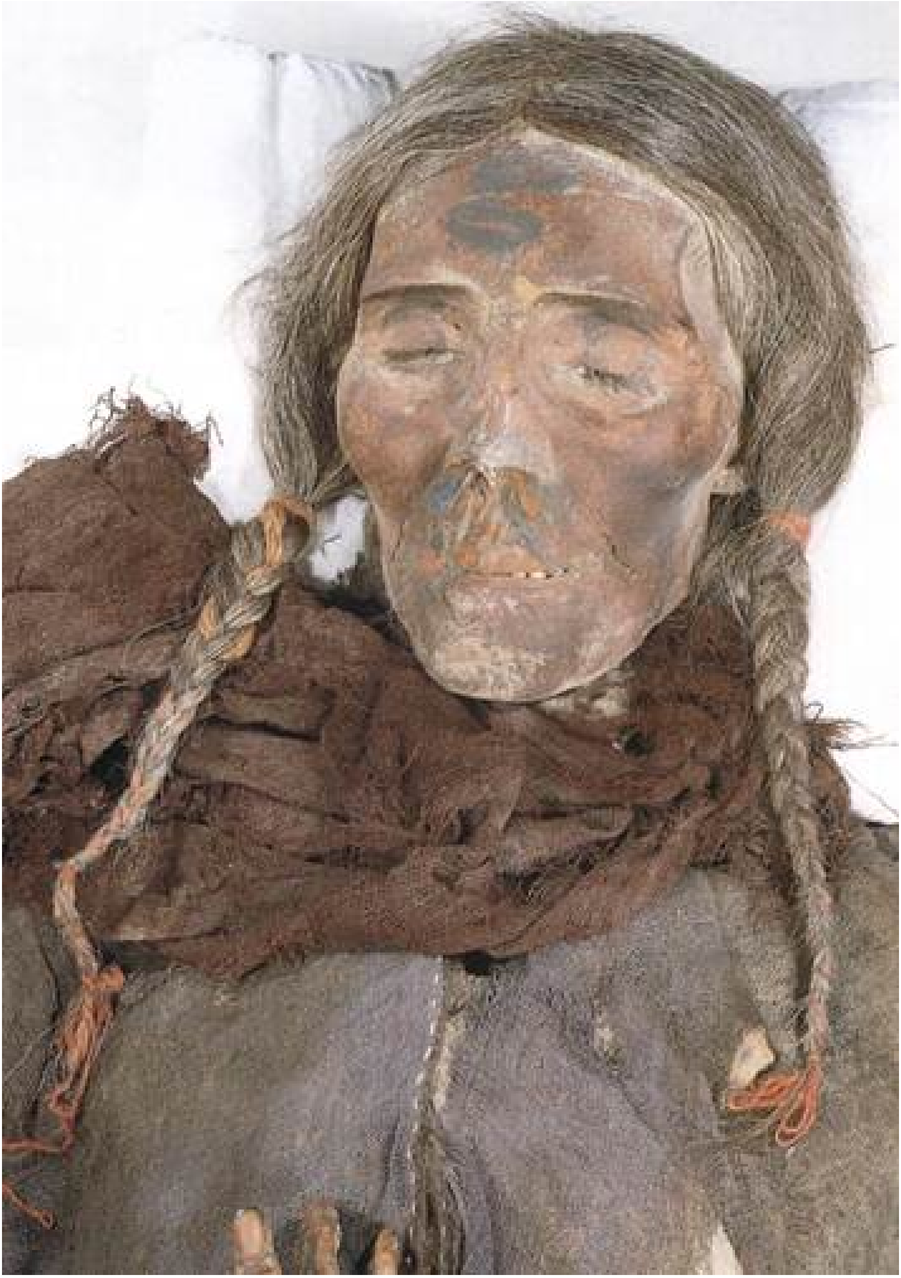
The Tocharians comprised one of the most famous eastern migrations of Celtic peoples into the Far East, reaching the Takla Makan Desert (situated between Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, and Tibet) in China around 1500 BC. Remarkably, this great migration was unknown until the 1977 AD discovery of 3,500-year-old graves of these people.

TOCHARIANS—LOST WHITES IN CHINA



A close-up of a three thousand-year-old, unmistakably white, Tocharian male, one of many unearthed from the graveyards in the Takla Makan Desert in western China. This mummy is on display at the Xinjiang museum, Uromqi, China.

Flaxen Blond Hair in Ancient China



A Tocharian female mummy with long, flaxen blond hair perfectly preserved in ponytails. She has been dated from 1500 BC, and was discovered in the Zagunluq Cemetery, Takla Makan Desert. Items of woven material, identical to Celtic cloth, definitively proved the Indo-European origins of the Tocharians, who not only built the fantastic Silk Road cities which today lie deserted, but who are also credited with bringing Buddhism, horses, the saddle, and ironworking to China.

As a result of the natural dryness of the environment, many of the corpses are almost perfectly preserved, with their reddish-blond hair, long noses, round eyes, and finely woven tartan clothing (usually associated with the Celts in Scotland), showing undeniably white racial traits.

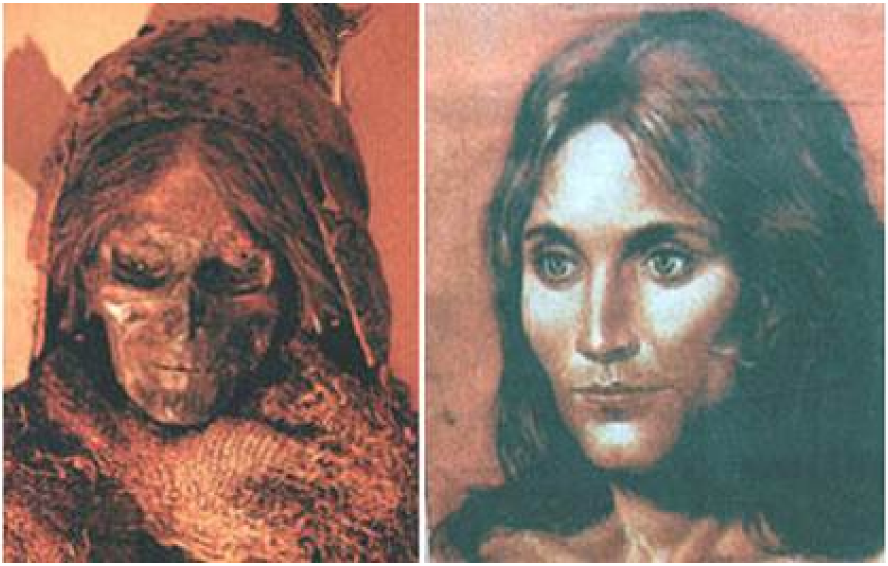
The Chinese civilization always contained stories of blue-eyed and blond-haired leaders who were the originators of Buddhism and the first leaders and organizers of Chinese society. These stories were always regarded as pure legend until the 1977 discovery of the graveyards of the Tocharians. The mummies are unequivocally Nordic racial types. The graveyards lie near the ruins of the great Tocharian cities, built along the famous Silk Route. It is beyond doubt that whites settled in China, and the Chinese legends of white influence on that civilization have a basis in fact.

These people have become known by the language which they spoke: Tocharian. The civilization which they built consisted of great cities, temples, and centers of learning and art. They were also the builders and maintainers of the original Silk Road—the path for trade between the West and China. It was originally thought that the Chinese built the great cities along the Silk Road, but the discovery of the remains of the original people of this region shows that the impressive ruins which still lie undisturbed along that road, are the remains of a great lost white civilization.

The first white mummy in the region was discovered by accident in 1977 after shifting sands uncovered a female corpse whose body had been mutilated, presumably in some act of war. Excavation around her corpse uncovered a further sixteen mummies, so perfectly preserved by the desert that traces of tears were found on the face of a mummified infant. Fully dressed bodies were found wearing finely woven woolen textiles with Celtic patterns, leather shoes, and jewelry. The desert conditions proved so exceptional that even pieces of bread used as offerings were preserved intact alongside what is the world's oldest saddle. In one grave, excavators discovered a saddle cover and a pair of trousers with drawings of humans on one leg—one face had blue eyes.

THE *BEAUTY OF LOULAN* RECONSTRUCTED

In 1980 a blond-haired mummy was found in Loulan, China. The mummy was radiocarbon dated as being from 1800 BC. Right: A reconstruction of the mummy, named the Beauty of Loulan *as used on separatist literature in the region, which to this day, shows a large degree of non-Chinese* *ancestry among its population.*



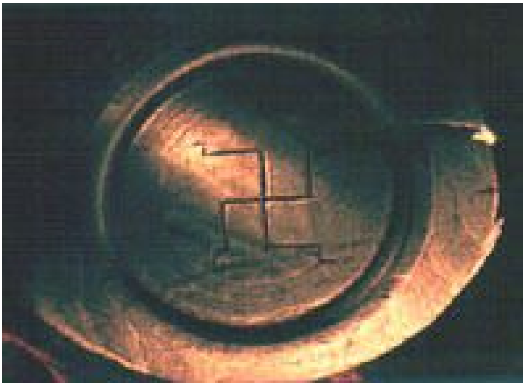
By the early 1990s, over a thousand Nordic corpses had been uncovered from the graveyards in the region (called Wapu), but by 1998, the Chinese government had halted further archaeological expeditions to the area, quite likely for fear of exposing yet more ancient European faces to the world. The current inhabitants of the surrounding lands, who are obviously not pure Chinese and who speak a form of Turkish rather than Chinese, have been agitating for independence for some time. The discovery of the white mummies has served to highlight their racial and ethnic differences from the Chinese and the issue has become a political hot potato for that country's govern-ment. However, some of the mummies which have already been uncovered are still on display in a local museum, while others lie in storerooms slowly deteriorating.

Ancient Europeans in Eastern China

Ancient white influence was not limited to the western parts of China. A genetic study published in the journal *Molecular Biology and Evolution* (Vol. 17, pages 1396–1400, 2000) titled "Genetic Structure of a 2,500-Year-Old Human Population in China and Its Spatiotemporal Changes," came to a remarkable conclusion. The Chinese and Japanese scientists who authored that report found that the city of Linzi (located in the far eastern sea-board province of Shandong), had over the past 2,500 years undergone massive changes, and that even today, that *"population showed greater genetic similarity to present-day European populations than to present-day east Asian populations."* The report continued: *"The 2,000-year-old Linzi population had features that were intermediate between the present-day European/2,500-year-old Linzi populations and the present-day east Asian populations.*

"These relationships suggest the occurrence of drastic spatiotemporal changes in the genetic structure of Chinese people during the past 2,500 years."

This report proved conclusively that ancient Europeans had penetrated China right through to the Pacific Ocean. Some Chinese legends maintained that the first Chinese emperors, who brought unity and civilization to China, had fair hair or blue eyes.



A swastika carved on the underside of a bowl, recovered from the Silk Road cities, is a clear cultural indication of the Indo-European origins of the Tocharians. Like all other Indo-Europeans, the Tocharians brought with them the Sanskrit language, and the sun wheel was their alphabetic symbol for "well being." From the Tocharian influence, the swastika has spread throughout China to this day.

Chinese Leaders with Blue and Green Eyes

The new finds are forcing a reexamination of old Chinese books that describe historical or legendary figures of great height, with deep-set blue or green eyes, long noses, full beards, and red or blond hair. Scholars had once scoffed at these references, but it now transpires that they were correct. One of these accounts can be found in the song to the great General Lü by the Chinese poet Li He (circa 790–816 AD) in his "Romance of the Three Kingdoms:"

General Lü, The valiant-hearted,

Riding alone on Scarlet Hare,

Out of the gates of Ch'in, To weep at Gold Grain Mound by funeral trees.

Inscrutable that vaulted azure, Arching over earth,

This is the way the world wags In our Nine Provinces. Gleaming ore from Scarlet Hill!

Hero of our time!

***Green-eyed general,** you well know The will of Heaven!*

(Emphasis added. Translation from *Goddesses, Ghosts, and Demons—The Collected Poems of Li He* (790–816), Translated by J.D. Frodsham, North Point Press, San Francisco, 1983.)

The Disappearance of the Tocharians

Over time, these white people mixed with the neighboring Mongoloid tribes and slowly vanished from history as a distinct group. The physical features of the people currently living in western China clearly show part white and part Mongoloid traits, with blond hair not unknown. Thus it was that the white civilization of ancient China vanished through racial mixing, with only the crumbling ruins of their cities and their corpses remaining as silent witnesses.

The Guanches of the Canary Islands

Off the coast of West Africa lie the Canary Islands, a region which became home to a mysterious group of Nordics who, in antiquity, were known as the Guanches. While it is unknown for sure how they arrived on the islands, what is certain is that they shared a number of cultural characteristics with the ancient Egyptians and that their building style appears to have been replicated in South and Central America.

It is possible to see what the Guanches looked like due to the fortuitous existence of some of their mummies which are on display in the Canary Islands' national museum. The corpses on display are estimated to be between six hundred and one thousand years old.

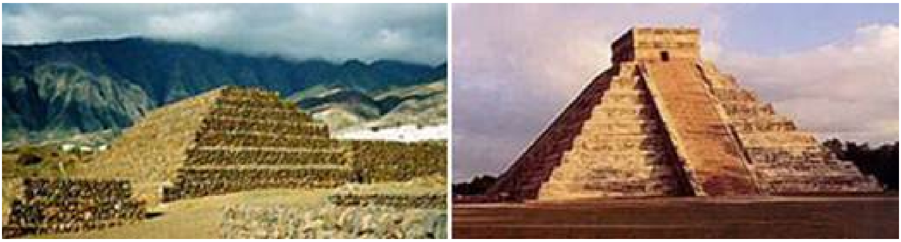
An examination of one of the mummies' bodies showed incisions that almost matched those found in Egyptian mummies, although the string used by the Guanche embalmers to close the wounds was much coarser than what the Egyptian experts used.

The Guanches also possessed the art of writing, although this has not yet been the subject of any major study.

Guanche Pyramids

The most stunning link between the Guanches and the Egyptians comes in the form of pyramids. The Guanches built several small step pyramids on the islands, using exactly the same model as those found in ancient Egypt and Mesopotamia. The pyramids have an east-west alignment which indicates that they were probably used for religious purposes, most likely associated with the rising and setting of the sun. Carefully built stairways on the west side of each pyramid lead up to the summit, which in each case has a flat platform covered with gravel, possibly used for religious or ceremonial purposes.

GUANCHE AND MAYAN PYRAMIDS—SIMILARITIES



Left: One of the pyramids of Guimar, Canary Islands. Right: A Mayan pyramid on the Atlantic coast of Mexico, at Chichen Itza. The resemblance is unmistakable. There is strong evidence to suggest that whites used the

Canary Island current to cross the Atlantic Ocean and influence the Central and South American civilizations in pre-Columbian times.

Guanche-Type Pyramids Found in Mexico

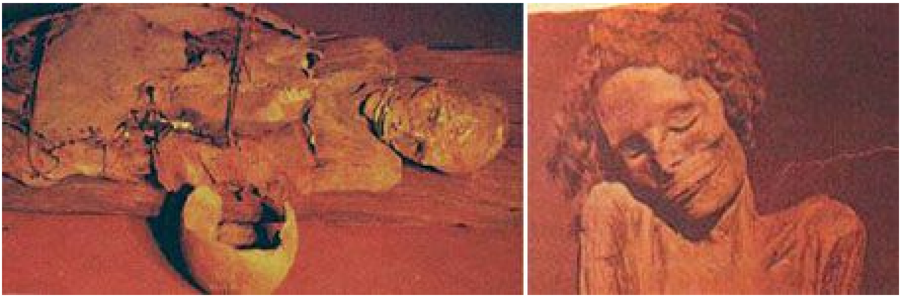
The famous explorer, Thor Heyerdahl, who "rediscovered" the pyramids on the Canary Islands and who set up an academic body to study the phenomena, argued that the pyramids may be remains from explorers who sailed the Atlantic in ancient times, and who may have possibly forged a link with the pre-Columbian civilizations of the Americas.

As the original inhabitants of the Canary Islands were fair haired and bearded, it was possible, Heyerdahl suggested, that long before the fifteenth century, people of the same stock as those who settled the Canary Islands also sailed the same route along the Canary Current that took Christopher Columbus to the Americas.

This theory formed the basis of Heyerdahl's famous "RA" expeditions in which he showed that it was possible to cross the Atlantic in an Egyptian reed boat. In fact, Columbus's starting point was the Canary Islands, where he obtained supplies and water on Gomera, the island next to Tenerife.

The Guanches on Tenerife in 1492 did not permit Columbus to land on their island. They were not impressed by the physical appearance of the bearded Europeans, who looked like the Guanches. When Columbus and the Europeans who followed in his wake landed in the Americas, they were welcomed and initially worshiped as gods, since the beardless Indians they encountered believed that the Spanish belonged to the same people as the legendary founders of their civilization, bearded men from across the Atlantic Ocean. According to the Aztec and Olmec (Central American Amerind) legends, their god, Quetzalcoatl, had Nordic features (eyes and hair color) and a beard. This god came from over the sea and taught the Amerinds how to raise corn and build structures.

RED-HAIRED GUANCHE MUMMIES ON DISPLAY IN CANARY ISLAND MUSEUM



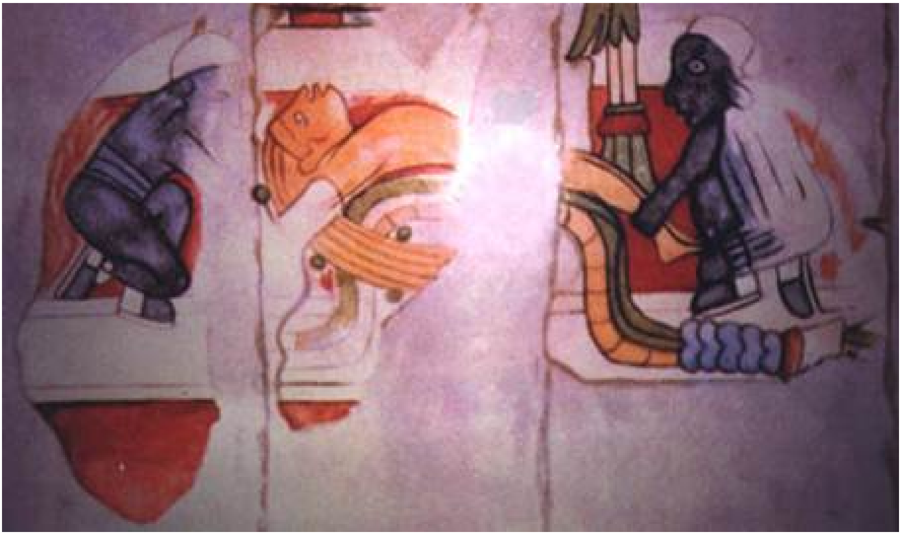
Two Guanche mummies, with red hair and other Nordic features—the original inhabitants of the Canary Islands. It is unknown at what date they settled the islands, but they show cultural similarities with the ancient Egyptians. It seems likely that they were original Cro-Magnon types.

There is a marked similarity between the step pyramids on the Canary Islands and those in Central and South America, strongly suggesting yet another great lost white migration, this time to Central and South America, perhaps a thousand years or more before Columbus. There is also clear evidence from the Mexican side of the Atlantic Ocean that whites—blond-haired whites—reached that part of the world long before the Spanish explorations of the late 1490s.

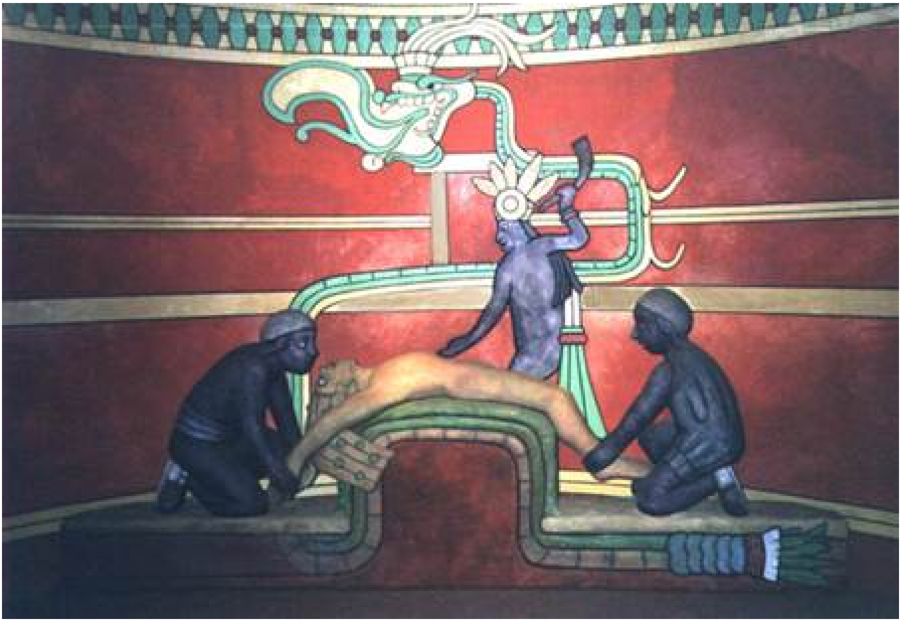
On the walls of the Temple of the Warriors, Chichen Itza, located on the east coast of Mexico, are a series of paintings depicting white prisoners captured by dark-skinned natives, and then a white man with long blond hair being sacrificed by the nonwhites. These paintings date from before Christopher Columbus sailed the Atlantic in 1492.

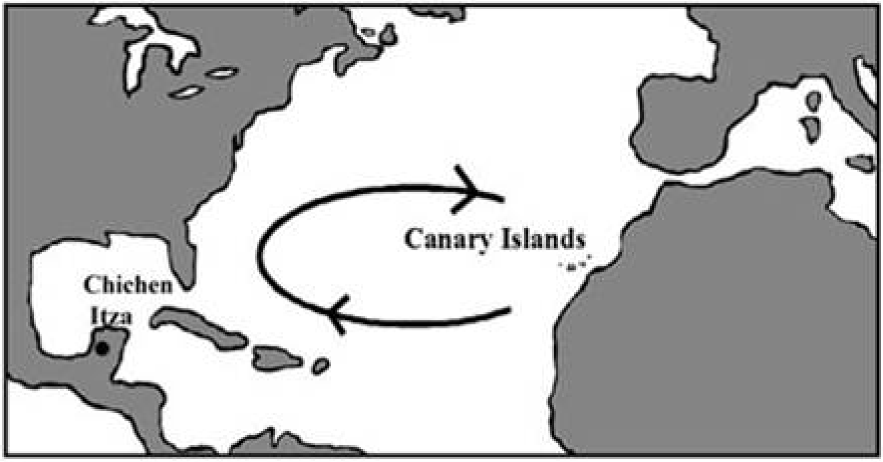
DID THE GUANCHES CROSS THE ATLANTIC?

The best evidence for early Guanche crossings of the Atlantic comes from Mexico. The Amerind Temple of Warriors *located on the east coast of Mexico, dates from pre-Columbian times, yet its murals contain a series of images which clearly show white prisoners being sacrificed.*



A white prisoner, with long blond hair, being sacrificed by Chichen Itza warriors. Below: The same mural, reconstructed in life-size, with models, on display at the Parque Etnografico Museum on the Canary Islands.





The position of the Canary Islands and the route of the Canary Current to and from the Americas. The existence of the red-haired Guanches on the Canary Islands, combined with the red-haired pre-Columbus mummies found in South America and the marked similarity in pyramid building styles, indicate that whites probably used the Canary Current to cross the Atlantic, most likely between 2000 and 500 BC. Note the position of the pre-Columbian center of Chicen Itza, where the murals alongside originate.

The Disappearance of the Guanches

Guanche artifacts, such as cave murals, tombs, stone and mortar walls, broken pottery, and other everyday items are abundant on the island. Similar artifacts have been found on the African continent—notably in Morocco, indicating that at some stage the Guanches crossed the sea to Africa. There they started mixing with Arabic and other nonwhite racial types.

This is likely the cause of some flashes of blond hair and light-colored eyes found among the Berber population of northwest Africa to this day.

The pyramids and other structures on the islands seem to have been constructed by an advanced people. By the time of the Spanish invasion, the Guanches had lost much of their civilized apparel, and Spanish accounts have it that they were attacked by naked tribesmen, who sometimes inflicted serious military defeats upon the invading Spaniards. It was only in 1496 that the Spaniards finally defeated the last of the Guanches.

The arrival of the white Spanish in the mid-fourteenth century saw the remaining Nordic Guanches absorbed into the new settler population. The blond, blue-eyed, tall stock has been preserved in part, and can still be seen today in many individuals on the island. Culturally speaking, the Guanche civilization was completely absorbed by the imported continental European culture, so that the Canary Islands remain Spanish territory to this day.

White Types in North America 7000 BC?

One of the most enigmatic of the lost great white migrations is the existence of skeletal remains in North America. These date from as early as 7000 BC, appear to be white in nature, and most certainly are not "Native American" or Amerind (whose racial traits are Mongoloid or Asiatic—derived from the original homeland of the Amerind peoples).

It is beyond dispute that white tribes reached China. Compared to the distances those whites traveled, it would have been a relatively short hop across the rest of Asia to the Bering Straits (which divides Asia and North America), and then into the North American continent.

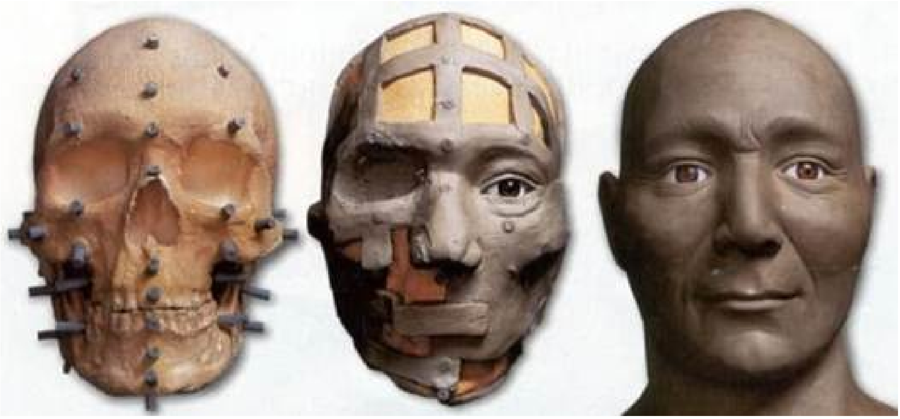
This was exactly how the Amerinds got to North America; there is no reason why advanced groups of whites could not have traveled this route even before the Amerinds. It is equally possible that early whites could have sailed from western Europe, hugging the last ice pack along its coastline past present-day Greenland. Other evidence (reviewed below) supports this possibility.

Spirit Cave Mummy—Used Diamond Plaited Textile Matting

In 1940 a mummified and well preserved body was unearthed in the Spirit Cave complex, located in the American state of Nevada. The mummy's scalp was complete and skin remained on the back and shoulders.

On the head there was a small tuft of straight dark hair, which changed to reddish-brown when exposed to light. Artifacts discovered in the Spirit Cave totaled some sixty-seven items, including knives, baskets, and animal bones.

The Nine Thousand-Year-Old Spirit Cave Mummy, Nevada, USA



A reconstruction of the face of the Spirit Cave Mummy, based on a cast of the skull, showing the various stages used in the reconstruction process (as published in Newsweek, *US edition, April 26, 1999). The Spirit Cave Mummy was the first—but not the last—ancient remain found in America that were clearly not Amerind and which forced a rethink on exactly who are "Native Americans." Discovered in 1940, but only analyzed racially in 1994, this nine thousand-year-old mummy was discovered in a cave in Nevada, USA. The clearly Caucasian facial structure indicates that whites were on that continent, either prior to, or simultaneous with, the originally Mongoloid Amerind population.*

The mummy was lying on a fur blanket dressed in a twisted skin robe with leather shoes on its feet and a twined mat sewn around its head and shoulders. A similar mat was wrapped around the lower portion of the body. Two bags contained cremation ashes and bone fragments.

The style of weaving used in the textiles is known as diamond-plaited matting. This is a complex system requiring a high degree of sophistication in material manufacture technology that would have rivaled any on the planet at the time.

The corpse became known as the Spirit Cave Mummy, and was placed in the Nevada State Museum's storage facility for decades. Only in 1994 was the mummy "rediscovered" and the startling truth revealed. Tests showed that the corpse was 9,400 years old—a forty-five- to fifty-five-year old male—and, most importantly, not an ancestor of any modern Indian tribe.

The age was determined by performing seven separate radiocarbon dating tests on samples of bone, hair, and the two reed mats in which he was buried. The Spirit Cave Mummy's white racial traits are undeniable. It has a long, small face and a large cranium, in sharp contrast to the Mongoloid features of American Indians. The Spirit Cave Mummy represents some form of non-Amerind, and most likely white, settlement or incursion into North America around the year 7000 BC. The Nevada State Museum went public with its findings on the mummy in 1996. It immediately sparked a furor, with the American Indians demanding that the corpse be reburied in accordance with tribal custom—falsely claiming the Spirit Cave Mummy as one of their own.

The Amerind tribe involved, the Paiutes, laid claim to the corpse under an American law, the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990, which allows for the return and reburial of bodies of "Native Americans." An extended legal dispute arose over the issue of ownership. As part of the legal wrangling, the Paiute have consistently refused to allow DNA testing of the corpse.

This is not the only case where American Indians have blocked the study of obviously non-Amerind remains. Another case, that of Kennewick Man (see below), was similarly held up by Indian objections, and in 1993 another skeleton was found near Buhl in the state of Idaho.

The latter remains were some 10,600 years old, making them the oldest ever found in North America. The skeleton was turned over to local Indians, the Shoshone-Bannock tribe, and reburied before any comprehensive testing could be undertaken.

In this way several unique anthropological specimens have already been given to, and buried by, Indian tribes. In Montana, naturally shed human hair discovered by one archaeologist elicited an Amerind claim. Although the hair had not been buried in any kind of ritual, the US federal government has prevented testing of the hair to commence. The reason for the American Indian sensitivity over the issue is obvious. Proof that whites, even if only in small numbers, walked the continent of North America before the Amerinds themselves would undermine the latter's claim to be the original "Native Americans." For the sake of political correctness, much valuable scientific data is being suppressed.

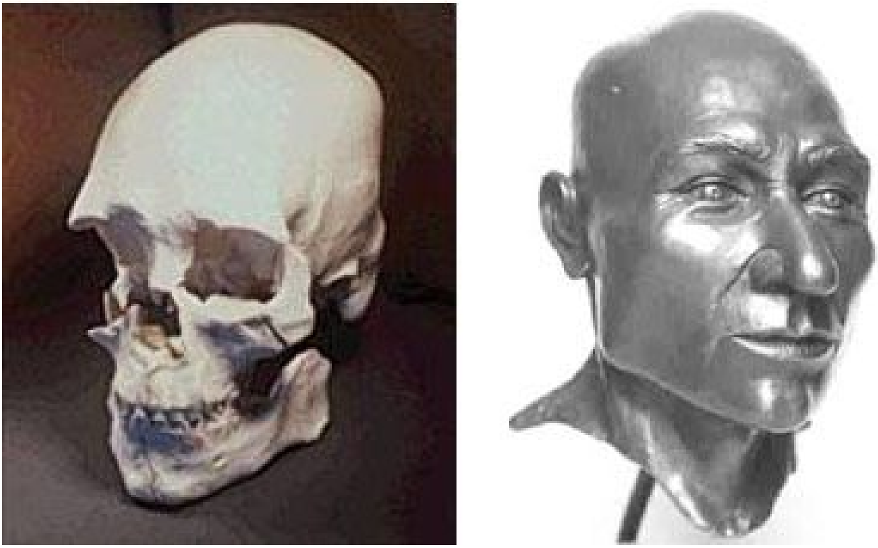
Kennewick Man 7200 BC

On July 28, 1996, another dramatic find was made in the state of Washington in the northwestern United States: on that day a well-preserved skeleton was found in the Columbia River in Kennewick. This skeleton has become known as Kennewick Man.

The nearly intact skeletal remains, found with a stone arrowhead lodged in the pelvic bone, are so clearly non-Amerind and so close to white, that forensic anthropologists and local police first thought them to be those of a nineteenth century white male, about forty-five years old, who was killed by an arrow.

Radiocarbon dating of a finger bone, however, showed it to have great age—at least nine thousand years old—putting the individual on the North American continent around the year 7200 BC.

KENNEWICK MAN—WASHINGTON STATE, USA 7000 BC



Above left: The skull of a nine thousand-year-old white racial type discovered in North America—Kennewick Man, found in the Kennewick River in Washington State, USA. Artifacts found in the surrounding area suggest he was part of a larger community. Above right: A reconstruction of the face of Kennewick Man, based on the skull. The features are clearly indicative of white racial characteristics.

Like the Spirit Cave Mummy, Kennewick Man's white racial traits are the cause of much controversy. Local American Indian tribes filed claims for possession of Kennewick Man. After a protracted legal dispute, scientists won the right to forensically examine the remains.

Initial examination of Kennewick Man's skull indicated a likely white, even Nordic, cranial structure, differing greatly from the Mongoloid skull shape of American Indians.

The man was a little over five and a half feet tall and of slender build. The skull is dolichocranial (cranial index 73.8) rather than brachycranic, the face narrow rather than broad and flat. (The average cranial index for Nordic racial types is 74.)

Other features are a long, broad nose that projects markedly from the face and high, round orbits. The mandible is v-shaped, with a pronounced, deep chin. Many of these characteristics are definitive of present-day white peoples.

Other nearby finds of bone needles close to the Kennewick Man's remains assume that he may possibly have worn tailored clothing. These astonishing finds reveal that Kennewick Man was not alone, but that he lived in a community of some numbers. In October 1999, the US Government issued a report on Kennewick Man, claiming that the skeletal remains possibly resembled the Ainu racial type (found in Japan). The Ainu also have strong Caucasian features, suggesting some type of ancient white ancestry, although this has to date not been borne out by genetic research.

Fork Rock Cave—Nine Thousand-Year-Old Sandals

In Oregon there is a cave known as the Fork Rock Cave which has been the center of a number of significant non-biological finds. In 1938, seventy pairs of sandals made of sagebrush were discovered, and radiocarbon dating technology dated them at 9,000 years old. Charcoal was also found with a radiocarbon date indicating it was 13,200 years old.

The sagebrush sandals were intricately woven, and the other items found in the cave included projectile points, scrapers, drills, a wooden trigger for a trap, small pieces of basketry, and awls to make leather (or tailored clothing for the Kennewick Man and his peers), all of which indicated highly skilled workers. These items all differ vastly from contemporary Indian artifacts in ancient and North America and in present-day Indian findings.

The Si-Te-Cah—The Amerinds' White Enemies

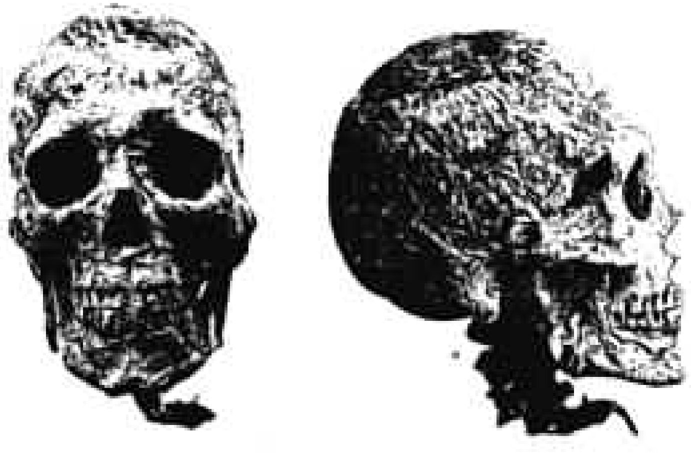
In fact, red-haired enemies feature in local Indian legends—or what were thought legends until the discovery of what became known as the Lovelock mummies. The Paiute Indians—the same ones who object to the scientific investigation of the Spirit Cave Mummy—had a number of legends dealing with red -haired enemies who they called the "Si-Te-Cah."

Significantly, the name Si-Te-Cah means "tule eaters"—tule being the fibrous reed which is the base material of the mats in which the Spirit Cave Mummy was buried. Tule is no longer found in the region and was likely imported along with the people who used it.

According to the Paiute legends, the red-haired peoples were warlike, and a number of the Indian tribes joined together in a long war against them. Eventually, the last of the Si-Te-Cah were trapped in what is now called Lovelock Cave. When they refused to come out, the Indians piled brush before the cave mouth and set it aflame. The Si-Te-Cah were incinerated.

Sarah Winnemucca Hopkins, daughter of Paiute Chief Winnemucca, related many stories about the Si-Te-Cah in her book *Life among the Paiutes.* On page seventy-five, she wrote: *"My people say that the tribe we exterminated had reddish hair. I have some of their hair, which has been handed down from father to son. I have a dress which has been in our family a great many years, trimmed with the reddish hair. I am going to wear it some time when I lecture. It is called a mourning dress, and no one has such a dress but my family."*

LOVELOCK CAVE SKULLS



Skulls recovered from the Lovelock Cave, where, according to Amerind tradition, the last of a red-haired tribe, the Si-Te-Cah, were exterminated. The "long," or doliocranic, nature of the Lovelock Cave skulls also indicate their white ancestry.

In 1931, further skeletons were discovered in the Humboldt Lake bed. Eight years later, a mystery skeleton was unearthed on a ranch in the region. In each case, the skeletons were exceptionally tall —much taller than the surrounding Amerinds. There is a small display on the Si-Te-Cah in the Lovelock museum today, but it ignores the evidence which indicates that the Si-Te-Cah were not Amerinds. The Nevada State Historical Society also displays some artifacts from the cave.

Wizards Beach Man—Pyramid Lake, Nevada

Yet another non-Amerind skeleton has been found at a place called Pyramid Lake, Nevada. The remains are known as Wizards Beach Man. This skeleton has been dated at 9,225 years old. Once again the skull shape is distinctly “long” (that is, European) and very different to the Mongoloid shape of original Amerind racial types.

ANCIENT WHITES IN NEVADA—WIZARDS BEACH MAN

The dolichocranial skull of Wizards Beach Man: one of the many skeletons discovered on the North American continent which date from before 7000 BC and which display European features.

Peñon Woman

In December 2002, it was announced that a skeleton, which had been in Mexico City’s National Museum of Anthropology since 1959, had been identified as being more than thirteen thousand years old, the oldest skeleton yet found in the Americas. Dubbed *Peñon Woman III,* the skeleton’s skull—dolichocraniac or “long-faced”—was what attracted the attention of scientists, as the Amerind population has broad Mongoloid-shaped skulls. Scientists speculated that the skull was possibly of Ainu extraction, just like the Kennewick Man.

THIRTEEN THOUSAND-YEAR-OLD DOLICHOCRANIC SKULL

The skull of Peñon Woman III, *the oldest skeleton yet discovered in the Americas, shows evidence of Caucasian origins, as evidenced from the dolichocranic, or '"long" form of the skull, which contrasts strongly with the broad, flat skull shape of Amerinds whose originating population was Asiatic. The skull has been dated at more than thirteen thousand years old.*

Lineage X—Genetic Tracking

Those who argue for an ancient white settlement of North America based on the large number of non-Amerind, European-like, skeletal remains found on that continent, were boosted by a 1998 announcement on the existence of a genetic link between Amerinds and Old European white populations.

The genetic findings were announced in 1998 by Theodore Schurr, a molecular anthropologist from Emory University in Atlanta, at a meeting of the American Association of Physical Anthropologists in Salt Lake City (*Science,* Vol. 280, April 24, 1998).

The data, from a genetic marker named Lineage X, suggests definite links between ancient whites and Native Americans.

It implies that ancient European peoples who reached North America after first presumably migrating through Asia, still retained a distinct genetic makeup which then passed into New World populations through later physical mingling. According to these Lineage X findings, white populations from Europe were most likely among the North American continent's earliest settlers.

The Lineage X markers and possible source populations have been studied by Emory researchers Michael Brown and Douglas Wallace, Antonio Torroni of the University of Rome, and Hans-Jurgen Bandelt of the University of Hamburg. Lineage X, a site of genetic variation, is found in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) and thus is passed only through the maternal line.

It is one of five markers or haplogroups in mtDNA now identified in Native Americans, of which the other four (A–D) are shared by Asians and Amerinds, in accordance with widely accepted theories of their ancient links.

The fifth genetic marker, Lineage X, occurs at low frequencies in both modern and ancient remains of Native Americans and in some European and Middle Eastern groups including Italians, Spaniards, Finns, Turks, and Bulgarians. Crucially, Lineage X does not occur in any Asian population, including those of Tibet, Mongolia, Southeast Asia, or Northeast Asia.

Brown and his coworkers had expected to find the genetic marker in Asia, like the other four Native American markers, and are now pressed to account for the gap in their data. This and other evidence persuasively indicates that groups of whites migrated from Europe to North America over nine thousand years ago, and at a later stage mixed with Amerind stock to cause this fifth genetic marker to appear in North America.

Megaliths in North America

If the general theory of a white presence in ancient North America is accurate, then it would be logical that such a population would have left behind some buildings or settlements.

MEGALITH SITES IN NORTH AMERICA

Megaliths are concentrated on the eastern seaboard of the US. Here are a few Megaliths found in the state of Massachusetts. All illustrate the unquestioned existence of stone megaliths—structures foreign to the American Amerinds.

The remains of a stone circle, Burnt Hill and a lime kiln, Bolton;

The Shutesbury Chamber; the Harvard Chamber, Harvard;

"The Shrine," Shutesbury; and the Palmer Chamber, Palmer.

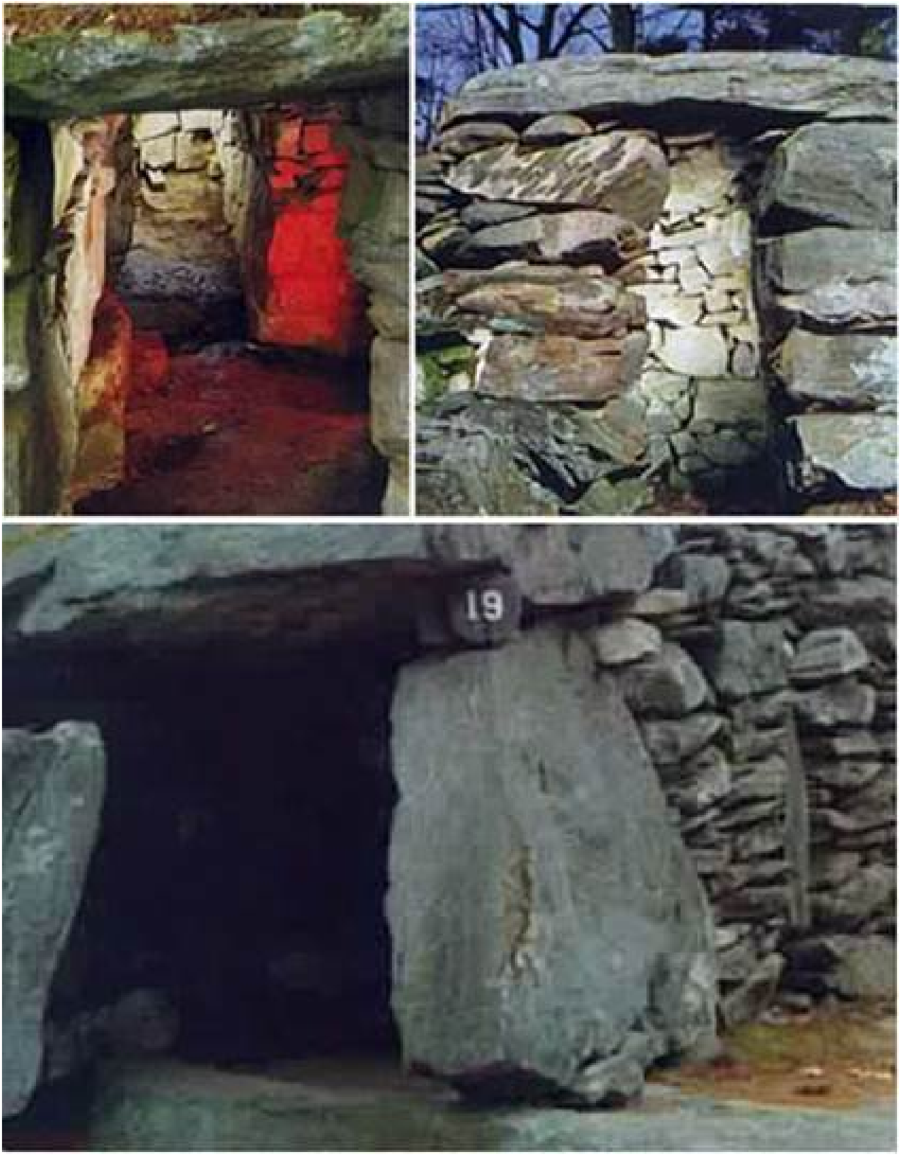
In this regard, the existence of megalithic structures and even small square-building cities on that continent needs to be reevaluated in light of the new discoveries as outlined above. The most dramatic of the early structures on the North American continent is to be found at a site called "Mystery Hill," located near the town of Salem, in the American state of New Hampshire.

There, a thirty acre megalith site—in many respects identical to those found in western Europe, and equally as old—has been open to the public since 1958.

While diggings at the "America's Stonehenge" site have produced artifacts from most time periods, the most significant find has been an etching which experts have identified as "Celtic" in nature, raising the tantalizing possibility that it was the subject of an early settlement from the European mainland.

MYSTERY HILL—MEGALITHS IN AMERICA CIRCA 7000 BC

"America's Stonehenge," located at Mystery Hill, New Hampshire, USA. Although the site has been open to the public for decades, it is still one of America's most "unknown" structures—because of the racial implications it contains. The building technique and style is identical to the megalith structures found in western Europe and is completely foreign to the American Indians ("Amerinds"). The fact "America's Stonehenge" is still largely unknown to the wider public is an example of the malicious suppression of an important archaeological site for the political implications which it carries.



Compare these pictures to the megalith pictures in Chapter 3 of this book. The complex consists of a number of large shaped standing stones, covering some thirty acres. Like Stonehenge in England, the structures can be used to determine the occurrence of specific solar and lunar events of the year. A number of stones found in the area show manmade markings, with some of them showing links to early European scripts. In addition to these buildings, a number of ironworking sites have been discovered. Ironworking was foreign to the Amerinds and was a trademark of the Indo-European peoples. The presence of nine thousand-year-old European-like skeletal remains and these ancient structures serve as powerful evidence of pre-Amerind whites in North America. All indications are that these whites *were killed in conflict with the Amerinds and any survivors were absorbed into the Amerind gene pool.*

In addition to these buildings, a number of ironworking sites have been discovered in North America. Ironworking was foreign to the Amerinds. The presence of nine thousand-year-old seemingly European-like skeletal remains and these ancient structures serves as powerful evidence of Pre-Amerind whites in North America. All indications are that most of these whites were exterminated in conflict with the Amerinds—with survivors being physically absorbed into the Amerind population.

Ironworking Sites in North America

Archaeologists and historians are of the unanimous opinion that the Amerinds did not have smelting or iron casting technology or ability, yet in a number of areas in North America remains of iron smelting furnaces have been found. They all follow designs which had previously only been found in Europe.

The ability to work iron was one of the single biggest advances which originated with the Indo-Europeans. The most famous of these iron furnaces is to be found on Spruce Hill, a flat top mountain in the Scioto Valley in south central Ohio.

The collapsed walls of a surrounding fort and other buildings—some 200,000 tons of cut rock—are still to be seen on the site, which was first fully explored by Arlington Mallery in 1948, and detailed in his book *The Rediscovery of Lost America* (E.P. Dutton, New York, 1979).

Mallery went on to discover fourteen other ironworking sites, which clearly were foreign to the Amerinds, in the Deer Creek Valley, about ten miles from Spruce Hill. What makes the iron smelting sites so significant is the fact that they are identical to sites found in Europe. At some stage of prehistory, it seems likely that Europeans managed to sail the divide between Europe and North America. Most likely the route taken would have followed the far north, from Scandinavia to Greenland, and then possibly along the ice pack coast down into the northeastern seaboard of the North American continent.

The Mystery of the Anasazi: Were They White?

The mysterious ruins of the cliff dwellings in Nevada and elsewhere in the western United States have baffled archaeologists and historians. Square stone structures were foreign to the Amerinds, and local Indian legends claimed that the buildings were first created by a mysterious people called the Anasazi, who inhabited the area before the Amerinds.

Given the Lineage X and other skeletal evidence proving the existence of whites in America, either prior to or at the very least simultaneous with, the Amerinds, a strong circumstantial case could be made for white origins of the very European looking buildings which are currently shown to tourists as Amerind-created structures. Only a racial examination of surrounding gravesites will provide the final answer to the issue. There are hundreds of similar structures to be found all over the Southwest. While all are attributed to Amerinds, the question can be rightly asked: if Amerinds did indeed build these structures, why were they living in buffalo skin tents when Europeans colonized that country after the 1500s?

PRE-INDIAN NEVADA CLIFF DWELLINGS

The famous cliff dwellings of Nevada, USA. These very un-American Indian stone structures were, according to the Amerinds, built by the Anasazi people, who predated them.

The First Whites in America Disappear

The evidence indicates that the first whites in America were killed in open warfare with Amerinds (who may have arrived simultaneously or afterward), and that the survivors were absorbed into what became the numerically dominant Amerind groups. The existence of the Lineage X gene string adds credence to this. As mtDNA is transmitted only through the female line, it is obvious that the white males were killed by the nonwhites, and the white females were taken alive by the Amerinds for sexual purposes. This can be the only reason why mtDNA gene strings have been found among the Amerinds.

The first whites in America disappeared, along with their culture, through a process of racial integration, leaving behind only skeletons and artifacts as evidence of their existence.

The Great White Secret of Easter Island

For centuries, the stone statues on Easter Island in the Pacific Ocean have baffled historians, but the great Scandinavian explorer and authority, Thor Heyerdahl, in his book *Aku-Aku: The Secret of Easter Island* (George Allen & Unwin, London 1988), uncovered astonishing facts about the island and the ancestors of the people on the island. Sadly, Heyerdahl's discoveries have been largely ignored by historians, primarily because of the racial implications they carry.

Heyerdahl discovered, as is detailed in the book mentioned above, that the leading family on Easter Island to this day has a familial propensity for red hair, fair skin, and thin noses.

This is in stark contrast to the rest of the island's population, who are for the greatest part dark, flat-nosed, and black haired. The red-haired people on Easter Island today claim descent from a white people known as the "long ears," so called because they wore large earrings which elongated their earlobes, and who arrived on the island by boat at some stage in history, the exact date of which is unknown.

According to the oral tradition of the red-haired descendants on Easter Island—who are now of mixed descent—these first red-haired white people on the island set up a kingdom under one Hotu Matua.

These white settlers then created buildings and, as part of their construction work, carved and set up the famous stone statues, which all have long ears and long noses—again in vivid contrast to the flat-nosed natives. The stone statues have been dated at approximately 1,600 years old, meaning that the settlement of the island by these mysterious red-haired whites must have occurred around the year 500 AD.

EASTER ISLAND'S "RED-HEADS"

Many of the statues on Easter Island have separate hair pieces cut out of red rock from a different part of the island. This supports the inhabitants' tradition that red-haired people erected the statues. The leading family on the island to this day have a propensity for red hair—evidence of an early white migration to the region—a claim which they make in their oral history as well. The explorer Thor Heyrdahl documented all this and more in his book, Aku-Aku, The Secret of Easter Island.

All the while, the tradition goes, the red-haired long ears used the dark-skinned native inhabitants of the island, whom they called "short ears," as labor. According to the legend, the white long-eared people were: *"[A]n energetic people who always wanted to work, and the short ears had to moil and toil and help them make the walls and statues, which led to jealousy and dissatisfaction"* (Heyerdahl, ibid., page 122).

"The long ears' last idea was to rid the whole of Easter Island of superfluous stone, so that all the earth could be cultivated. This work was begun on the Poike plateau, the easternmost part of the island, and the short ears had to carry every single loose stone to the edge of the cliff and fling it into the sea. This is why there is not a single loose stone on the grassy peninsula of Poike today, while the rest of the island is thickly covered with black and red scree and lava blocks."

Heyerdahl continues the narrative of the oral tradition on Easter Island: *"Now things were going too far for the short ears. They were tired of carrying stones for the long ears. They decided on war. The long ears fled from every other part of the island and established themselves at the easternmost end, on the cleared Poike peninsula. Under the command of their chief Iko, they dug a trench nearly two miles long which separated the Poike plateau from the rest of the island.*

"This trench they filled with a great quantity of branches and tree-trunks till it was like a gigantic far flung pyre, ready to be set on fire if the short ears on the plain below tried to storm the slope leading to the plateau. But one of the long ears had a short ear wife—her name was Moko Pingei and she was living up on Poike with her husband. She was a traitor and had arranged a signal with the short ears down on the plain. When they saw her sitting, plaiting a large basket, the short ears were to steal in a long line past the place where she sat.

"One night the short ears' spies saw Moko Pingei sitting and plaiting a basket right at one end of Iko's ditch, and the short ears stole one by one past the place where she sat, at the very edge of the cliff. They sneaked on along the outer edge of the plateau until they at last had completely surrounded Poike.

"Another army of short ears down on the plain marched openly up towards the ditch: the unsuspecting long ears lined up to face them and set fire to the whole pyre. Then the other short ears rushed forward from their ambush, and in the bloody fight which followed, all the long ears were burned in their own ditch.

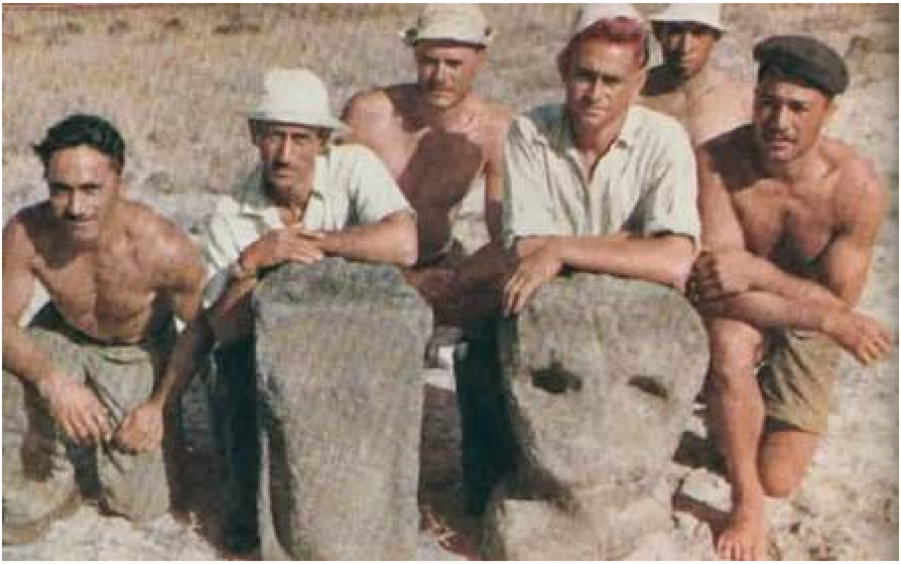
"Only three of the long ears succeeded in leaping through the fire and escaping . . . One of them is called Ororoina and another Vai, but the name of the third is forgotten. They hid in a cave which the inhabitants can point out to this day.

"There they were found, and two of them were stabbed to death with sharp stakes, while the third and last, Ororoina, was allowed to remain alive as the only surviving long ear. Ororoina was taken to the house of one of the short ears who was named Pipi Horeko.

"There he married a short ear of the Haoa family and had many descendants . . . the last of which are still living on the island now" (Heyerdahl, ibid., pages 123–24).

This is the oral tradition, as recounted in Heyerdahl's book. Most certainly it in some way represents at least a partially accurate version of events as the easternmost part of Easter Island, Poike, is indeed the only place on the island which is strangely clear of stones. It is also cut off from the rest of the island by a ditch, in which evidence of a great fire has been found.

The fact that the leading family on the island to this day shows red hair and some European features, even if they have been mixed to a certain degree with the nonwhite natives, is the clearest sign that the "long ears" were indeed white people.



A photograph from Thor Heyerdahl's 1955 expedition to Easter Island, as reproduced on page 223 of his 1958 book, Aku-Aku, The Secret of Easter Island. *The mayor of Easter Island, Hei, who claimed to be a "pure bred" long ear is seated second from the left, front row. Second from the right, front row, is his son, Juan - who has distinct red hair. The one pure European in the group is sitting in between the mayor and his son at the rear.*

It was after this great race war on Easter Island that many of the long ears' statues and buildings were pulled down by the nonwhite natives. Some were simply too big to pull down, and it is those which remain standing today.

"Red Haired" Statues—Colored Stone

Originally, many of the famous statues had separate sculptured hair pieces as well. Sadly, many have been knocked off over the course of time, but some remain or have been restored by modern archaeologists. The reason why the hair pieces were carved of separate pieces of rock lies in their color. These hair pieces were cut of red-colored stone which was hewn from a part of the island quite separate from the place where the main statues themselves were cut. The long ears even cut the statues in their own image, with red hair (Heyerdahl, ibid., pages 88–91).

South American Red Haired Incas

The red-haired whites of Easter Island must have come from somewhere. Heyerdahl studied surrounding regions and found evidence of mixed-race peoples, some with red hair, on the Marquesas Islands, near Easter Island.

However, Heyerdahl also found, by researching original Spanish accounts of the conquest of South America, that red-haired Incas were present in South America as late as the 1500s.

The conquistador, Pedro Pizarro, reported in his account of the great Spanish invasion of South America in the 1500s, that while the masses of Andes Indians were small and dark, the members of the ruling Inca family were tall and had whiter skins than the Spaniards. He mentioned in particular certain individuals in present-day Peru who were white and had red hair (Heyerdahl, ibid., page 351).

Heyerdahl reported that this is reflected in the mummies found in South America. On the Pacific coast, in the desert sand of Paracas, there are large burial caves in which numerous mummies have been perfectly preserved.

Some of the mummies were found to have the stiff black hair of the Indians. Others, which have been kept in the same conditions, have red, often chestnut-colored hair, *"silky and wavy, as found among Europeans; they have long skulls and remarkably tall bodies. Hair experts have shown by microscopic analysis, that the red hair has all the characteristics that ordinarily distinguish a Nordic hair type from that of Mongols or American Indians"* (Heyerdahl, ibid., pages 351–52).

Pizarro asked who the white skinned redheads were. The Inca Indians replied that they were the last descendants of the Viracochas, who were a divine race of white men with beards. They were so like the Spanish that the Incas thought the Europeans were the Viracochas who had come sailing back across the Pacific (Heyerdahl, ibid., page 253).

According to the principal Inca legend, the sun god Con-Ticci Viracocha had taken leave of his kingdom in present-day Peru and sailed off into the Pacific with all his subjects.

When the Spaniards came to Lake Titicaca, up in the Andes, they found the mightiest ruins in all South America—Tiahuanaco. They saw a hill reshaped by man into a stepped pyramid, classical masonry of enormous blocks—beautifully dressed and fitted together, and numerous large statues in human form. They asked the Indians to tell them who had left these enormous ruins.

The well-known chronicler, Cieza de Leon, was told in reply that these things had been made long before the Incas came to power. They were made by white and bearded men like the Spaniards (Heyerdahl, ibid., page 253). The white men had finally abandoned their statues and gone with the leader, Con-Ticci Viracocha, first up to Cuzco, and then down to the Pacific.

They were given the Inca name of Viracocha, or “sea foam,” because they were white-skinned and vanished like foam over the sea. The Spaniards recorded that the ruling Inca families called themselves Orejones, or long ears, in contrast to their subjects. Pizarro pointed out that it was especially the long ears who were white-skinned (Heyerdahl, ibid., page 253).

On Easter Island, tradition has it that the long ears came from over the sea. Their first king had long ears when he reached the island in a seagoing vessel. This ties in well with the completely separate Inca legend which says that Con-Ticci Viracocha had long ears when he sailed off westward across the sea.

MYSTERY OF THE NAZCAS IN PERU

One of the most famous ancient wonders of the South American continent are the huge emblems on the Nazca plains in Peru, dated circa 500 BC. A large number of well-preserved mummies have been unearthed in nearby burial grounds. Many are white in racial origin, with red hair being prominent. One of the Nazca Paracas mummies, disinterred from its sand tomb after two thousand years. Is it from these people that the legends of white gods in South America originate?

White Origins Suppressed

Heyerdahl's pioneering work shows that, drawing upon a number of different evidential strands (red-haired South American mummies, red-haired people on Easter Island, and Inca legends), it is highly likely that a group of white racial types were present in the area in pre-Columbian times.

These early whites, possibly linked to Canary Island Guanches, swept across the Atlantic Ocean, settled and built cities and civilizations in South America, and then spread out into the Pacific Islands, or so the evidence argues.

There, they were apparently either killed off by the nonwhite natives or were absorbed into the native population, leaving behind only flashes of their coloring among the inhabitants of the region.

The mysterious long-eared and red-haired statues of Easter Island and some of the great ruined cities found in South America appear then, to be the legacy of lost white migrations.

It is from these ancient people that the legends of white and bearded gods, which pervade Inca and Aztec mythology, appear to originate.

CHAPTER 7: Inexorably Overwhelmed—Whites in the Middle East

The racial makeup of the original inhabitants of the Middle East—from Turkey to present-day Iran, including the areas known today as Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine, and Egypt, was by the year 4000 BC, predominantly original white Mediterranean, with Alpine and Proto-Nordic subgroups scattered among them.

These original white inhabitants were strengthened by the arrival of large numbers of Indo-Europeans who started spreading south from their ancestral homeland in southern Russia from around 3000 BC onward. In addition to these white peoples, another group was to play a significant role in the history of the Middle East—the Semitic speaking peoples (this encompasses a wide range of peoples, including groups known to history as the ancient Jews and Arabic peoples).

They eventually came to predominate the entire area, entering the original white territories as laborers, traders, immigrants, and military conquerors.

WHITE REALMS OF THE MIDDLE EAST

Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
TURKEY
SYRIA
Tigris
LEBANON
ISRAEL
IRAQ
IRAN
AFGHANISTAN
CHINA
PAKISTAN
NEPAL
JORDAN
Persian Gulf
SAUDI ARABIA
EGYPT
INDIA

A map of the region under discussion in this chapter. Almost every country shown here was subjected to invasions by Indo-Europeans, who then set up white civilizations—only to be later submerged into a mass of Semitic, Mongoloid, and Hamitic (mixed) peoples who came to work in the nations as slaves or laborers.

From a racial point of view it is worth noting that neither the original Old European Mediterranean white peoples nor the original Semitic peoples exist in their original form anymore.

While retaining certain physical characteristics, both of these groups have mixed substantially with each other and additional racial groups as a result of the ebb and flow of historical events in the region.

It is also untrue to consider present-day Jews as purely "Semitic." The Jews of ancient times were most certainly as pure a Semitic people as could be found, but in modern times they are a mix of a great many races, from black right through to all of the white subraces. Semitic peoples also encompassed a large number of other tribes in the Middle East—as is still the case today. Nonetheless, the history of the ancient Middle East is dominated by centuries of physical struggle between successive waves of white and Semitic peoples. Each group established civilizations which in turn were overrun by their rivals, or, just as often, by a racially similar tribe.

Control of the Mesopotamian River Valley swung between these groups for thousands of years, with each successive invasion bringing with it an impetus of new blood and culture.

For a long period the white tribes were able to hang on to the higher lands to the northeast of the Tigris/Euphrates River basin, while various Semitic tribes occupied parts of previously Indo-European held territory within the Middle East.

As a result of this continual crossover of civilizations and shared geographical area, the racial distinctions of the peoples became blurred. Toward the close of this epoch it becomes more difficult to identify clear racial groups as opposed to named cultures.

Ultimately, the disappearance of the distinct racial groups in the region led to the torch of civilization being passed to what were then more homogeneous societies—first in Egypt, and then to the classical Greek and Roman civilizations.

Sumeria—First White Settlement

The region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers is commonly called the Fertile Crescent because of the closeness of fresh water supplies.

However, the term is a misnomer. Rainfall in the region has always been sparse, and large parts of this region are arid desert.

The region was, contrary to popular myth, never ideal farming territory, and the dryness was only alleviated in part due to the proximity of the river water. In spite of this, by the year 5000 BC, original Mediterranean whites and some early Nordic tribes (together known as Ubaidians) established settlements in the Tigris and Euphrates River basin. These settlements gradually developed into the chief cities of the region, and today this territory lies in the country of Iraq.

Earliest Decipherable Document

A Sumerian clay tablet, from about 2800 BC. It is one of the earliest decipherable documents in the world. Writing was done on clay tablets with the impressions being made by wooden wedged instruments. The tablet would then be baked to harden it—a process which preserved it for nearly five thousand years.

Second White Invasion 3250 BC—Origins of Sumer

These original whites were conquered by a new white tribe, the Sumerians, in 3250 BC. These people gave their name to the region: Sumer. In the centuries that followed their immigration, the country grew rich and powerful. Art and architecture, crafts, and religious and ethical thought flourished.

The Sumerian language became the prevailing speech of the land and their system of writing, the Sumerian script, where pictures were used to represent objects, set the standard for all written languages of the time.

Although initially very basic—a stick drawing of a fish would represent a fish and so on—this written language laid the basis for all pictographic languages, including the later Egyptian and Sanskrit forms. Writing was done on clay tablets with impressions being made by wedge-shaped instruments.

This pictographic writing eventually developed symbols for abstract concepts such as love, hate, go, and so on. The Sumerian script dominated all writing forms for at least four thousand years until the Greek script became preeminent.

ZIGGURATS AT UR

Despite not having natural stone resources, the Sumerians created huge monuments of clay brick which still stand. This is the main step ziggurat at Ur, built circa 2100 BC, shortly after the first major Indo-European invasion. The temple building was created in the shape of a step pyramid.

From the very beginning, the settlement of the Sumer delta possessed metal working facilities (they were particularly good at copper working) and wheeled vehicles, a significant breakthrough at the time. It is presumed that the wheel originally developed from the potter's wheel, which the Sumerians also possessed and apparently innovated.

To the southeast of Sumer lay the Saudi Arabian peninsula—the original heartland of the Semitic-speaking peoples. The original whites were soon surrounded by Semitic tribes, and within a few hundred years Semitic immigrants began to take up residence in the region, both as peaceful immigrants and as raiders.

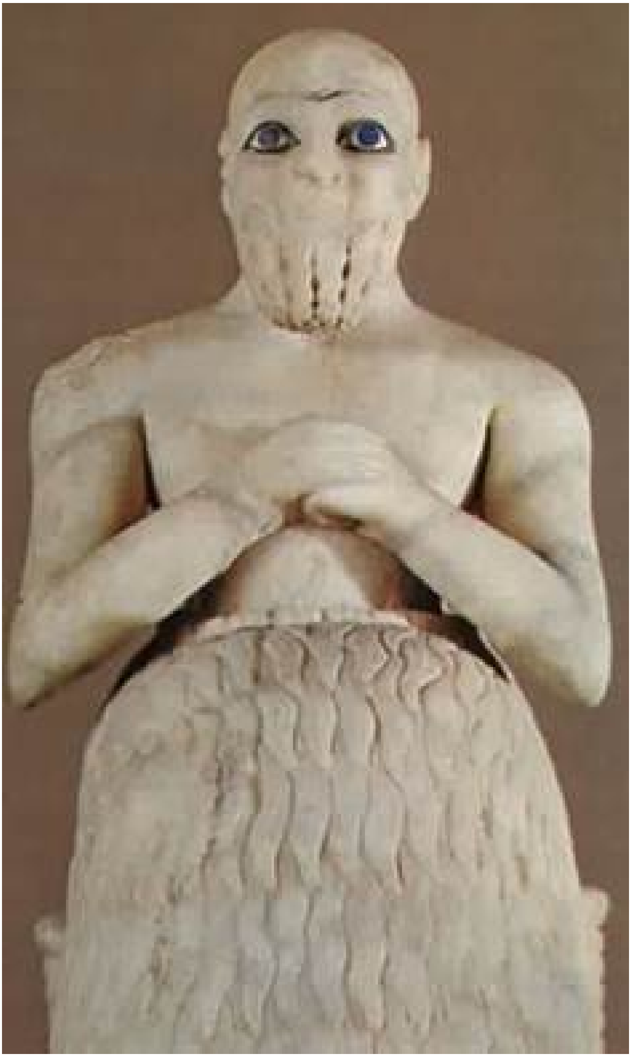
The First Semitic Invasion—the Akkads

The first large-scale Semitic invasion took place in 2335 BC, when the white Sumerians were overrun by the Akkadian people. The Semitic Akkad occupation of Sumer led to the establishment of a new kingdom, known as "The Kingdom of Sumer and Akkad." It was shortly after the Akkadian invasion that the first Jews were recorded as entering Sumeria in large numbers.

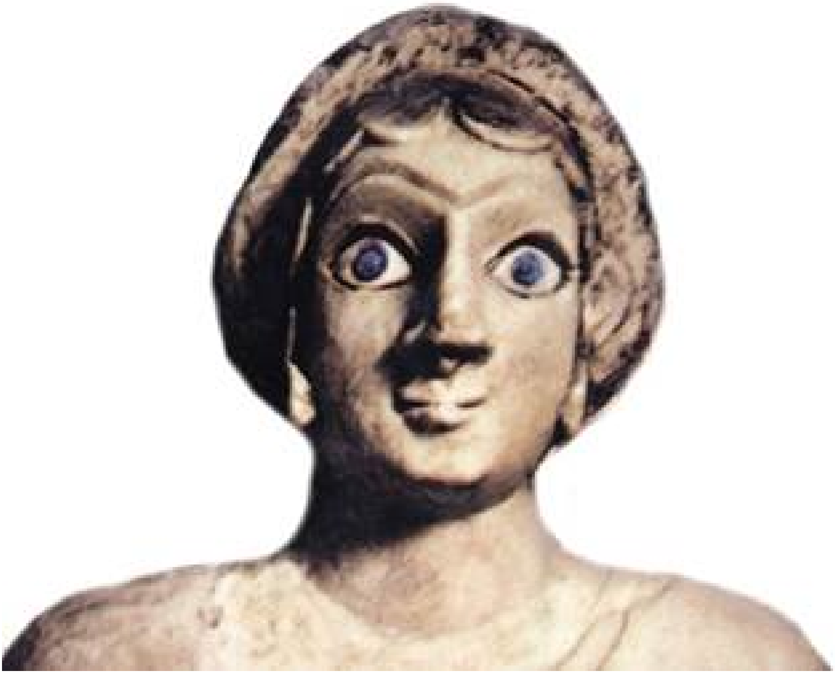
After a few generations the Semitic tribes started intermarrying with the original white tribes, and although this process was not absolute, the distinctions between the two groups became blurred. This mixing of the races in the region led to an increasingly hybrid population—a trend which continues to this day. Art forms left by the early Babylonians revealed their racial makeup as primarily a Mediterranean people. With the passage of time a distinct Semitic influence became apparent.

The Mediterranean origin of these early people has been confirmed by the British anthropologists Dudley Buxton and Talbot Rice, who examined skulls excavated at the Sumerian palace at Kish in Mesopotamia. Similar skulls were found by the French anthropologist H.V. Vallois at Sialk, halfway between Teheran and Isfahan, northeast of Kish, and in the Indus River Valley by R.B.S. Sewell and B.S. Guha of the Zoological Survey of India. All the remains were positively identified as belonging to the (now nearly extinct) Mediterranean white subrace (*Race,* John R Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 511).

Blue-Eyed Racial Types in Ancient Sumeria



A religious ceremonial figure of a Sumerian deity from circa 3000 BC, at Tell Asmos, a provincial Sumerian town. The figure is remarkable for it has blue eyes—set with the stone lapis lazuli. This blue stone was greatly prized by the Sumerians, who imported it from its only source, 3,200 kilometers away in northern Afghanistan. Blue eyes are an exclusively white racial trait.



This female head, also from Tell Asmos, has equally blue eyes.

Gudea, the governor of the province of Lagash, circa 2150–2050 BC. Several statues of Gudea have been recovered from Lagash, which is now known as Telloh.

Civilization of Sumer Peaks—After the First Indo-European Gutian Invasion

The kingdom of Sumer and Akkad then fell before the first, and by all accounts ferocious, Indo-European invasion—that of the Celts. Known as Gutians in the Middle East, they fell upon the kingdom of Sumer and Akkad less than one hundred years after it was established, around the year 2200 BC.

The Gutians sacked and destroyed the mixed Semitic/ Mediterranean Sumer and Akkadian civilization and established their own rule and civilization in the region. Soon they had provinces extending to the Mediterranean Sea. It was after the Gutian invasion that Sumerian civilization was to reach some of its greatest heights. These included:

- The very first written law code in the world, which is still existent and dates from 2095 BC;

- The construction of the great Sumerian pyramids, called ziggurats (the most famous of which is the ziggurat at the Sumerian city of Ur, built in 2100 BC) which served as temples and community centers, many of which are still standing today; and

- A complex system of canals, weirs, and water routes by which the agricultural settlements alongside the rivers were kept irrigated.

After a few generations the Gutians became submerged into the wider population of Sumer, whose great cities and wealth had acted as a magnet for all the surrounding Semitic tribes. Increasing numbers of Semitic traders, laborers, and slaves were drawn to Sumer, creating over time a mixture of Old European, Semitic, and Indo-European peoples. This is reflected in their art forms and in the wide range of racial features on display in that region to this day.

Second Indo-European Invasion—the Amorites

The region was invaded once again by another Indo-European group, the Amorites, around the year 2000 BC. The Amorites had originally entered the Middle East from the Balkans and had occupied Palestine, mixing with a certain number of the Jewish tribes they subjugated there.

It is a matter of conjecture as to exactly how much Semitic (therefore darker) physical characteristics they had by the year 2000 BC. Very likely it was not much, as the Egyptians still described them as fair haired and blue-eyed some seven hundred years after they had invaded Sumeria.

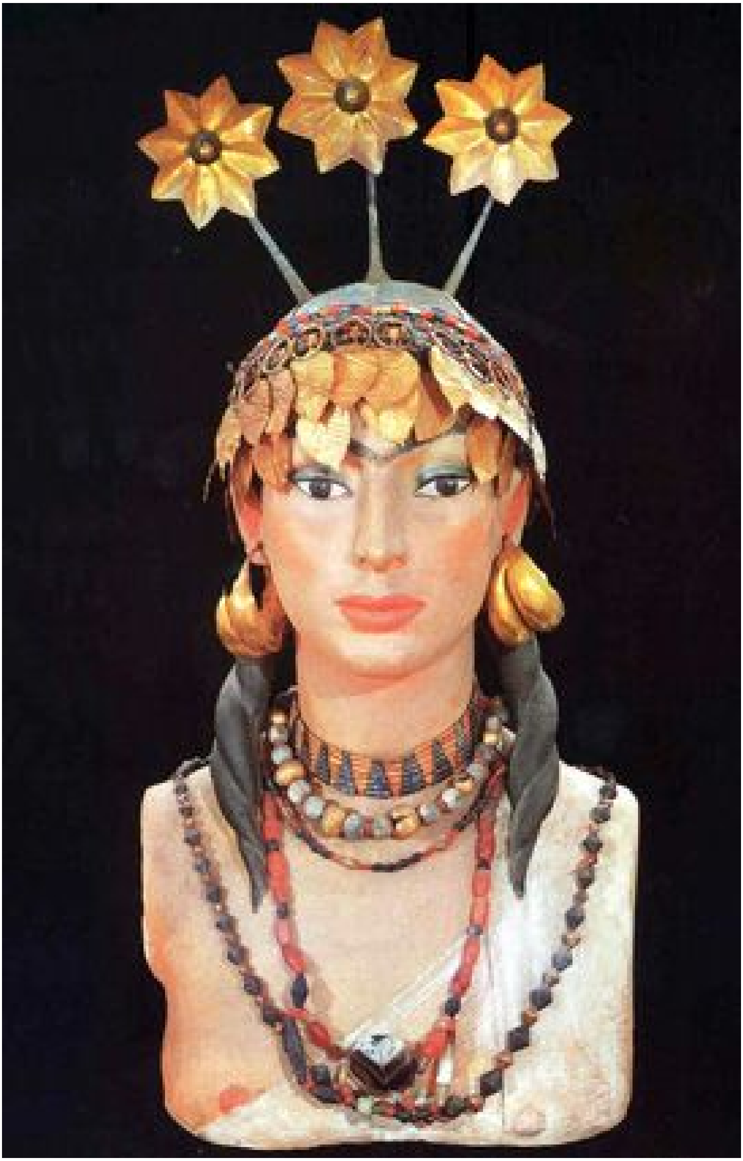
Advanced Sumerian Culture

Sumerian religion had four creating deities: An, god of heaven; Ki, goddess of earth; Enlil, god of air; and Enki, god of water. There were three sky deities: Nanna, god of the moon; Utu, god of the sun; and Inanna, the queen of heaven. Inanna was also the goddess of love, procreation, and war.

The Sumerians had a reasonably advanced mathematical system with tables for multiplication, division, and even square and cube roots. They also possessed knowledge of geometry.

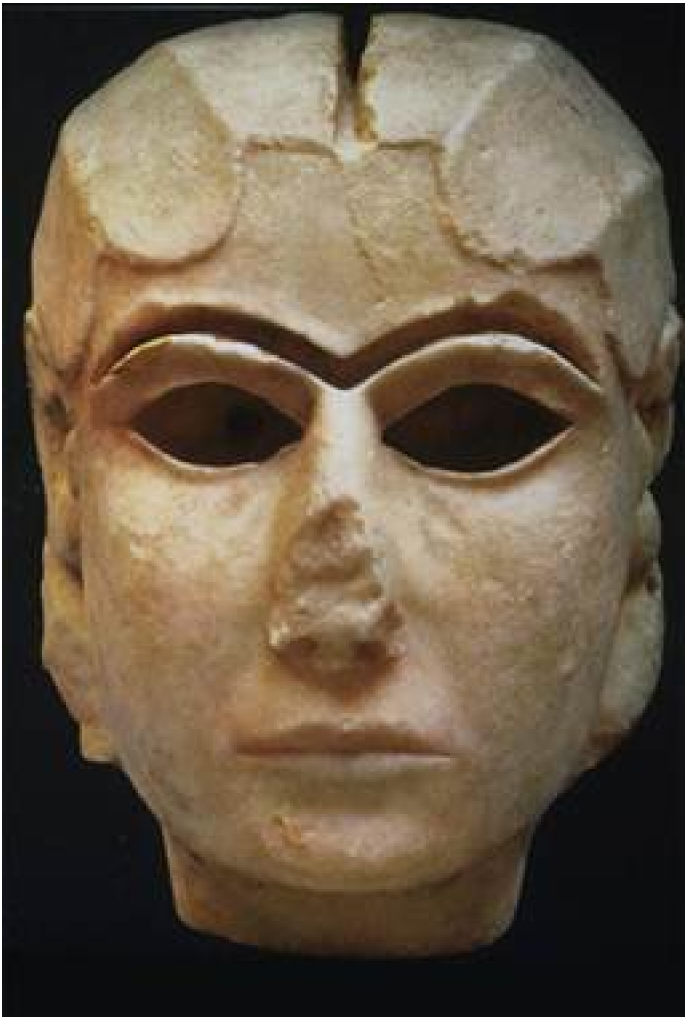
The most famous surviving piece of literature from this period is the *Epic of Gilgamesh,* a fictional story of an old king of the city-state of Erech who sets off in search of immortality. It also includes a chapter dealing with a flood of the earth, and is clearly the origin of the Christian and Jewish Old Testament story of Noah and the flood.

ROYAL TOMB AT UR 2500 BC



The ornate headdress and jewelry of the Sumerian queen Shub-ab, about

2,500 years ago. Discovered along with several skeletons in a tomb complex (below) in the ancient city of Ur. The face of this model has been stylized by a present-day artist.



A sculpture of a white female head from Uruk, Sumeria, circa 3500 BC, Iraq Museum, Baghdad.

Babylon and Hammurabi

The chaos caused by the Amorite invasion lasted until 1763 BC, when a strong and capable king arose and united the inhabitants once again. At this time the city of Babylon was built, and the region became known as Babylonia.

Hammurabi was the first famous king of Babylon who managed to end the chaos and unite all the tribes into a nation. He is probably most remembered for his *Code of Law,* dating from 1750 BC, which is widely, but incorrectly, held to be the first written legal code in the world (it was the second, the first being the code drawn up by the earlier white Sumerians).

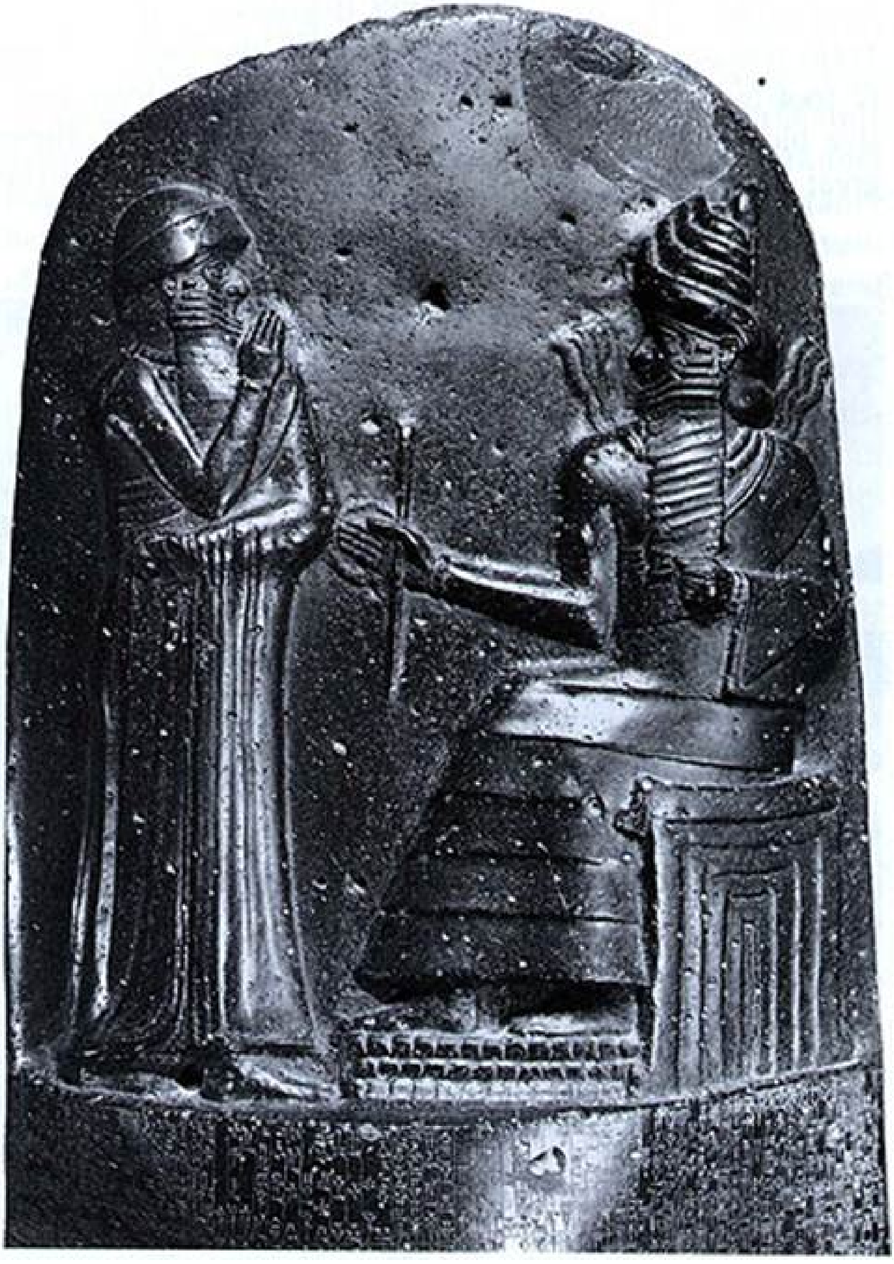
Hammurabi's *Code of Law* was engraved in stone and set up in the great cities of the region, and to this day the code is regarded as the father of all legal codes of the world. An original copy of one of his codes is on display in the Louvre Museum in Paris, France.

While some of the laws seem harsh to the modern mind (death for being unable to repay debt, for example), the wording of the prologue to the *Code of Law* provides a fascinating glimpse into the conflict between the Semitic and Indo-European populations in the region. In the prologue, Hammurabi announces that he has come to *"rule the black-haired people."* He is also referred to as "the white king" and the *"White Potent,"* apparently in reference to his coloring.

The original introduction to the Hammurabi Code states the following:

"Hammurabi, the exalted prince, who feared God, to bring about the rule of righteousness in the land, to destroy the wicked and the evil-doers; so that the strong should not harm the weak; so that I should rule over the black-headed people like Shamash, and enlighten the land, to further the well-being of mankind . . . Hammurabi, the prince, called of Bel am I, making riches and increase . . . who enriched Ur . . . the white king . . . the mighty, who again laid the foundations of Sippara . . . the lord who granted new life to Uruk, who brought plenteous water to its inhabitants . . . the White, Potent, who penetrated the secret cave of the bandits" (Translated by L. W. King, The Eleventh Edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*, 1910).

HAMMURABI'S CODE OF LAW 1750 BC



The Stela of Hammurabi's Code of Law, *1750 BC. The code has been preserved intact on this stela, now in the Louvre Museum in Paris. At the top of the stela is a picture of King Hammurabi before Shamash, the Indo-European sun god, who was also the god of justice. The introduction to the code is directly below the pictures, in which Hammurabi asserts that he has come to rule over the "black-headed people."*

The 282 laws cover offenses against other people and property; disputes *concerning land, trade, fees, professional services, and family. Some of the punishments would be considered harsh by modern standards, but on the whole the laws present a picture of a well ordered society which lived by recognized standards and offered protection to all its citizens.*

Although the *Code of Law* drew a distinct line between Hammurabi himself and the “black-headed” peoples, it also showed that by this time large numbers of the population had become distinctly Semitic.

Nonetheless, building upon the technological and cultural precedents set by the Sumerians, the Babylonians maintained the complex systems of canals, dikes, weirs, and reservoirs constructed by the original white inhabitants. As an indicator of the symbolism Babylon has come to acquire, to this day the black Rastafarian movement talks about all white civilizations as being “Babylon.”

ADVANCED MATHEMATICS IN WHITE BABYLON 1800 BC

A cuneiform tablet dating from 1800 BC showing the outstanding attainments in mathematics of the white Sumerians. As the Sumerians miscegenated themselves out of existence, much of this knowledge was lost. Only a few portions of this culture were kept by the Arabs and later presented as their culture.

Third Indo-European Invasion—Kassites and the Hittites

Babylon was then invaded by a new wave of Indo-Europeans. Called the Kassites and Hittites, the newcomers had conquered most of the region by 1595 BC. Under Kassite rule, which lasted another 450 years, Babylonia once again became a power of considerable importance. The Kassites were the first people to use the chariot as a weapon of war, a skill later taken on by nearly every other nation in the Middle East and Europe.

Semitic Population Increases

By this time the number of Arabic Semites in the region was reaching overwhelming proportions. This balance was tipped even further by a renewed Semitic invasion which started in the ninth century when the Chaldeans managed to occupy the region.

Although Semitic himself, the Chaldean king, Nebuchadnezzar (who became king in 604 BC), achieved fame for carrying off several thousand Jews into captivity in Babylon. The Chaldeans in turn were attacked by the originally Indo-European Assyrians in the north, and the city of Babylon was eventually sacked by the Assyrians around the year 700 BC.

JEWS PAY HOMAGE TO ANCIENT ARYAN ASSYRIANS

An engraving from the palace at Ashurbanipul at Nineveh, Assyria, at the height of the Assyrian Empire. The Jewish king, Jehu (kneeling), pays homage to the Assyrian ruler, Shalmaneser III, in 841 BC.

Syria and the Hittites

An Indo-Aryan tribe called the Hittites established an empire in present-day Turkey around the year 2000 BC, after sweeping south and west from their original homeland in Southern Russia.

In 1700 BC, Hittite armies began pushing south, conquering Syria and the Tigris and Euphrates River Valley, which led to the destruction of the Babylonian empire by 1600 BC. At its height, the

Hittite Empire covered an area stretching from the Black Sea to Syria.

By conquering Syria, the Hittites had taken away an Egyptian colony, and the Egyptian pharaoh, Ramses II, attacked the Hittites from bases in Palestine in 1269 BC. The Hittites defeated Ramses, and a peace treaty followed, in terms of which the Hittites kept possession of Syria.

The Hittites are credited with being the first people to work iron in the region, and are famous for borrowing much of their legal system from the law codes they found when they conquered the Babylonians. They also were responsible for the spread of Mesopotamian culture around Asia Minor (Turkey) and even to the early Greeks.

By 1500 BC, the Hittites had, like many of the Indo-European tribes (and also the Semites), started to mingle with the other peoples in the region, eventually producing the population of today in the Middle East, an indefinable mix of white, Semite, black, and even Mongoloid strains.

So weakened, the Hittite empire came to an end, being overrun by new waves of Indo-Aryan invaders, the Assyrians, from the north. With the collapse of the Hittite Empire in 1200 BC, no one power was strong enough to dominate the Middle East, and a number of independent states flourished for about five hundred years.

One of the Indo-European invasions which contributed to the fall of the Hittites was led by a tribe known as the Philistines. This tribe conquered large parts of the Middle East, including today's Palestine (from which the name of that country originates) and eventually Babylon as well. The Philistines established what was by all accounts a harsh rule over the Semites, which led to the subjugated Jewish tribes developing a fanatical hatred for them.

This dislike of Philistines was repeated in the Bible, which in turn was absorbed into European culture. In this way, the insult of calling someone a "Philistine" became part of everyday English language.

Phoenicians—Foremost Traders of Their Time

A number of other smaller white cultures sprang up in this region, each of them contributing in their own way to the advancement of civilization. Among them were the Phoenicians, who through trade established themselves as a powerful nation in the

Mediterranean. Their home base was in present-day Lebanon, an area which they had occupied by the year 2700 BC. Although originally a Mediterranean people, there is evidence to suggest that during their long stay in Lebanon and Palestine, the Phoenicians absorbed a fair amount of Semitic blood, being ruled by the Hebrews for a significant period of time. However, the Phoenicians were also ruled by the Egyptians and Hittites in turn, and by this time exhibited physical characteristics which represented a mix of Nordic, Mediterranean, and Semitic peoples.

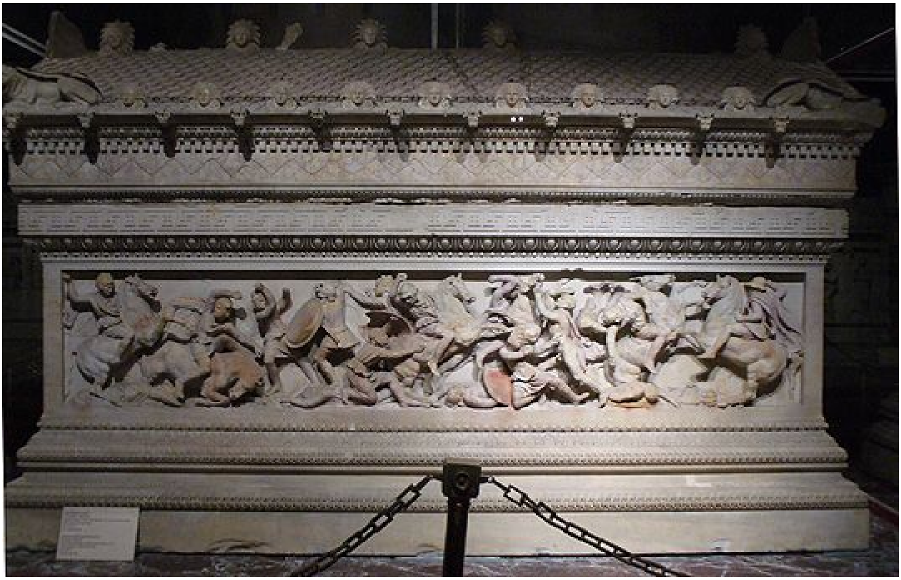
The Phoenicians are credited with the creation of the modern alphabet, although this is a slight exaggeration. The Phoenicians took the semi-alphabet script developed by the Egyptians, adopted it, and used it as a means for their trade.

This basic alphabet was picked up by later Greeks and developed into Greek script. From this Greek script the modern alphabet was developed over a much longer period of time. At best then, the Phoenicians can claim to having been one link in the process of the development of the modern alphabet.

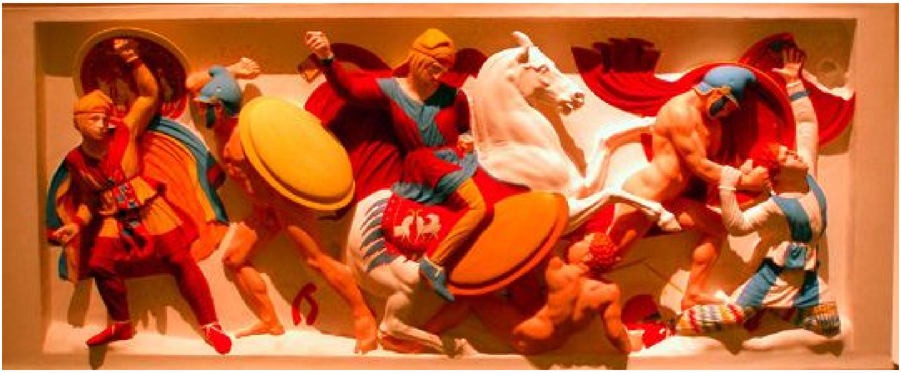
The Phoenicians became famous as traders, establishing settlements all over the Mediterranean basin, including the Italian peninsula and Spain. In 800 BC, the Phoenicians founded the city of Carthage in present-day Tunis, just opposite the bottom of the Italian peninsula. Carthage came to be populated by a large number of different peoples, but retained its essentially Mediterranean/Nordic mix right until the time of its wars with Rome.

The most famous Carthaginian military leader, Hannibal, who was the scourge of Rome for many years, was a very clear Nordic subracial type, who came from a noble family in Carthage. Although Carthage was eventually destroyed by the Romans, it lasted longer than the Phoenician cities in Lebanon which were razed in 750 BC by new Indo-European -led invaders, the Assyrians.

PERSIANS SHOWN AS NORDIC TYPES 310 BC



The famous Alexander Sarcophagus *(also known as the* Sarcophagus of Sidon*), circa 310 BC, is of value because it shows details of Persian soldiers dating from the time of Alexander the Great. They are in color—many Persian warriors are depicted as having light eyes and hair with fair or red mustaches. The sarcophagus reputedly belonged to Alexander the Great, Archaeological Museum, Istanbul. Below: a restored copy of one of the panels on the sarcophagus, following the original color scheme.*



Persia—Original Indo-European Civilization

The leaders of Persia called themselves Aryans. Darius the Great, King of Persia (521–486 BC), in an inscription in Naqsh-e-Rostam (near present-day Shiraz, Iran) proclaims: “I am Darius, the Great King . . . A Persian, son of a Persian, an Aryan, having Aryan lineage . . .”

The Iranian plateau was settled about 1500 BC by Indo-

European tribes, the most important of which were the Medes, who occupied the northwestern portion, and the Persians. The Persians were dominated by the Medes until the accession to the throne by the Persian, Cyrus the Great, in 550 BC. He overthrew the Medean rulers, conquered two neighboring kingdoms (including Babylonia in 539 BC), and established the Persian Empire as the preeminent power of the Middle East.

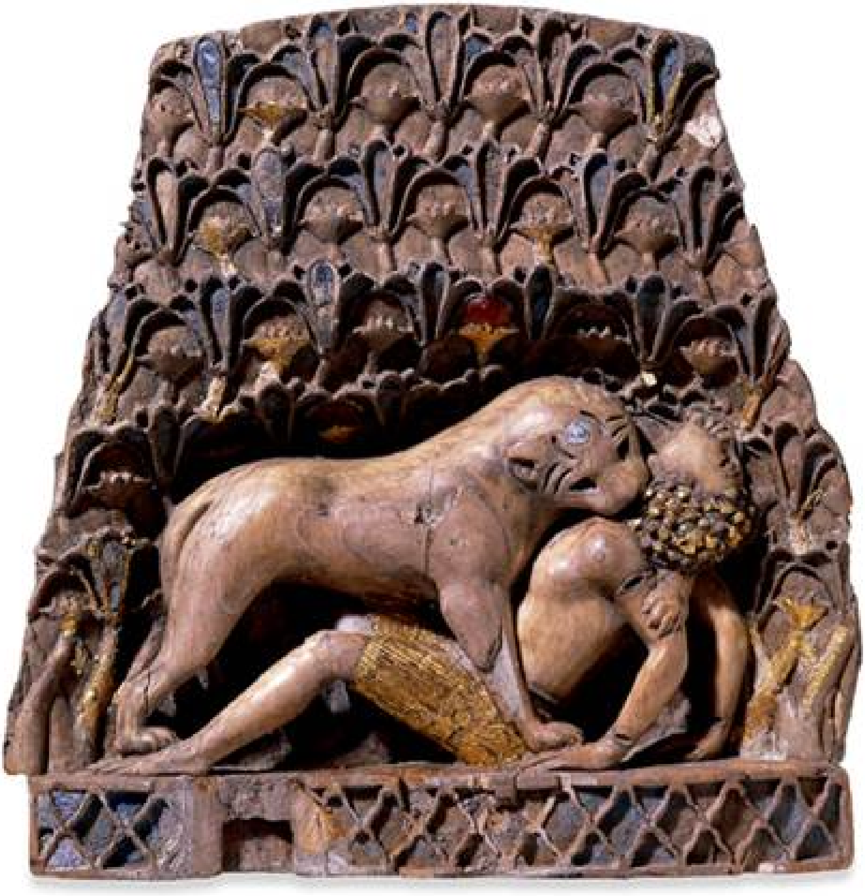
Cyrus tried to be a benevolent ruler. In Sumeria he allowed the dominant religion of the time to approve his assumption of the Babylonian kingship, while in Jerusalem he launched the rebuilding of the Jewish temple. The result of his endeavors was an empire of diverse peoples which ultimately led to Persia's undoing.

Cyrus's son, Cambyses II, extended the Persian realm even further by conquering the (by then thoroughly mixed race) Egyptians in 525 BC. Darius I, who ascended the throne in 521 BC, pushed the Persian borders as far eastward as the Indus River, had a canal constructed from the Nile to the Red Sea, and reorganized the entire empire, earning the title Darius the Great.

From 499 to 493 BC Darius the Great engaged in crushing a revolt of the Ionian Greeks living under Persian rule in Asia, and then launched a punitive campaign against the Greeks for supporting the rebels. His forces were disastrously defeated by the Greeks at the historic Battle of Marathon in 490 BC.

His successor, Xerxes I, also tried to defeat the Greeks, but was in turn defeated in the great sea engagement, the Battle of Salami, in 480 BC, and in two successive land battles the following year. The forays of the Persian king Xerxes I were the last notable attempt at expansion of the Persian Empire. By this time, the Aryan tribes had absorbed Semitic and Asiatic immigrants and had started to unravel as a homogeneous nation.

NUBIAN SLAVE ATTACKED BY LION



A panel recovered from the Assyrian capital city of Nimrud, dating from the reign of King Ashurnasirpal II (883–859 BC). The carving shows an African being attacked by a lioness. The design appears to be Phoenician, even though it was found in the Assyrian city.

Indian Depictions of Persians as Nordics and Mixed-Racial Types

At the time when the Greek writer Xenophon praised what he called "tall beautiful Persian women" (during the sixth century BC), the Persian envoys to India were depicted in still existent paintings in the Ajanta caves outside Bombay as light skinned, blue eyed and blond, or dark-skinned, and blue eyed with fair beards (Ujflvy, *L'Anthropologie,* vol. ii., 1900). This was the first tangible sign that the Indo-European Persians had started mixing with the darker natives of their land.

By the fourth century, this process had spread so dramatically that only a very few of the ruling class could still claim pure Indo-European ancestry. Finally, the already largely mixed-race Persians were overrun by the new white force in the region: the Indo-European Macedonians under Alexander the Great in a series of battles between 334 and 331 BC.

The Persians became known for the efficient admini-stration of their huge empire, but are probably best remembered for their religion called Zoroastrianism. Founded by the prophet Zarathustra, the basic concept of a battle between good and evil supernatural powers was later used by the early Christians and worked into the biblical New Testament (the concepts of heaven and hell are not mentioned at all in the Christian Old Testament).

Assyrian Empire—World's First Postal System

The next large empire in the Middle East was established by the originally Indo-Aryan Assyrians (the word Assyrian is a corruption of the word Aryan) who, from their base in present-day Syria, captured Babylon in 910 BC.

In 722 BC, the Assyrians captured Palestine, and by 671 BC their empire extended as far as the Nile Delta. The Assyrians, like the Hittites, had mastered the art of ironworking and iron weapons (a skill which had come down from the north and had spread with the Indo-European invasions). As such they had a massive advantage over their opponents.

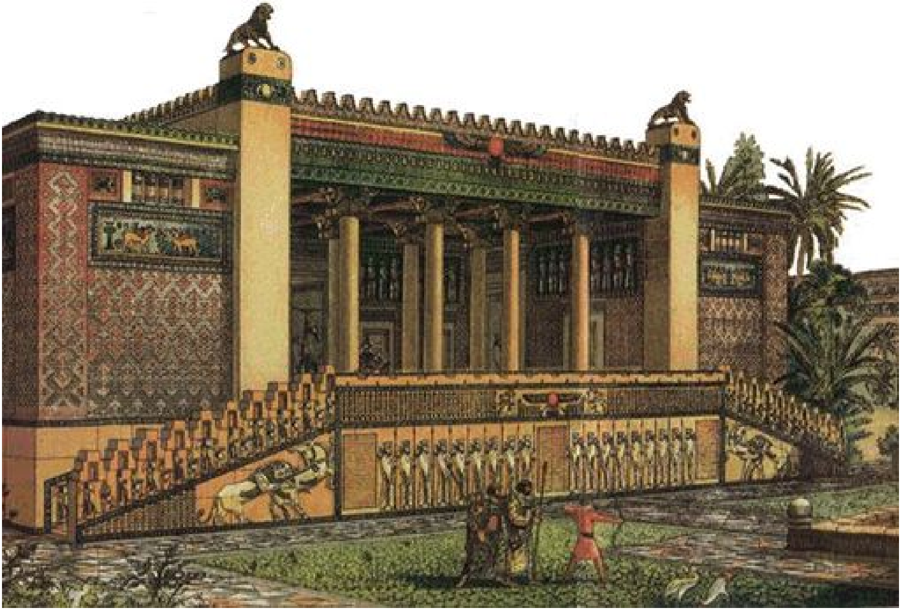
The Assyrian king of this time, Ashurbanipul, was a cultured man and reputedly had a library—probably mostly looted from the Sumerians and Babylonians—of some twenty-two thousand clay tablets at the capital city of Khorsabad.

The Assyrian empire was the first to build a network of national roads and a postal service. They also had the first coherent administrative system which served as a role model for many later civilizations. By the middle of the seventh century BC, the Assyrian empire was on the decline, weakened by a steady dissolution of their original racial homogeneity through increasing mixing with the ever growing number of Semites in the region. Eventually a combination of neighboring Indo-European tribes (Persians, Medeans, and Scythians) overthrew the Assyrians, and in 612 BC the capital, Nineveh, was destroyed.

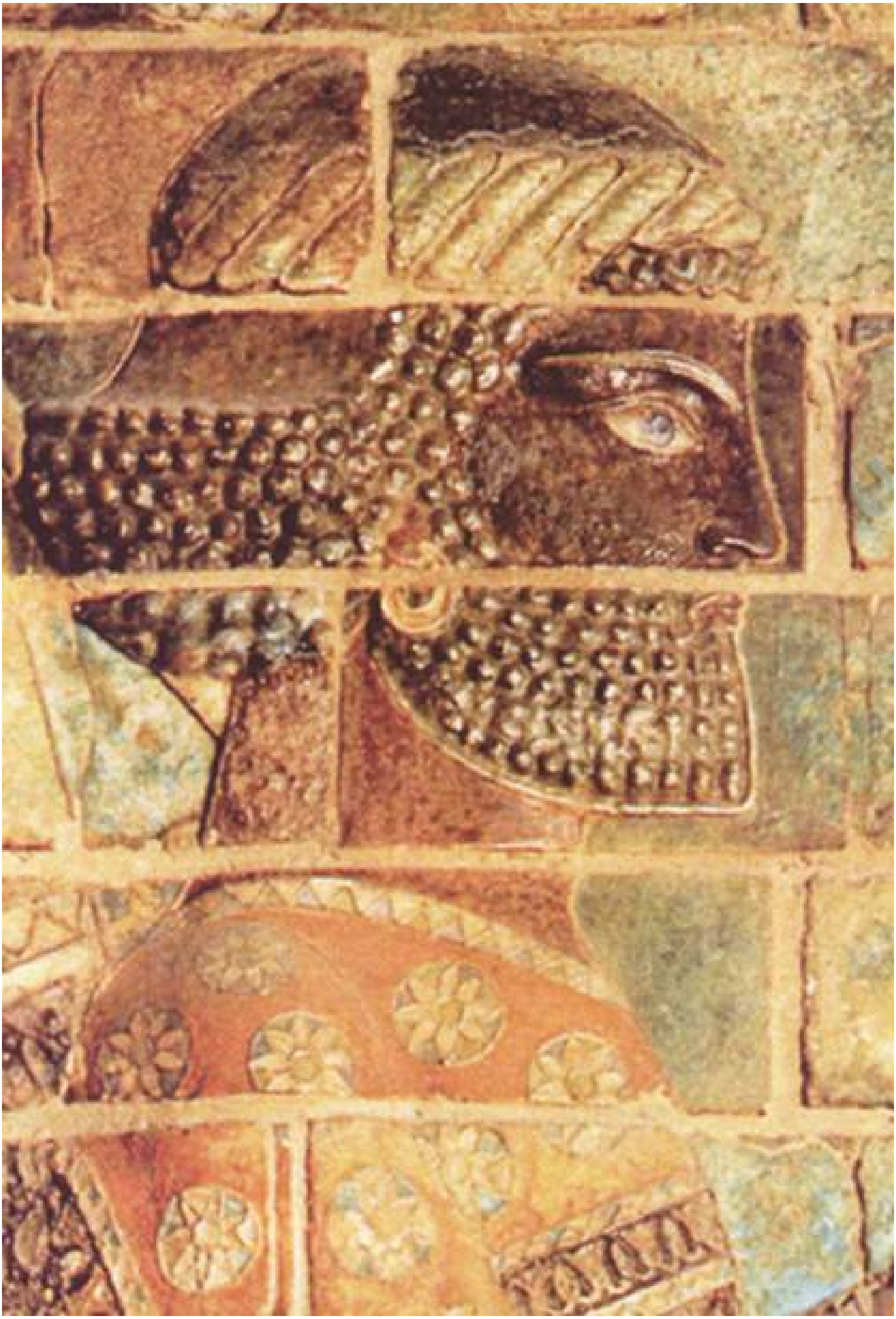
The downfall of the Assyrians left four small powers in the

Middle East. These were the Medeans, the Persians, the Lydians, and the Chaldeans. All but the last of these were still majority white in racial makeup, although large—and soon to be overwhelming—numbers of Semites, Arabics, and even Mongoloids had been integrated into their societies.

The Great Palace at Persepolis, Persia Circa 500 BC



The great ceremonial city of Persepolis, founded by Darius I (522–486 BC), was a magnificent center which served as capital of the great Persian Empire until it was overrun by the numerically superior mixed races of the Middle East. Today only the ruins of this once great city stand witness to the passing of yet another white tribe. Above is a reconstruction of what the great hall looked like in its glory. A double staircase, decorated with reliefs, led to the magnificent audience hall where the Persian emperors received foreign envoys and visiting dignitaries. Today it is a ruin, the original Persians gone. Below, the ruins of the city as they can be seen today.



An archer of the Persian army of Darius is portrayed on enameled tiles found in the remains of the great city of Susa. The soldier is depicted with blue eyes. Currently on display at the Louvre Museum, Paris. Originally composed of Old European types mixed with Nordic Indo-European invaders, the Persians were slowly absorbed into the increasing mass of mixed-race inhabitants of the Middle East until only a few original white *racial types remained in the region. This is evident in the physiognomy of the present-day population of that country. The very name Iran (Persia's new name) was derived from the word Aryan.*

The Medeans and Scythians

The people known as the Medes had already established an informal empire just to the east of the Assyrians, south of the Caspian Sea, in present-day Iran. The Medeans were also noteworthy for their help in the destruction of the Assyrian Empire and were in turn overrun by their former colony, Persia, in 550 BC.

Like so many Indo-European cultures of the region at that time, they not only had to contend with the local white/Semitic mixed population, who continually agitated against them, but also with other Indo-European invaders who continually penetrated the region from the north.

The most noted of these new invaders were the Nordic Scythians, who were the first to use mounted cavalry in battle.

The Scythians overran what is today Palestine in the seventh century BC, and some of their fair-haired and light-eyed descendants can still be seen among the Druses of Lebanon.

To add to all this confusion, beginning about 1400 BC, a new wave of migrations changed the face of practically all of western Asia. From the Balkan Peninsula came a wave of different Indo-European tribes, who became known as the Sea Peoples.

They overran the Hittite Empire in Turkey and launched attacks on Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. Yet another Indo-European people called Mushki, who settled in eastern Anatolia, became a constant threat to Assyria in the northwest.

Whites Submerged Circa 250 BC

The fall of the Persian Empire marked the end of the great majority white civilizations in the Middle East. By this time, all of the settlements had lost whatever racial homogeneity they once had, and were to larger or smaller degrees societies comprised of a plethora of mixed races.

They produced the wide and varied physiognomy visible to this day in the region—a mix of Semitic and original white stock. From the time of the fall of the Persian Empire, the Middle East ceased to be an area which was majority occupied by peoples who could claim to be white in the original racial sense of the word. Nonetheless, to this day there remain significant Indo-European “genetic throwbacks” among the Persians, today called the Iranians. These can also be found among present-day Indians, Afghanis, Iraqis, Syrians, Lebanese, and Palestinians.

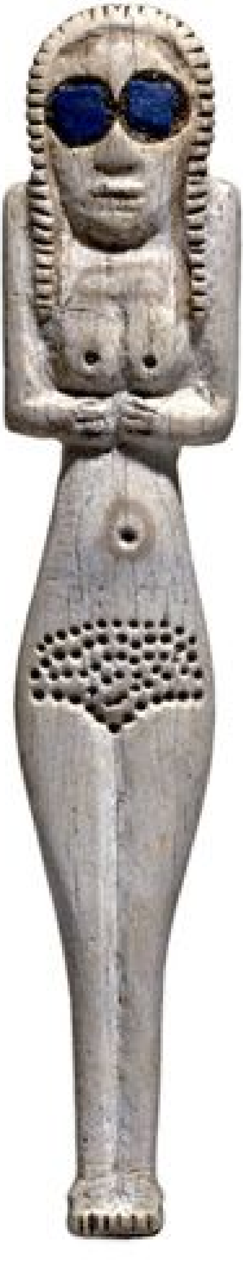
Persia was overrun by the Arabic Muslims in 651 AD, and through the integration which followed, the last major traces of the pure Indo-European peoples in the Middle East were diluted. Indeed, much of what later became known as Muslim culture, architecture, writing, and other skills, was taken from the Persians into the Semitic-speaking world.

CHAPTER 8: Nordic Desert Empire—Ancient Egypt

Although situated in North Africa, Egypt had been settled by three white groups prior to 3500 BC, namely Old European Mediterranean types, Proto-Nordics, and Nordic Indo-Europeans, with the latter group penetrating the territory as part of the great wave of Indo-European invasions which took place from 5600 BC onward.

Living in typical Neolithic settlements, this period of history is called the pre-dynastic period and is formally considered to have come to an end in 3100 BC.

BONE FIGURE OF A WOMAN WITH BLUE EYES, PRE-DYNASTIC PERIOD



A bone figure of a woman with blue eyes, made from inset lapus lazuli, from Upper Egypt, the Early Predynastic period, Naqada I, 4000-3600 B.C. The ancient Egyptians often used lapus lazuli to illustrate eye-color in their artworks and depictions.

Ginger *and Other Inhabitants of Early Egypt*

Racially speaking, the inhabitants of Egypt at this period in time were divided into three groups. Skeletal evidence from grave sites shows that the original white Mediterraneans and Proto-Nordics were a majority in the area.

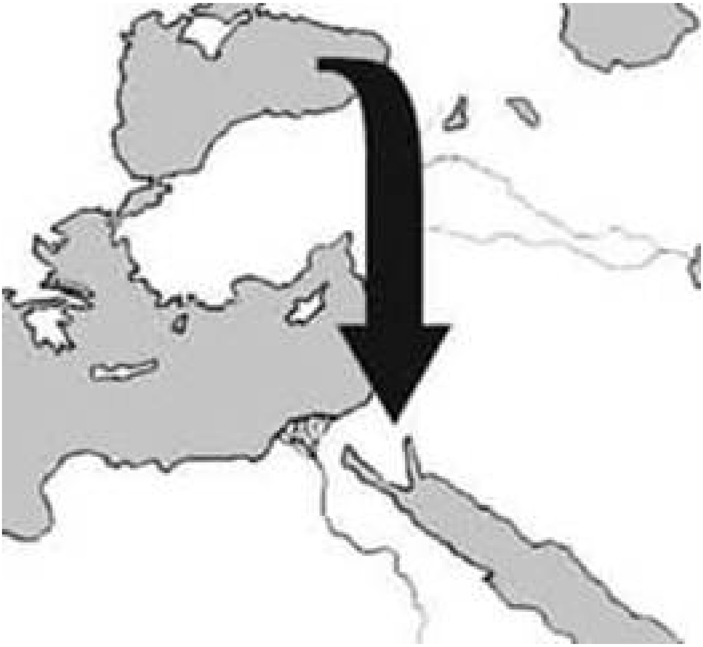
A well preserved body found in a sand grave in Egypt dating from approximately 3300 BC, on display in the British Museum in London, was nicknamed *Ginger* because of his red hair—a racial trait only found in persons of European ancestry.

GINGER–NORDIC EGYPTIAN CIRCA 3300 BC

A well preserved body from the pre-dynastic period in Egypt, circa 3300 BC. Buried in a sand grave, the natural dryness of the surroundings kept the body preserved. His red hair has been so well preserved that he has been given the nick-name Ginger *at the British Museum where he is kept on public display. Alongside: A close-up of* Ginger's *head, showing the hair coloring.*

However, diggings also reveal a significant minority of Semitic (Arabic) peoples were living in the Nile Delta valley alongside the whites, and in the very far south (in what later became southern Egypt and the Sudan) lived a large number of blacks, known as Nubians. The existence of these two nonwhite groups within Egypt was to have a major impact on the history of that civilization. Their presence also destroys the "environmental" theory of the origin of civilizations, because all three groups shared the same environment, yet produced very different levels of achievement.

Origin of Pre-Dynastic Egyptians circa 5600 BC

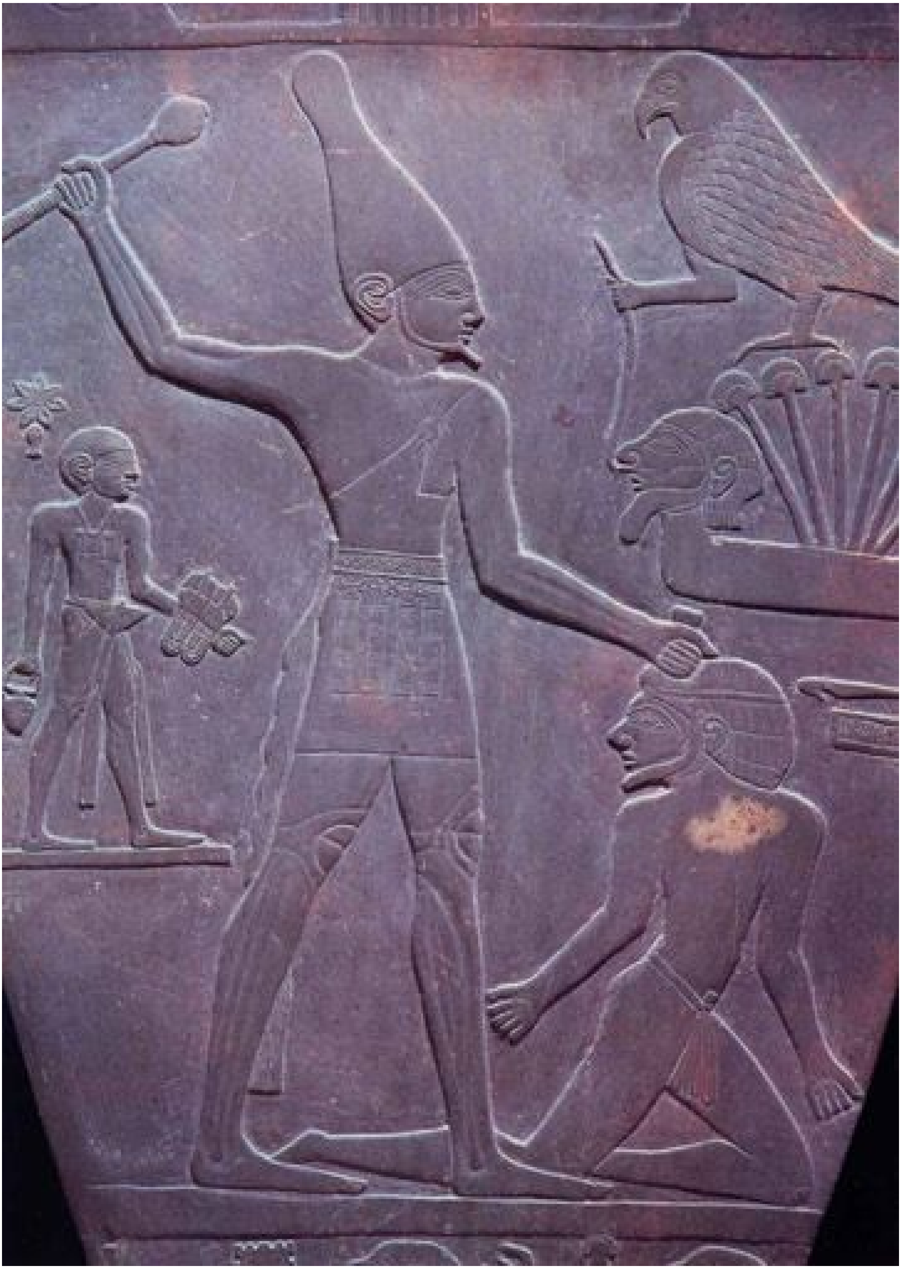


Entering Egypt at the time of the great Indo-European migrations from the Black Sea basin circa 5600 BC, Nordic peoples such as Ginger *(see previous illustration) settled the Nile River Valley and laid the basis for what was, by 3000 BC, to become the first Egyptian Dynasty.*

The Old Kingdom 3100–2270 BC

In terms of contemporary time frames, the Egyptian state first formally emerged shortly after the establishment of the civilization between the Tigris and Euphrates River Valley. By the year 3100 BC, a measure of unity had started to take hold in Egypt, coalescing into northern and southern kingdoms. Around that year, a dynamic leader named Menes united these northern and southern kingdoms and established a capital city at Memphis on the Nile River. The year 3100 BC therefore marks the start of the Dynastic Period, called the Old Kingdom by historians.

FIRST EGYPTIAN KING STRIKES DOWN SEMITIC ENEMY



The earliest representation of First Dynasty life is to be found on the "Palette of Narmer" which dates from around 3000 BC. The image on the palette is thought to be that of Menes, the first great white king of Egypt, who united Lower and Upper Egypt. Menes, also known as Narmer, is shown striking the head of an enemy who has clear Semitic features. In addition, the bird on the rop right holds another Semite by the nose.

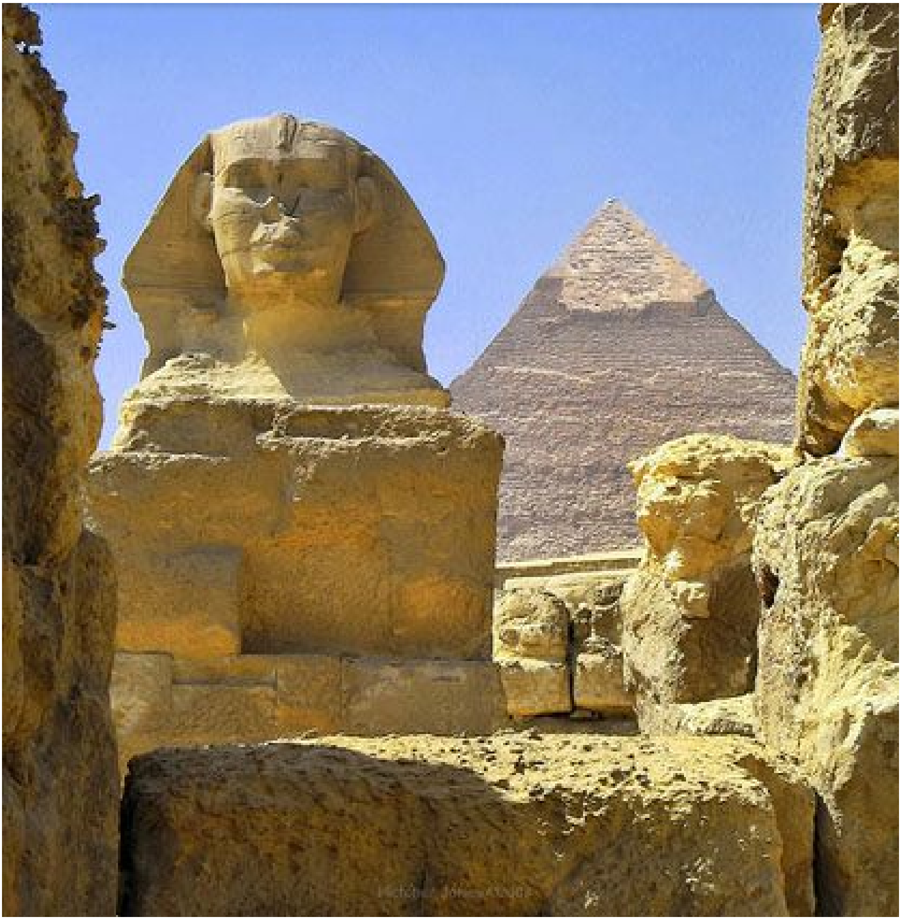
Menes developed the idea of using channels to divert the waters of the Nile to irrigate land—and this irrigation system exists along the Nile River to this day. Menes was such a gifted and charismatic leader that he was deified by later Egyptians, and a cult developed which pictured him as a direct descendant of the gods, a tradition which then spread to other pharaohs. It is very likely that the word "man" originated with Menes.

During his reign construction was started on the greatest city of ancient Egypt, Memphis, which became the capital of this first kingdom. Also about this time, Egyptian pictograph writing appeared, probably inspired by the Sumerian script. The Old Kingdom traded extensively with surrounding lands, obtaining wood from Lebanon and copper from mines in the Sinai Peninsula.

IMHOTEP'S FIRST GREAT PYRAMID AND NECROPOLIS—SAQARA 2600 BC

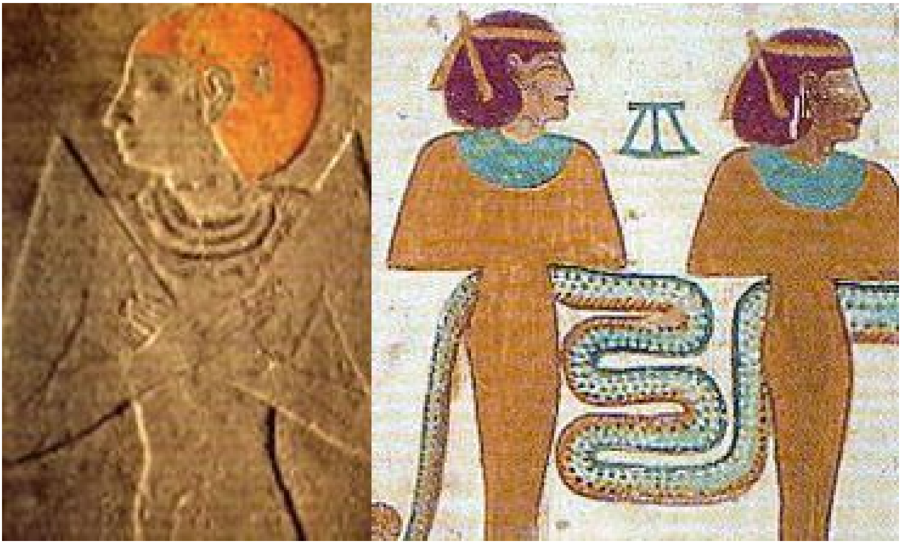
The first great pyramid of Egypt, the step pyramid of Saqara, circa 2600 BC, with its equally impressive mortuary center in the foreground. The architect, Imhotep, was later made into a deity out of respect for this technological achievement.

Enduring Monuments to Egypt's Greatness



Unequaled for sheer scale and magnificence, the Great Pyramids of Giza stand as towering monuments to the architects and engineers who oversaw their creation. Using over six million individual blocks in the greatest pyramid, that of Cheops, the masons used a limestone casing which slotted together with perfect symmetry and precision, as illustrated in the picture above right.

It was also during this Old Kingdom period that the great pyramids and Sphinx at Giza were built, starting around the year 2500 BC. The project was launched by Pharaoh Cheops (also known as Khufu), who, because of the pyramids, remains one of the most famous pharaohs of this First Kingdom. His daughter, Queen Hetop-Heres II, of the Fourth Dynasty, is shown in a colored bas relief in a tomb to have been a distinct blonde. Her hair is painted a bright yellow stippled with little red horizontal lines, and her skin is white (*The Races of Europe,* Carleton Stevens Coon, New York City, Macmillan. 1939, p.98).



Queen Hetop-Heres II, of the Fourth Dynasty, the daughter of Cheops, the builder of the great pyramid, is shown in the colored bas reliefs of her tomb to have been a distinct blonde. Her hair is painted a bright yellow stippled with little red horizontal lines, and her skin is white. (The Races of Europe, ***Carleton Stevens Coon, New York City, Macmillan. 1939, p.98). Right: Red-haired goddesses, from the tomb of Pharaoh Merneptah, 1213—1204 BC. (Alberto Siliotti, Guide to the Valley of the Kings, London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson, 1996, p. 59).***

The Cheops pyramids are not the oldest Egyptian pyramids. The step pyramid at Memphis predates them by at least a century, and was designed by a court architect, Imhotep. This great structure, nearly 216 feet (66 meters) high, must have seemed overwhelming to ordinary Egyptians at the time, who at best lived in two story mud brick houses, and it is no surprise that the architect was eventually deified.

The Giza Sphinx and Pyramids 2500 BC

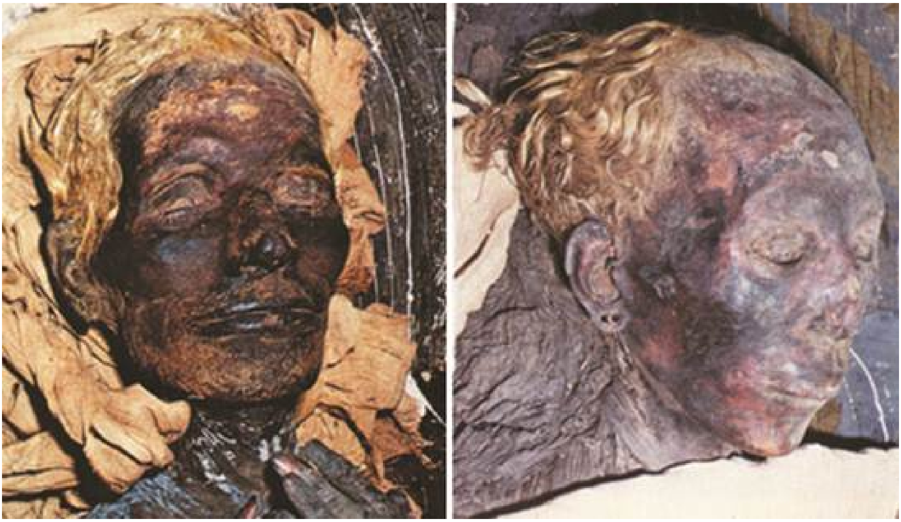
The Cheops pyramids are impressive today and by the standards of the time they must have appeared to be a superhuman achievement. Twenty years in the building, these pyramids used between five and six million tons of stone, some blocks being moved over five hundred miles, with almost perfect masonry work on site so that the alignment variance of the stones even today is less than 1 percent. The greatest pyramid reaches 479 feet (146 meters)—higher than St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome (which remains the biggest Christian cathedral in the world).

Egyptian Religion Provides Insight into Race

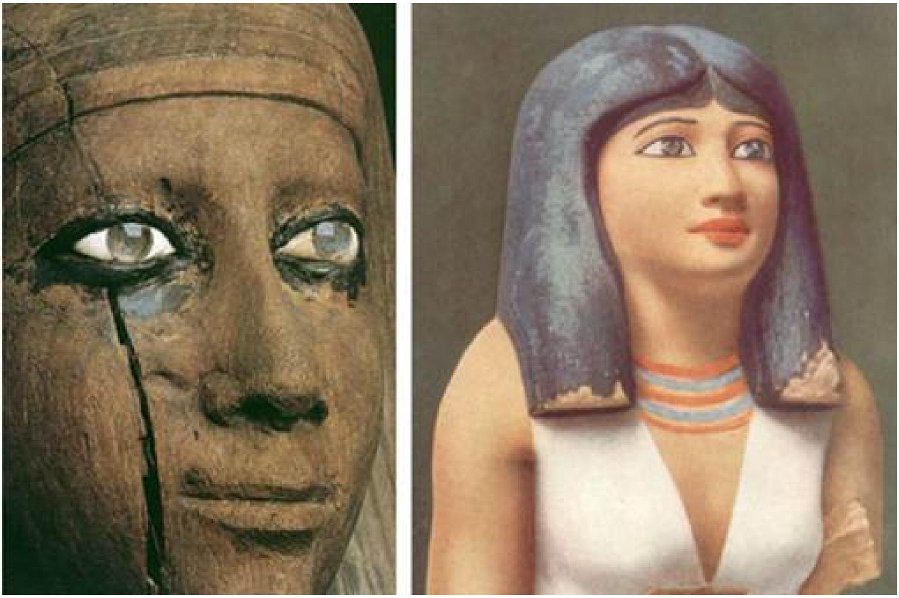
Charms and magical prayers were collected into a book known as *The Egyptian Book of the Dead.* Many Egyptians ensured that these books were put into their tombs to assist in a successful resurrection. The focus of Egyptian religion was primarily concerned with the achievement of life after death. The practice of mummification was started on the basis of a myth that the god of the Nile River, Osiris, had been murdered by his evil brother, Seth.

According to the myth, Seth cut Osiris's body into pieces. These pieces were gathered together by Osiris's grieving widow Isis, and reassembled, thus resurrecting him. The Nile god then became the first mummy, and every mummified Egyptian became a second Osiris. This resurrection theme was to become dominant in other religions, and adopted by Christianity. Thus the tradition of mummification started: a jump-start to everlasting life in the hereafter. The process of mummification has also provided present-day historians with a spectacular and unique chance to see the physical characteristics of Egyptians exactly as they were.

The evidence is overwhelming that these first Egyptian societies were white—a Proto-Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mixture. The leadership elite, in particular the pharaohs themselves, were mostly Nordic. The mummified remains of numerous pharaohs and common folk from this first great Egyptian civilization have unmistakable white features. For example, the well preserved body of Pharaoh Ramses II has red hair, and there are large numbers of mummies whose blond hair has been extraordinarily well preserved through the centuries. This tradition of Nordic pharaohs was to last almost till the second part of the Third Kingdom, circa 1050 BC, by which time racial demographic shifts had taken place in Egyptian society in favor of nonwhite groups.



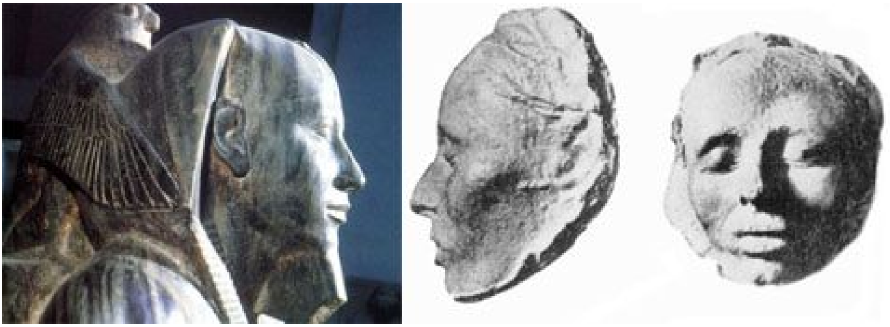
Nordic Nobility in ancient Egypt: above left, Yuya, Egyptian nobleman from 1400 BC, father of Tiy, the wife of Pharaoh Amenhotep III. Yuya's blond hair and Nordic facial structure have been well preserved by the embalming process; Alongside, his equally blond haired wife, Thuya, great grandmother of Tutankhamen.



Left: An original wooden statue of the Egyptian King Hor (circa 1783—1633 1633 BC), on display at the Cairo Museum, Egypt. The eyes of the statue, inlaid with quartz or lapus lazuli, shine up with either blue or gray eyes, depending upon the lighting. Right: A lapus lazuli blue-eyed statue of an Egyptian noble lady from the fourth

dynasty, around 2600 BC.

All this is not to say that no other races lived in the area. There were a significant number of Semitic Arabic racial types, who had settled there from their homeland in the Arabian Peninsula. These nonwhite peoples were, however, for many years—centuries even—excluded from mainstream Egyptian society because of their race. They were most often used as laborers, along with blacks captured by the Egyptians in warring expeditions even further south into present-day Sudan. Their numbers steadily increased during their stay in Egypt, and they became a significant demographic element in that land.



Left: Head of Khafre, dating from the 4th Dynasty (2575 - 2467 BC). Flinders Petrie Collection, University College, London. Right: Death mask of King Tety, dating from the 6th Dynasty, 2323—2152 BC. Cairo Museum.

Left: Pharaoh Shepsekaf, last king of the 4th Dynasty (2575 - 2467 BC). Right, a statue of Pharaoh Menkaure and his consort, Khamerernebti II, dating from the 4th Dynasty, 2575—2467 BC.

Egyptian Achievements—Created 365 Day Calendar

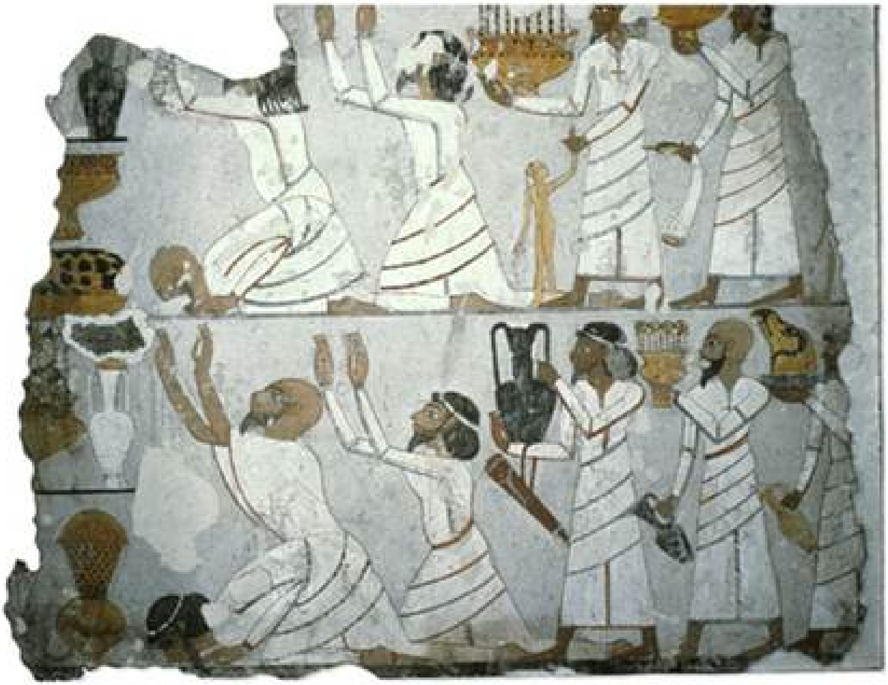
Aside from the stupendous achievement of building the pyramids, the white civilization of Egypt is credited with many other advances, some of which benefit civilization to this day. The Egyptians were the first to divide the solar year into 365 and one quarter days based on a twelve month cycle.

The Egyptians also became famous for their medical skills, although the difference between magic and science does not appear to have been fully made. Evidence exists of advanced surgery having been carried out as far back as the First Kingdom, and many techniques and herbal remedies were taken over by the classical Greeks and survived right into medieval European times. In contrast to Mesopotamian writing, Egyptian writing (hieroglyphics, meaning "sacred signs") remained pictorial in content throughout the span of this civilization. Egyptian writing was only deciphered in 1822 after the discovery of the Rosetta Stone.

The Middle or Second Kingdom 2060–1785 BC

The period 2270–2060 BC was marked by great instability in Egypt, when the unity of the country fell to pieces. Only in the year 2060 BC was Egypt again politically united. It managed to attain a part of its Old Kingdom splendor, although it never built anything the size of the Great Pyramids of Giza again.

This period of political unity did not last longer than seventy years, and around the year 1785 BC, a divided Egypt was conquered by a Semitic tribe known as the Hyksos. They had little trouble subjecting the Egyptians, aided through the use of iron weapons and the horse and chariot, neither of which the Egyptians had seen before. The Hyksos had been attacked with this weapon by the Indo-European tribes who had developed the chariot on their route south from their respective homelands in the north.



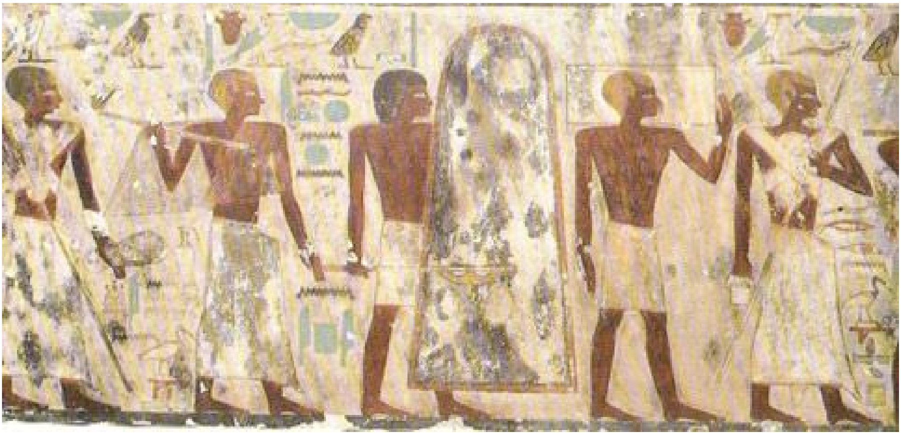
Semites, clearly identified as racially foreign, present tributes to the Egyptian pharaoh. A painted scene from the tomb of Sobkhotep at Thebes.

It took some two hundred years for the Egyptians to rebuild their strength and the Hyksos were finally expelled in 1580 BC—after the Egyptians had mastered the new weapon of horse and chariot and turned it against them. The Egyptian records show that the Minoans from Crete had helped fight the Semitic Hyksos invaders—further evidence of the close links between the Egyptians and the Old European civilization. The result of two hundred years of Hyksos rule had left its mark upon the Egyptian population. As reflected in its art, the white population after this time began to show increasing signs of nonwhite admixture. This white/Semitic mix came to characterize virtually the entire Middle East.

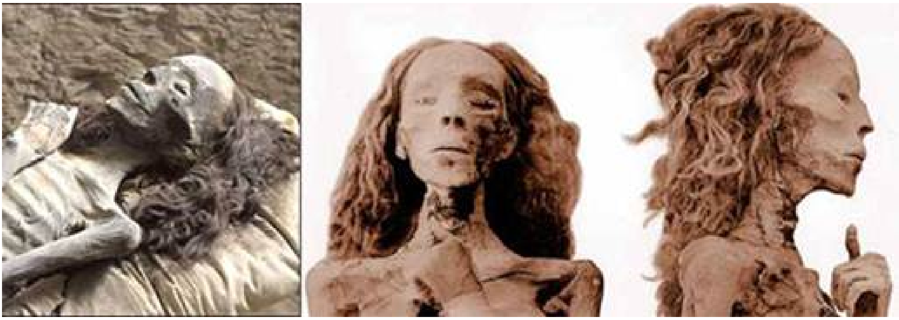
However, an important element of the Egyptian population was by this stage showing clear nonwhite ancestry. It was with the Third Kingdom and its expansion into areas heavily populated by Nubians (blacks from Sudan) and Ethiopia (occupied by masses of Arab/Semitic peoples) that large numbers of these nonwhites came to be prominent in Egyptian society, either as slaves or freemen.

Left: An original statue of Pharaoh Amenemhet III, 1841—1797 BC, showing clear white racial characteristics. Right: A statue of Thutmoses III 18th Dynasty, 1539—1295 BC, Cairo Museum.

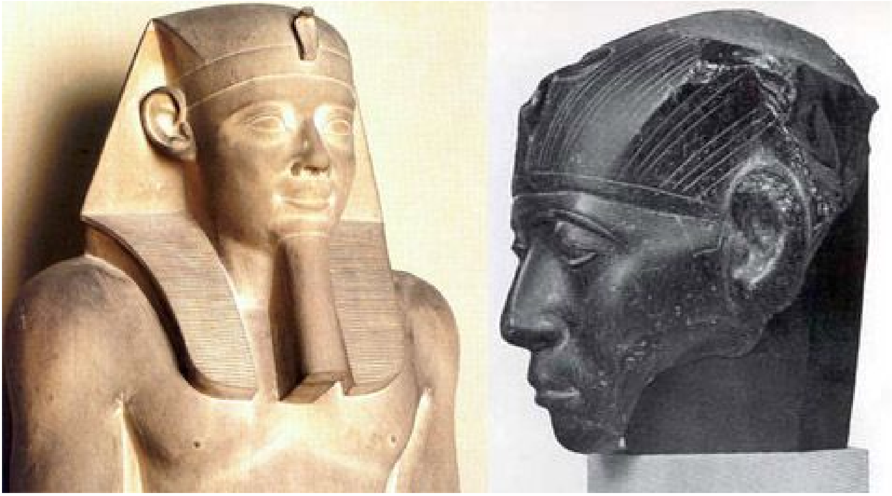
Left: This coffin, dating from the 12th Dynasty (1976—1947 BC) belongs to a nobleman named Khui, who was wealthy enough to have a decorated casket, something which only the upper classes could afford. Note his blond hair coloring. Right: A stela comes from Abydos, and dates from the Middle Kingdom (circa 2040—1640 BC). The writing identifies the man for who the stela was made as one Dedusobek. (Egyptian Treasures from the Egyptian Museum in Cairo ***by Mathaf Al-Misri, Araldo De Luca, Photographer, Francesco Tiradritti Editor, Harry N Abrams; ISBN: 0810932768; September 1999).***



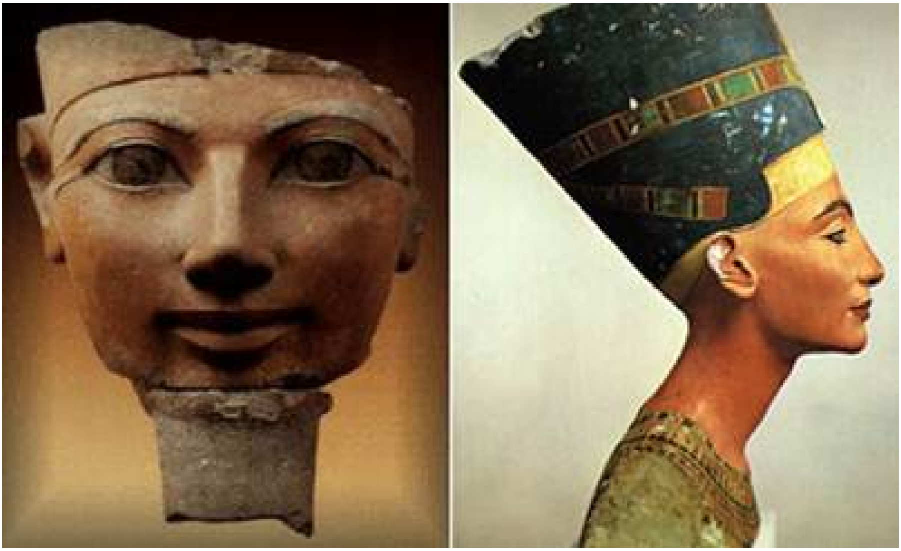
Blond-haired attendants, from the tomb of Djehutihotpe, Deir el-Bersha, Middle Kingdom Period. (T. G. H. James, Ancient Egypt: The Land and its Legacy, ***London: British Museum Publications, 1988, p. 90).***



Two pictures of a female mummy, on the left, taken in 2003, and on the right, taken in 1907. The mummy was one of three discovered in 1898 in a secret chamber of tomb KV35 by French archaeologist Victor Loret. The mummy, known as the "elder lady" has been identified either as Queen Hatshepsut, wife of Pharaoh Thutmosis II, who ruled Egypt after Thutmosis' death in 1520 BC; or as Queen Tiye. The older picture shows the mummy's hair to be a lot lighter than the 2003 picture.



The mummy of Pharaoh Seti I is the most lifelike of the great pharaohs of Egypt, and a tribute to the embalmer's art. His features remain crystal clear and because of the excellent preservation process, Seti's mummy can easily be compared with a color relief of his face made in his lifetime at the Temple at Abydos. Seti was the son of the great Ramses I, and became pharaoh in 1320 BC. He reoccupied lands in Syria lost to earlier Syrian invasions, conquered Palestine and conducted campaigns against the Semitic Libyans and the Indo-European Hittites.



Left: Hatshepsut, from Deir el Bahari, 18th Dynasty, circa 1485 BC, Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York. Right: A bust of Queen Nefertiti, circa 1350 BC, Egyptian Museum, Berlin.

Left: A statue of Mer-en-Ptah (Siptah), 19th Dynasty, (1295—1186 BC), Cairo Museum. Right: A statue of Rameses II, also of the 19th Dynasty, British Museum, London.

Last Surge of Power—The New Kingdom (The Third Kingdom) 1580–1085 BC

The third (and last) great surge in Egyptian power came with the expulsions of the Semitic Hyksos. Adopting the horse and chariot, energetic and expansionist pharaohs set about consolidating Egypt and establishing an empire. Syria, Phoenicia, Palestine, Nubia, and northern Sudan (the latter with large black populations) were all conquered and incorporated into the Egyptian Empire. The greatest expansionist king was Thutmose III (circa 1501–1447 BC). A series of tall pointed stone columns (called obelisks) were built to commemorate his various campaigns. Only four of the obelisks survived the strife of Egypt’s history, and today they stand in Istanbul, Rome, London, and New York, silent reminders of the greatness of a bygone age.

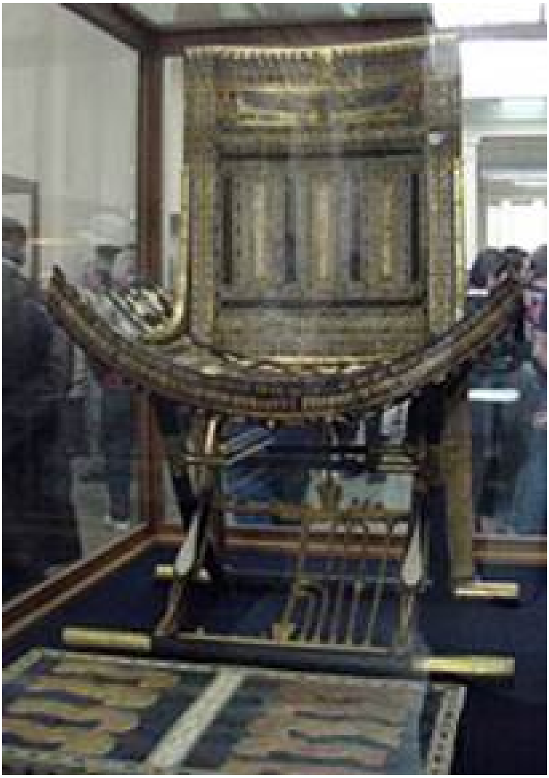
The greatest pharaoh of this time was Amenhotep III (1411–1375 BC) who developed Thebes into the most magnificent city of the age. Amenhotep built many other huge structures, including the temple of Luxor at the city of Thebes.

Tutankhamun—Stood on His Black and Semitic Enemies 1350 BC

Tutankhamun, the boy king (who died when he was eighteen), reigned around 1350 BC. Although he died too young to become a pharaoh of any great significance in his own time, he gained fame when his tomb was discovered intact in 1924 (one of the few tombs to be found in such a good state—most had been the subject of grave robbers centuries before). The gold burial mask of Tutankhamun has come to symbolize ancient Egypt.

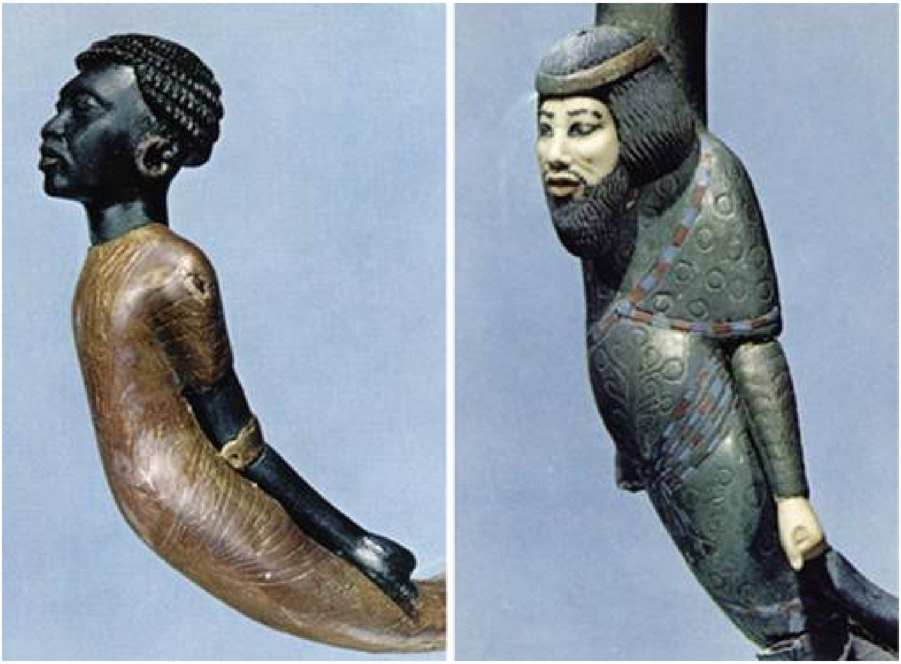
However, the real significance of the artifacts in the tomb has been largely ignored: among Tutankhamun's possessions were some of the most graphic racial images in Egyptology.

One of Tutankhamun's thrones, the ecclesiastical chair, has on its footrest the "Nine Bows"—the Egyptian name for the traditional enemies of Egypt. The finely crafted figures on the footrest are of nine blacks and Semites tied together in chains. They were positioned on the footrest so that when the pharaoh sat on his throne, his enemies would be under his feet.



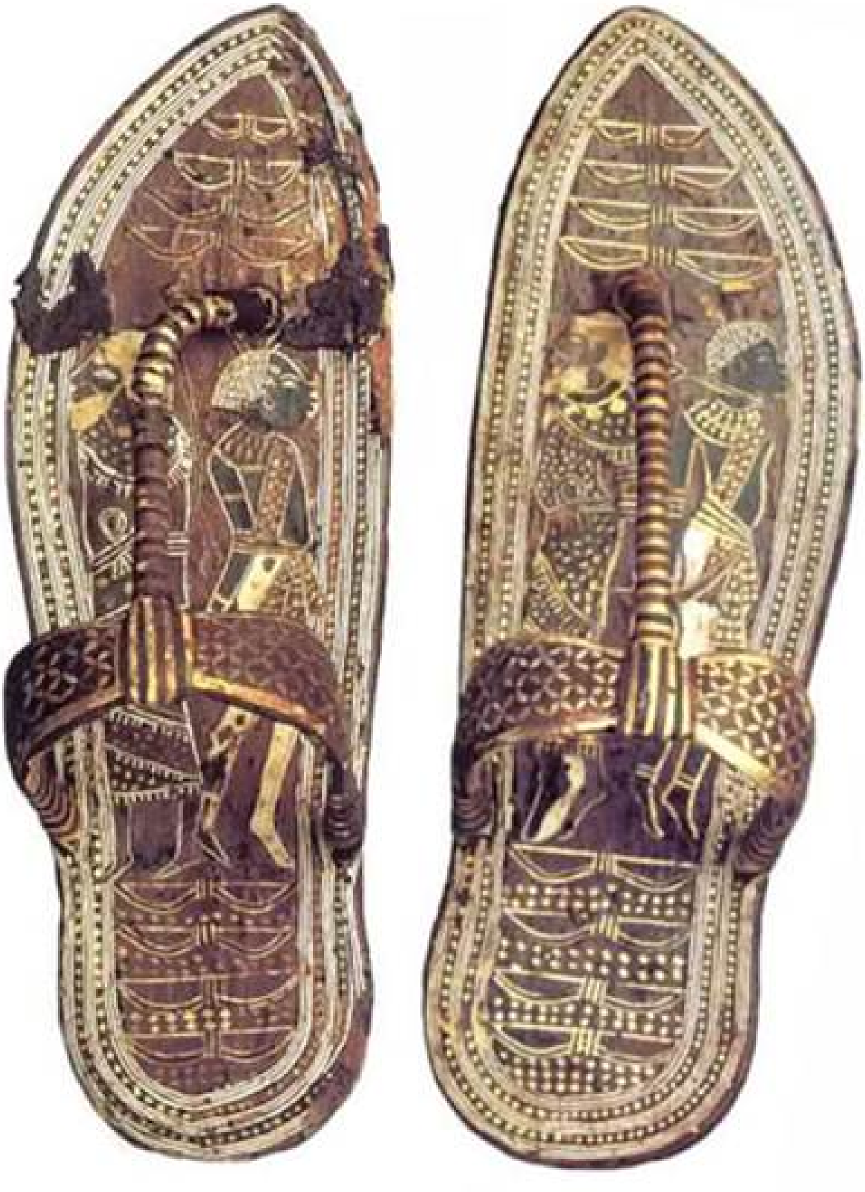
Racial imagery from Tutankhamen's tomb: Above, the ecclesiastical throne, shown assembled, and a full view of the footrest below. Bound Semitic and black prisoners appear on the footstool. The Egyptian king would rest his feet on his foes.

Another graphically racial image found in Tutankhamun’s tomb is found on one of his walking sticks. The handle is made up of a bound Semite and a bound black—when the Egyptian king went for a walk with his royal walking stick, he held the enemies of Egypt in his hand.



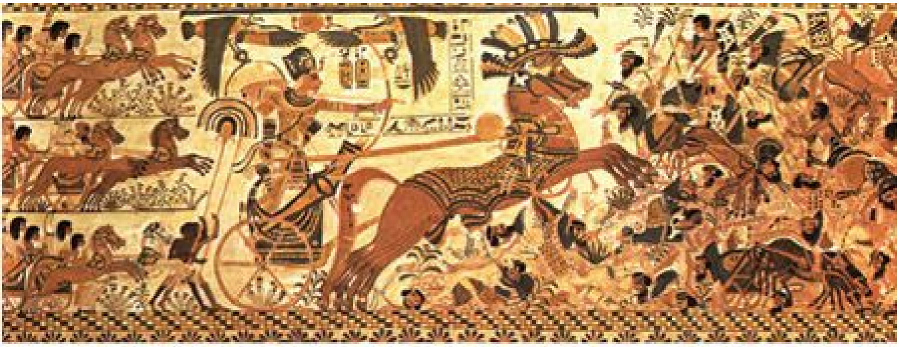
The King Walks on Egypt’s Racial Enemies

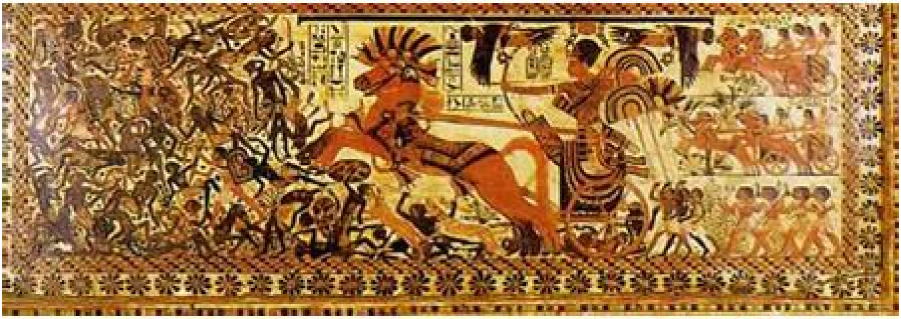
Yet another candid racial image from Tutankhamun’s tomb is found in a pair of his sandals. Inlaid with a picture of a Semite and a black, the pharaoh would trample his enemies underfoot when he walked.

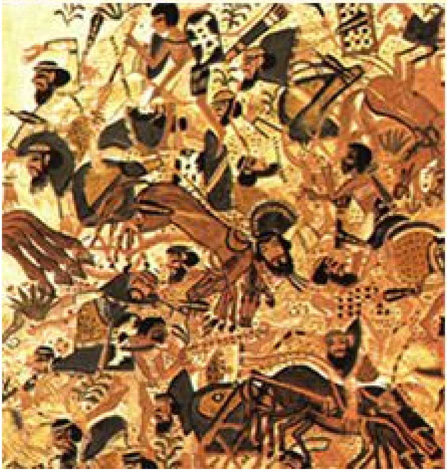


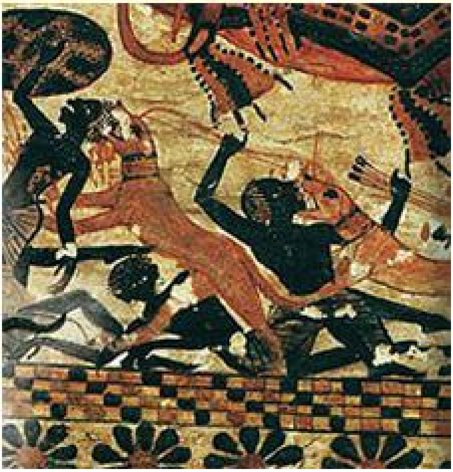
Tutankhamun’s famous wooden chest, which was found in the antechamber of his tomb, contains yet another striking scene. On its sides, it shows the Egyptian king riding a chariot and trampling the enemies of Egypt: blacks and Semites.

Above: A general view of Tutankhamen's wooden chest and below, details from the sides, showing Tutankhamen trampling blacks and Semites under the wheels of his chariot and under his horses' hooves. Note also the three black slaves fanning Tutankhamen at the rear of his chariot. The use of nonwhite labor was the primary reason why that civilization was eventually overrun.







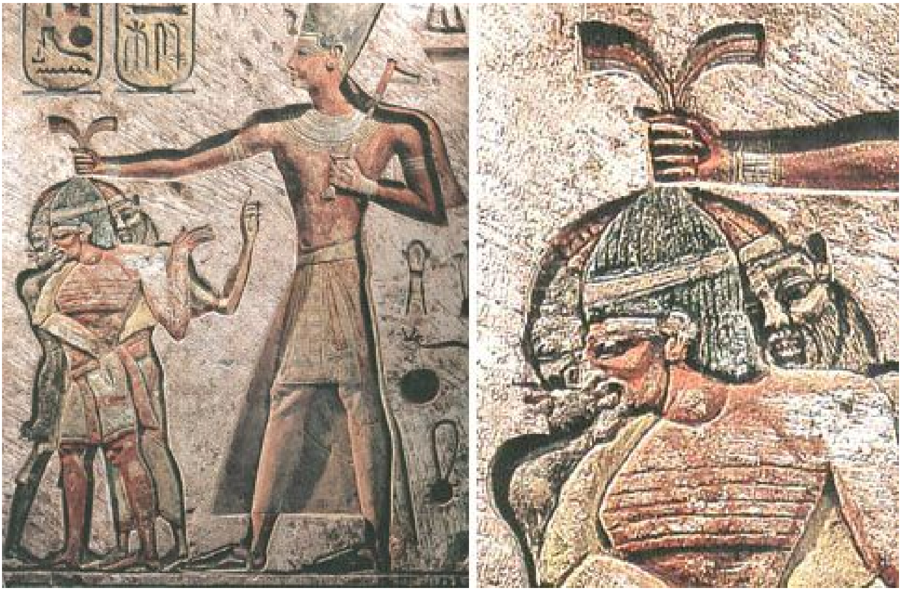


By Tutankhamun’s time then, the Egyptians were clearly aware of the growing numbers of their racial enemies creeping up on them.

These graphic references to Egypt’s racial enemies are ominous when it is considered that by the time of Tutankhamun, nonwhite slaves had already become commonplace. In addition to this, a significant number of Egyptians were now of mixed race, the Hyksos occupation having left behind a number of Egyptian/Semitic types. Significantly, Tutankhamun’s widow attempted to strike an alliance with the Indo-European Hittites, who had in the interim became the leading power in the Middle East, by arranging her own marriage to a Hittite prince. (The marriage never took place, as the husband to be was killed just prior to the ceremony.)

The Fall of White Egypt

From the time of Tutankhamun onward, the final decline of Egypt was irreversible. Later kings tried to reverse the trend and they sometimes succeeded, temporarily, in rolling back the waves of conquest and counterconquest in Palestine and Syria. One pharaoh even managed to take a Hittite princess as a bride.



A mural from the palace of Ramses II in Memphis, circa 1279 BC, shows the pharaoh grasping enemies of Egypt by the hair - two Semites and a Black Nubian. Alongside: a close-up of the three victims in Ramses' grasp.

But there were fresh enemies: Egypt was now attacked by new Indo-European invaders emerging from the Aegean, the so-called Sea People. As their name implied, they arrived by boat and raided Egyptian settlements, leaving again by the means that they arrived.

These Sea People were mainly comprised of Philistines from Asia Minor and Achaeans from mainland Greece. Egyptian illustrations of the time show prisoners with light hair and light eyes—Sea People raiders unfortunate enough to fall into captivity in Egypt, where they could expect no mercy.

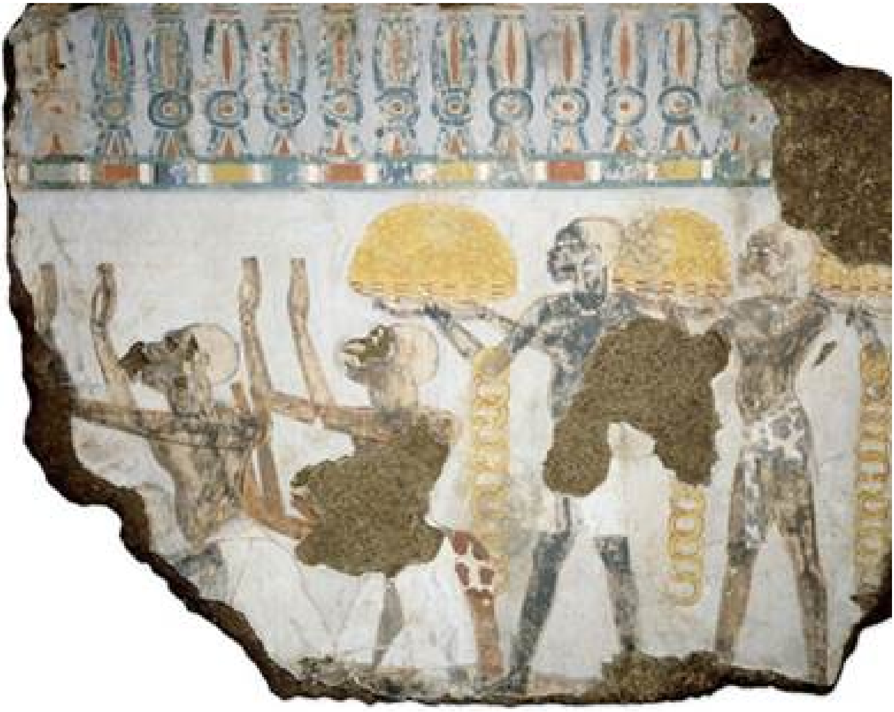
White Egyptians Disappear 800 BC

Ever since the time of the Hyksos invasion and the fall of the

Second Kingdom, the demographic shift among the Egyptian population had been against the original whites. Slowly but surely, nonwhites or mixed-racial types began to make up more and more of that country's population—drawn in as slaves, laborers, immigrants, or invaders.

These other racial types were of two sorts: Semites (who the Egyptians called "Sand Dwellers") and blacks, from the region of Nubia in the far south (present-day Sudan). A review of Egypt's relations with Nubia is therefore crucial to understanding what happened to the white Egyptians, and why they vanished.

Egyptian slave market, with black slaves waiting to be sold. Bologna Museum.



An Egyptian wall painting showing Black Nubians bringing gold offerings - showing how the White Egyptians depicted their Black neighbors circa 1850 BC.

Race War with Nubia

Clashes between the Egyptians and the black Nubians had long been a feature of Egyptian history, with the first campaigns against the Nubians launched by Old Kingdom pharaohs around 2900 BC. In 2570 BC, Pharaoh Sneferu launched a concerted attack upon Nubia. Egyptian records show that seventy thousand prisoners were taken.

In 1296 BC Egypt conquered Nubia and built a series of massive forts to protect its southern borders against the Nubians, with the most famous of these being the fort at Buhen, which had walls which were over 364 feet (110 meters) high and almost 15 feet (4.5 meters) thick.

Along the banks of the southern Nile, huge stones were erected upon which, in hieroglyphics still visible today, the passage of blacks past those points was forbidden—the first public “Whites Only” signs in history.

At the time of the Hyksos invasion of Egypt, many local Nubian kings allied themselves with the Hyksos and inflicted defeats upon the weakened Egyptians, including the destruction of the southern forts.

When the Hyksos were finally driven out, the white Egyptians exacted a terrible revenge upon the blacks, launching many campaigns of conquest and suppression against them, all the while bringing back thousands into Egypt as slaves—a racial time bomb which was to eventually destroy Egyptian civilization.

Egyptian Writings about Blacks

The white Egyptians left many written references to the black population in Nubia and in their own country. In fact, at one point, their writings record a law that forbade blacks from entering their country at all. An overview of these written inscriptions is highly worthwhile and devastates claims by pro-black historians, who, in an attempt to distort the historical record, claim that the ancient Egyptian civilization was black in racial origin. The most complete record and translation of these scripts was undertaken by Professor James Henry Breasted, Professor of Egyptology and Oriental History in the University of Chicago in his work *History of Egypt, from the Earliest Times to the Persian Conquest,* Second Edition, 1909.

Egyptian Racial Writings—the Sixth Dynasty

An inscription that was written by Count Uni, governor of the South, and an official of the Old Kingdom, reads as follows:

"His majesty made war on the Asiatic Sand-Dwellers and his majesty made an army of many ten thousands: in the entire South . . . among the Irthet blacks, the Mazoi blacks, the Yam blacks, among the Wawat blacks, among the Kau blacks, and in the land of Temeh."

This is an example of an Old Kingdom (2980–2475 BC) pharaoh using thousands of blacks as mercenaries. The army was sent into southern Palestine and *"returned in safety after it had hacked up the land of the Sand-Dwellers. His majesty sent me to dig five canals in the South, and to make three cargo-boats and four row boats of Acacia wood of Wawat.*

Then the black chiefs of Irthet, Waway, Yam, and Mazoi drew timber therefore, and I did the whole in only one year. The pharaoh came to inspect this work and at the coming of the king himself, standing behind the hill country, while the chiefs of Mazoi, Irthet, and Wawat did obeisance and gave great praise."

This writing shows very clearly the use of blacks as labor, and illustrates how they were slowly but surely drawn into Egyptian society.

Egyptian Writings—the Twelfth Dynasty

A sandstone stela found in the sanctuary of Wadi Halfa contains an account of the Nubian expedition of Pharaoh Sesostris I, which carried this king's wars to their southernmost limits. At the top of this stela there is a relief showing Sesostris I standing facing the Lord of Thebes, who says: *"I have brought for thee all countries which are in Nubia, beneath thy feet."*

The inscription of Prince Amenim, which is carved into the stone in the doorway of his cliff-tomb in Benihasin, describes the black lands as "vile." It reads as follows ("Kush" was one of the black lands): *"I passed Kush sailing southward . . . then his majesty returned in safety having overthrown his enemies in Kush the vile."*

The inscription on the stela of Sihathor, an "Assistant Treasurer," is now in the British Museum, and reads as follows: *"I reached Nubia of the blacks . . . I forced the Nubian chiefs to wash gold."*

"To Prevent That any Black Should Cross. . ."

The final conquest of Nubia was attained by Sesostris III in 1840 BC. This king conducted four campaigns against the blacks and erected several forts at strategic points, making Nubia a permanent colony of Egypt.

The first Semneh stela inscription recounting the subjugation of Nubia by Sesostris III reads as follows:

"Southern boundary, made in the year 8, under the majesty of the king of Upper and Lower Egypt, Sesostris III . . . in order to prevent that any black should cross it, by water or by land, with a ship, or any herds of the blacks; except a black who shall come to do trading in Iken, or with a commission. Every good thing shall be done with them but without allowing a ship of the blacks to pass by Heh, going downstream, forever."

The Eighteenth Dynasty 1580–1350 BC

The inscription of Ahmose reads: *"Now after his majesty had slain the Asiatics, he ascended the river . . . to destroy the Nubian Troglodytes; his majesty made a great slaughter among them."*

The Tombos Stela of Thutmose I reads: *“He hath overthrown the chief of the Nubians; the black is helpless, defenseless, in his grasp. He hath united the boundaries of his two sides, there is not a remnant among the curly-haired, who came to attack; there is not a single survivor among them . . . They fall by the sword . . . the fragments cut from them are too much for the birds.”*

In the annals of the great warrior king, Thutmose III, at the sixth Karnak pylon, there is a list that contains no less than 115 of the names of the towns and districts of the conquered Nubian regions.

Another pylon at Karnak contains references to about four hundred towns, districts, and countries conquered in Nubia. Inscribed on one of the tablets is the famous “Hymn of Victory” which reads as follows: *I have bound together the Nubian Troglodytes by the tens of thousands. The northerners by hundreds of thousands as prisoners.”*

Another remarkable inscription is to be found on the Semneh stela of Amenhotep III, which is also in the British Museum in London. It reads as follows: *“List of the captivity which his majesty took in the land of Ibbet the wretched.*

List of Prisoners and Killed: Living blacks 150 heads; Archers 110 heads; Female blacks 250 heads; Servants of the blacks 55 heads; Their children 175 heads; Total 740 heads. Hands thereof 312. United with the living heads 1,052.”

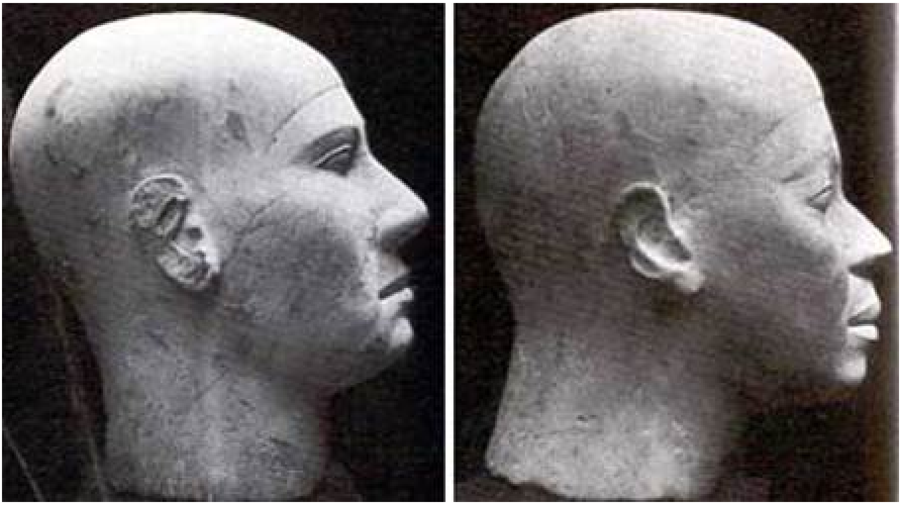
The mummy of the red-haired Egyptian Pharaoh Ramses II is on public display at the Egyptian Museum, Cairo.

The Red-Haired Ramses II

Egypt's last display of national vigor came with the red-haired Pharaoh Ramses II (1292–1225 BC). Ramses II managed to reestablish the already decaying Egyptian Empire by recapturing much land in Nubia. He also fought a series of battles against invading Indo-Europeans, the Hittites. This culminated with the Battle of Kadesh in northern Syria. Ramses signed a treaty with the Hittites in 1258 BC, which ended the war. In terms of the treaty, Ramses took as his wife an Indo-European Hittite princess. His other achievements included the building of the rock-hewn temple of Abu Simbel, the great hall in the Temple of Amon at Karnak, and the mortuary temple at Thebes.

After this king, Egypt entered into a steady period of decay, caused directly by the elimination of the original Egyptians, and their replacement with a mixed population made up of black, Semitic, and the remnant white population.

This racially divergent nation was never again to reach the heights achieved by the First, Second, or the first part of the Third Kingdoms. In these later years there were competing claimants to the pharaoh's throne, many of whom, racially speaking, bore no resemblance to the original pharaohs at all.



Racial mixing and the fall of Egypt. Above left, a bust recovered from a tomb of a man presumed to be one of the lesser sons of Pharaoh Khufu, and above right, his wife, also recovered from the same tomb. The portraits show clearly that the wife was at least of partly Negroid origin. (Mendelssohn, K., The Riddle of the Pyramids, ***Thames and Hudson, 1974, page 140).***

Mixed-Race Pharaoh Is the Last Pharaoh

The true Egyptians had all vanished at the very latest by 800 BC, and the divided and weakened Egypt was easy prey for numerous invaders, some Semitic, some Nubian, and some Indo-European, none of whom established any sort of permanent rule.

The Nubian invaders set up a new kingdom known as the Twenty-fifth Dynasty (746–655) and claimed to be the inheritors of the previous kingdoms. This one hundred year dynasty saw a number of Nubian and mixed-race rulers, all claiming to be pharaohs and attempting to revive some of the older practices, such as mummification.

Ancient Egypt's End—Overrun by Nonwhites

These nonwhite "Egyptians" were an illusion—the true white Egyptians had vanished, along with their society, and the Nubian dynasty sputtered out of its own accord.

The last pharaoh of this Nubian dynasty, Taharka, whose mixed-race ancestry is clear from sculptures, was driven from his throne by invading Assyrians, and it is from this fall of Taharka that historians formally date the fall of Egypt, although in reality the last true Egyptian had disappeared nearly two hundred years previously.

The fall of Egypt in pictures. Left, the white Egyptian Pharaoh Tuthmosis III, circa 1450 BC. Center, the black Nubian Pharaoh Shabako, circa 710 BC., and right, the last Nubian pharaoh Taharka, who ruled Egypt from 690 to 664 BC. He was the son of Piye, the Nubian king who had conquered Egypt in 760 BC. The last white Egyptians had vanished prior to 800 BC, physically integrated into the mass of Nubian and Semitic peoples who had come to dominate that land. The most prominent of the Nubian

invaders then set themselves up as new Egyptian kings, later called the 25th Dynasty (circa 760—656 BC). As can be seen from the racial features of the statues above right, the 25th dynasty was clearly nonwhite. This was the time of the Nubian pharaohs which black supremacists use to claim an African origin for ancient Egypt. The Nubian dynasty came in fact at the end of the Egyptian era, not the beginning. Unable to maintain the original white-run civilization, the 25th Dynasty sputtered out of its own accord and was destroyed by an Assyrian invasion. Although the fall of Egypt is officially dated as from the end of the 25th Dynasty, in reality the true ancient Egyptians had vanished more than 200 years earlier.

The course of racial developments in Egyptian history has been backed up by anthropological research. The British anthropologist G.M. Morant produced a comprehensive study of Egyptian skulls from commoner and royal graves from all parts of the Egyptian lands and times.

His conclusions were that the majority of the population of Lower Egypt—that is in the northern part of the country—were members of the Mediterranean white subrace. In the south (or Upper Egypt) this population pattern was repeated but this time showed a certain percentage of black admixture (reflecting the proximity of the Nubian settlement).

Significantly, Morant found that with the passage of time, the differentiation in skull types between Upper and Lower Egypt became less and less distinct, until ultimately they became indistinguishable—the surest sign of the absorption of the white subrace into the growing nonwhite mass (*Race,* John R. Baker, Oxford University Press, 1974, page 519).

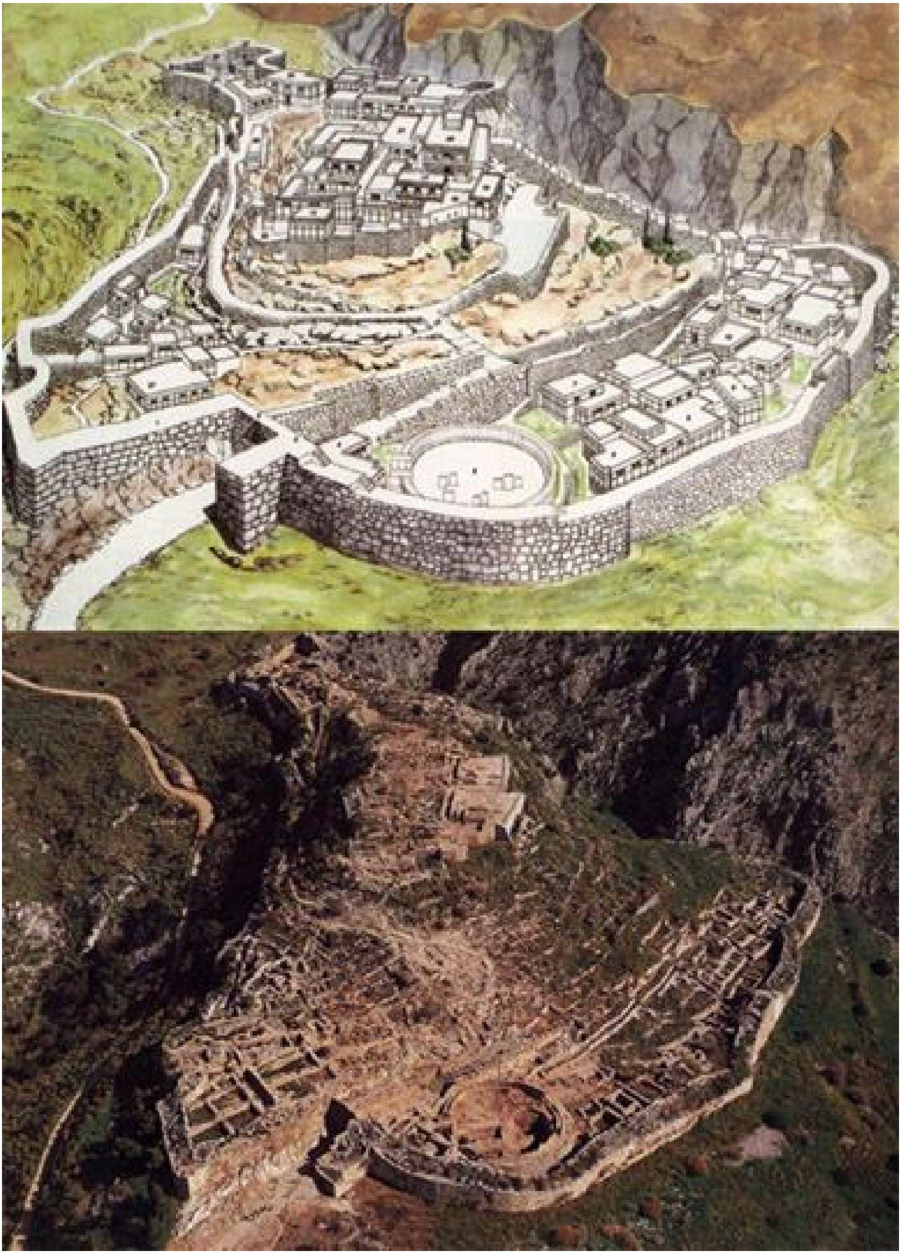
After passing under Ethiopian, Assyrian, and Persian rule, Egypt was finally occupied in 325 BC by the Greek Macedonian Alexander the Great (whose tribe was one of the original Indo-European invaders of the Greek peninsula). The famous Queen Cleopatra, often associated with ancient Egypt, was one of these ruling Macedonians, and not an Egyptian. Under Cleopatra’s rule, Egypt became a Roman outpost. Although the Macedonians adopted certain cultural characteristics of ancient Egypt, the true Egyptians had long since passed from the world stage, absorbed into the mixed-race mass of the Middle East.

CHAPTER 9: Genesis of Western Thought—Classical Greece

The Greek peninsula, and its northern borders, the Balkans, had previously been settled by the original European peoples during the Neolithic Age. These peoples had created the Old European civilizations, which were some of the most advanced in Europe at the time.

From approximately 5000 BC onward, the Indo-Europeans had started flooding westward, at first conquering but then integrating with these original inhabitants. This massive influx brought about the fall of these Old European civilizations—and in their place rose the two great civilizations which have come to epitomize the classical world: Greece and Rome.

MYCENAE—FIRST GREAT GREEK CITY-STATE 1900 BC



The citadel of Mycenae, situated on the southernmost part of the Greek peninsula, reconstructed to what it looked like at its zenith. The genesis of classical Greek culture was born and nurtured here, one of the earliest Indo-European invasions of the Grecian lands.

Mycenaeans and Dorians—Founders of Athens and Sparta

The first of these new great civilizations was the Mycenaeans.

Around 1900 BC they settled in large numbers on islands off the present-day Turkish coast, establishing what became known as Ionia and the Ionian civilization. The Mycenaeans were dispersed by another Indo-European invasion, that of the Dorians. They established their capital at Sparta, a city which, along with Athens, was to become synonymous with the history of classical Greece.

By approximately 1000 BC, the waves of invading Indo-Europeans had come to an end, and a semblance of stability returned to central and western Europe. Together with the original Europeans, the new Nordic settlers built upon the Old European civilizations, with the first great city-states being built on the Greek peninsula.

Hellenic Age—Height of Greek Civilization

The four hundred years stretching from 800–400 BC are known as the Hellenic Age, and mark the height of classical Greek civilization. Around this time the Greeks also founded the city of Byzantium, later to become famous as Constantinople, today called Istanbul. It was only the later Romans who called the inhabitants of this region Greeks—they referred to themselves as Hellenes, hence the Hellenic Age.

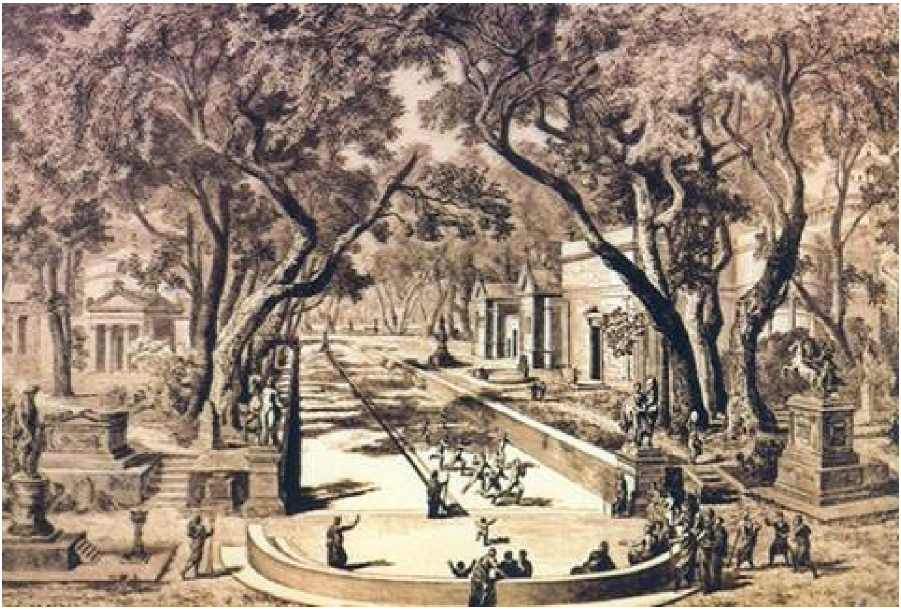
In 776 BC, the first Olympic games were held at Olympia. Thereafter they took place every four years in honor of the god Zeus, and lasted in that form until 394 AD. During these celebrations, all the Grecian city-states sent athletes to Olympia, wars were suspended, and legal disputes and the use of the death penalty were forbidden.

Greek States—Oligarchy versus Democracy

Knowledge of the nature of the city-state is crucial to an understanding of the history of classical Greece. Far from being a united people, the Greeks established themselves in walled, fortified, and quite often self-sustaining cities, each fiercely independent and warring with each other at the proverbial drop of a hat. By 750 BC, two distinct ideologies had formed among the Greek city-states. The first was an oligarchy—rule by an educated elite. The second was a limited form of democracy—rule by the citizens. The city of Sparta was the leading exponent of the oligarchic system, while the city of Athens was the leading exponent of the democratic system. Four city-states in particular achieved prominence: Sparta, Corinth, Athens, and Thebes.

The latter three cities were plagued by political uncertainty for long periods, with government forms alternating between democracies, monarchies, and oligarchies. Sparta was the only exception to this variance in political form: it remained steadfastly oligarchic and actively despised the democracies.

The Dromos—Where Sparta's Military Might Was Created



The source of Sparta's military power: The Dromos, or racecourse and gymnasium. The great expansion of Spartan power was largely attained by the disciplinary education of the Spartan youth, which, though it destroyed the possibility of family life, produced the harsh and inflexible character of the splendidly trained warrior to whom the military supremacy of Sparta was due. Spartan men were all full-time professional soldiers, sometimes to the exclusion of family life. This obsession with military preparedness made them an exceptional fighting force, but ultimately led to their downfall. The manual labor in Spartan society was done by an ever increasing number of mixed-race slaves imported for the purpose. This, combined with the high death rate among Spartan men, soon led to that nation's extinction.

Sparta—World's First Eugenics

The Spartans strictly divided their society into three classes which were based solely on race. At the top were the Spartans, who were nearly all Nordic. The middle class was mainly comprised of the original Greeks and some later descendants of other Indo-European invaders (such as the Dorians). This middle class tended to be less Nordic in appearance than the Spartans. The lowest class of Spartan society was the darkest in the society, called helots, who were mainly

Old Mediterranean racial types who had mixed with North African (Arabic, Nubian, and Semitic) slaves imported into the region at an earlier date.

The Spartans devoted themselves full time to military and physical training. Every Spartan man was a lifelong soldier, never taking part in any other function of society. The middle classes undertook all the commercial activity in Spartan society, while the lowest classes did the manual labor.

The existence of this full-time and fully trained professional army class was unique in history, and the city of Sparta was the only Grecian city which did not have city walls—so feared were the Spartan soldiers, that none deemed it wise to attack. The Spartans also practiced a crude form of racial eugenics (improvement of the racial line)—allowing only the best specimens among them to survive to adulthood. All new babies were examined by a council of elders and any mentally retarded or severely deformed children were deliberately left to die. The Spartans also regularly engaged in what was known as the *Crypteia*—the wholesale slaughter of hundreds of helots at a time, officially recorded as a necessary measure to preserve their society. In addition, Spartan laws dictated heavy penalties for celibacy and late marriage, and exempted from taxes those who had more than four children. The end effect of all these measures was a gradual Nordicization of Spartan society.

This process was eventually reversed as the warlike nature of the Spartans finally whittled away their warrior class. Many were killed in battle before having time to procreate in sufficient number to keep up a steady population growth. So weakened, the Spartans were finally overrun by an Indo-European people from north Greece, the Macedonians. The Spartans are almost unique in that they did not disappear through racial integration, but rather through self extermination in endless wars. Although not as formally defined, this same racial class mix prevailed in almost all of the southern Greek city-states. The lowest (and darkest) classes were always the numerically superior group, continually being supplemented by the importation of slaves and laborers from other territories.

OLYMPIA—ORIGIN OF OLYMPIC GAMES 440 BC

The origin of the Olympic games: A reconstruction of the temple to Zeus at Olympia, the great religious and athletic center of Greece, as it looked circa 440 BC. So important were the games as homage to the gods, that wars between the Greek cities were temporarily halted in their honor.

Athens—Evolution of Government

The city of Athens passed first through a period of oligarchy, then into autocracy, and finally into a limited democracy. There was no standing army although the Athenians could, once mobilized, put a very powerful military force into the field.

The two ideological systems which prevailed in the different city-states—oligarchy and democracy—came into direct conflict with one another. This clash played a major role in destroying the power of classical Greece, although the real death knell for that civilization was the infusion of foreign blood.

Nordic Racial Types as Leaders in Classical Greece

Left to right: Zeno of Cyprus, founder of Stoic philosophy; Pericles, the *most famous Athenian leader of all time; Demosthenes of Athens, the finest orator of his day; and Sophocles of Athens, one of the most famous playwrights of ancient Greece.*

This influx of nonwhite foreigners into classical Greece came about through the large-scale colonization of neighboring territories. Although some territories upon which Greek colonies were established had racially assimilable natives (south-ern Italy, the Mediterranean coast of France, and eastern Spain), many were not compatible at all. The importation of slaves into mainland Greece from areas such as Asia Minor, North Africa, and other parts of the Middle East continued unabated between the years 700–500 BC—which ultimately left its mark upon a significant section of the Greek population.

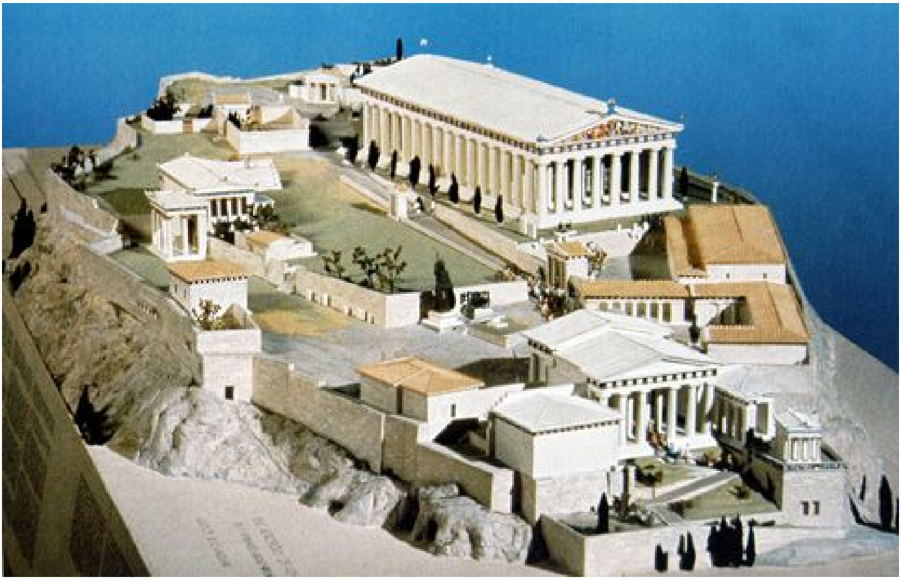
Originally the classical Greeks prided themselves upon possessing the “fairest eyes of all the nations” or so wrote the Jewish physician and sophist Adamantius during the fourth century AD (*Physiognomica*, iii. 32).

As the darker elements in Grecian society grew in number, so did the desire to mimic the original Nordic blond-haired type. The Greek writer Euripides, for example, wrote a tract on how Greeks dyed their hair blond, and many other Greek writers left tracts describing how hair could be dyed blond with natural chemicals.

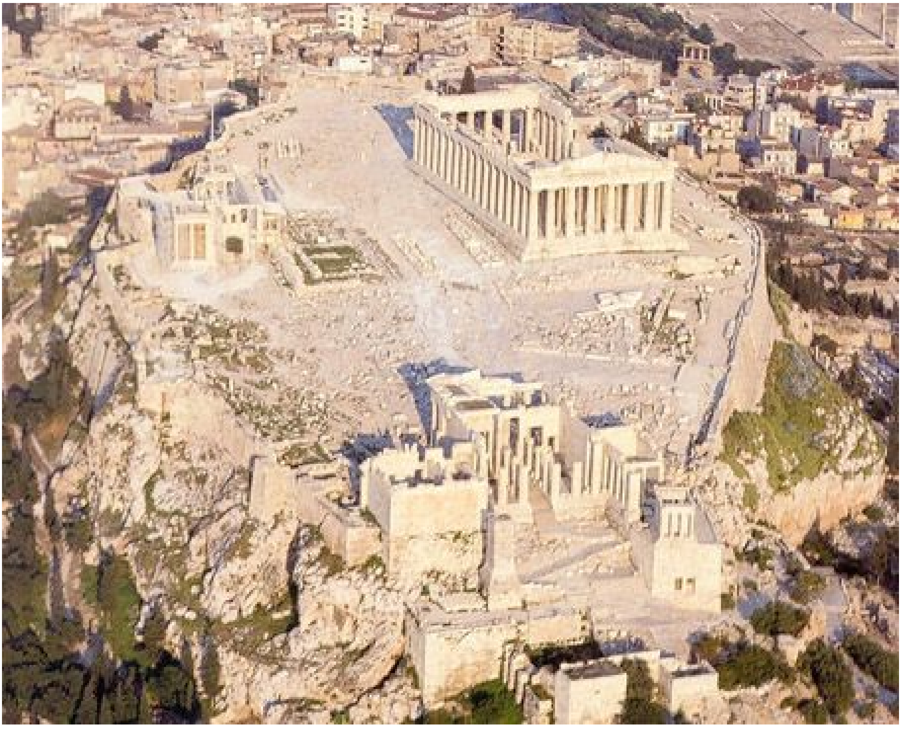
The classical Greeks did, however, damage their own population growth by constant infighting and wars with outsiders. The greatest of these outside conflicts was with the Persians—a decade-long war, which contained some of the most famous battles ever.

THE PARTHENON ON THE ACROPOLIS IN ATHENS 438 BC

The Parthenon on the Acropolis in Athens was built from 447–438 BC to commemorate the Greek victory over the Persian king Xerxes I. At this time, Athens was at its zenith as a largely Nordic population, but it also included a large number of nonwhite slaves. Because of this, a law was passed in 451 BC which limited citizenship biologically—to those of Athenian descent only. In this way the Athenians attempted to prevent non-Greeks from taking over their city. In this they failed, because they still used large numbers of nonwhites as slaves and for labor. Above: The statue of Athena, the goddess of war, and the interior of the Parthenon, as it originally appeared. The interior was gilded and contained a massive statue—one of the wonders of Periclean Greece. The reconstruction is based on original Greek descriptions.



The Acropolis as it appeared during the city's golden age. Pericles, Athens' greatest ruler, and Phidias, her greatest architect, raised the city to such heights that her aesthetic beauty has been unsurpassed to this very day. When the Romans occupied Greece—long after the latter's collapse—they were in awe of the sheer splendor of Athens, and took much of their architecture and artistic style directly from classical Greece.



The Acropolis as it is today.

The Athenian Wars with Persia 490–480 BC

The originally Indo-European Persians had started expanding their empire around 550 BC, and this expansion westward included occupying the Ionian city-states, which had been founded by the remnants of the Mycenaean peoples. After the Persian King Darius I ascended to the throne, the Ionians rebelled and reestablished their independence. For five years, from 499–494 BC, the Ionians held out against the Persians. The Persians then reconquered Ionia and as punishment destroyed the largest city in that region, Miletus.

During the Ionian rebellion the city-state of Athens had sent material aid to Ionia, and this act led to the Persians deciding to punish the Athenians. There followed two Persian invasions of the Greek mainland.

The first occurred in 490 BC and ended with the defeat of the invading forces at the Battle of Marathon. The invaders were forced to retreat and wait another ten years before relaunching their forces.

Thermopylae—Spartans' Heroic Stand 480 BC

The second invasion began when the Persian king, Xerxes I, brought together one of the largest armies in ancient history, crossing the Bosporus Strait on a bridge made of boats. The Greeks met the Persian army in 480 BC at Thermopylae, where the Spartan leader Leonidas I and several thousand soldiers heroically defended a narrow pass.

A treacherous Greek showed the Persians another path that enabled the invaders to enter the pass from the rear. Leonidas permitted most of his men to withdraw, but he and a force of 1,400 Greeks fought until they were all killed by the overwhelmingly numerically superior Persian force. The Persians then proceeded to Athens, capturing and burning the abandoned city.

The Persian fleet then set sail after the Greek fleet, meeting them in battle off the island of Salamis near Athens. This battle, which saw over seven hundred ships from both sides engage one another for an entire day, ended in defeat for the Persians. The Persian king, who had watched the battle from a golden throne on a hill overlooking the scene, fled back to Persia. In the following year, 479 BC, the remainder of the Persian ground forces in Greece were beaten at the Battle of Plataea.

In 478 BC a large number of Greek states formed a voluntary alliance, the Delian League, to drive the Persians from the Greek cities and coastal islands of Ionia. Athens, its status among the Greek city-states enhanced by the victory at Salamis and Plataea, led the alliance. The victories of the league resulted in the liberation of the Ionian Islands from Persian rule by the year 466 BC.

Periclean Golden Age—Vote Based on Blood

From the years 460–429 BC, Athens and many Grecian cities went through what is now known as its Golden Age. Athens was under the leadership of an immensely popular leader named Pericles, who, although a democrat (in the limited Athenian sense of the word—only adult males of a certain class were allowed to vote), was most certainly under no illusion of the potential threat to his society posed by the influx of nonwhite peoples.

In 451 BC, Pericles enacted a law limiting Athenian citizenship by biological descent—only those born of an Athenian mother and an Athenian father could be citizens. In other words, voting rights were granted on the basis of blood alone. During the time of Pericles, classical Greece reached the heights for which it is remembered today. Among his more famous achievements was the construction of the Parthenon on the acropolis in Athens, built from 447–432 BC and dedicated to that city's patron goddess, Athena Parthenos. This monument still stands today as a world famous beacon of classical Greece.

Left: Euripides, Athenian playwright. Many of his plays—and those of his fellow Greek playwrights—are still performed today, so timeless and perfect *were their construction. Center: Socrates, a philosopher of Alpine racial type. He was forced to commit suicide after enraging his fellow citizens. Right: The unmistakably Indo-European face of Homer, one of the greatest Greek poets and storytellers, most famous for his epic poem, The Iliad. All from the original Greek sculptures.*

The Inter-Greek Wars 431–404 BC

The wars between the Greek city-states, known as the Peloponnesian Wars (named after the peninsula), were the immediate cause of the collapse of the military might of classical Greece.

After the end of the Persian Wars, Greece had divided into two alliances: the Spartan League (mostly monarchies or oligarchies led by the city of Sparta) and the Athenian Empire (mostly democracies led by the city of Athens). Internal politicking, jealousy, general mistrust, and the conflict between democracy and oligarchy led to the outbreak of war between the two alliances.

The first phase of the war was inconclusive; whereas the Spartans had a strong land force, the Athenians were more powerful at sea. The city-state of Athens was furthermore protected by massive and well built fortifications, which included the "Long Walls." These were an incredible set of approximately seven mile long walls lining a single road linking Athens with its major port, Piraeus, through which the Athenian navy could keep the city supplied in times of siege.

In 430 BC, a plague broke out in Athens and a quarter of the population, including Pericles, died. The Spartan League also suffered as the plague spread, and by 421 BC both sides were exhausted. A peace treaty was signed, but the peace was short-lived and a renewed conflict broke out in 415 BC, when the Athenians attempted an invasion of Sicily, where Spartan-aligned colonies had been established.

The Persians, still smarting from their defeat at the hands of the Athenians in 480 BC, then intervened, offering the Spartans money and skills to build a fleet to match that of the Athenians, on condition that the Spartan League guaranteed the Persians a free hand in Ionia.

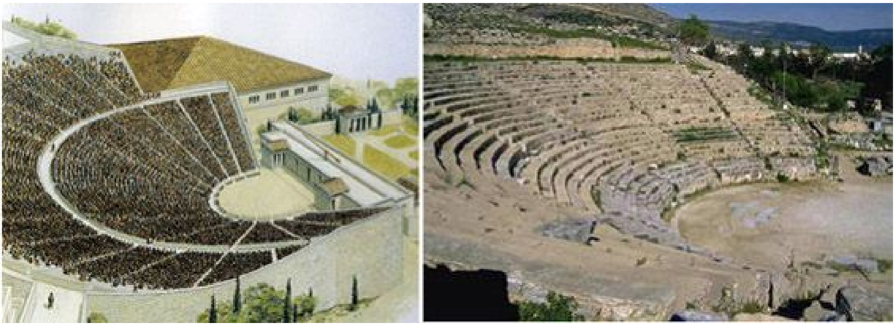
The Spartan League accepted, and in 405 BC the new Spartan fleet scored a decisive naval victory at a harbor called Aegospotamoi in Thrace. The Spartans captured 170 Athenian ships and took about four thousand prisoners—a blow from which Athens could not recover. The Spartans then renewed their siege of Athens. This time the Athenians were forced to surrender, an event which took place in

404 BC. They had no fleet to supply, and the resultant famine caused a collapse in the will to resist.

The Peloponnesian Wars were at an end, but they had exacted such a toll from all the Greek city-states that the number of whites had been significantly reduced. This, combined with physical integration with the imported mixed-race slaves from the Middle East and Africa, was the primary cause of the collapse of classical Greece.

By 400 BC, none of the formerly great city-states could withstand the new power in the north, that of Macedonia. From this land, whose Nordic population had been almost unscathed by the wars, was to emerge the famous Alexander the Great, who conquered all the warring Grecian city-states in 338 BC. The epic of Alexander and his empire is detailed in the following chapter.

ORIGIN OF WESTERN DRAMA—THEATER OF DIONYSUS 440 BC



The center of Greek drama: The theater of Dionysus at Athens where the Great Tragedies were first performed over two thousand years ago (circa 440 BC).

The Greek theater at Epidaurus, circa 350 BC. Many of the amphitheaters can still be used for performances, so perfect are the acoustics and design of the construction.

Greek Academia—Origin of Western Thought

Magnificent architecture is not the only legacy of classical Greece. Between the years 700–400 BC, there were great philosophical, cultural, and scientific achievements. Any review of classical Greece is incomplete without an overview of these great works.

- Greek philosophy is still held in high esteem. The father of philosophy was one Thales (636–546 BC) who lived in the Ionian city of Miletus. Thales was the first philosopher to offer an explanation of life in terms of natural causes, and not in terms of the whims of gods.

- The geometrician Pythagoras (582–500 BC) came from Samos in Ionia, and is most famous for his geometric theory regarding right angled triangles.

- Another group of philosophers came to be known as Sophists, teachers of debate known as rhetoric. The Sophists insisted that truth in itself was a relative concept and denied the existence of any universal standards. The most famous Sophist was Protarus (490–421 BC) from whose name the word “protagonist” originates.

- In the fourth century a philosopher named Diogenes founded a school of philosophers known as the Cynics. They had no respect for rules and regulations of society and lived very simply. Diogenes lived this philosophy as well, using a storage jar as his home.

- The Stoic philosophers were named after the stoa (porch) where their founder, Zeno, taught. They believed that if people acted naturally they would behave well, because their nature was controlled by the gods.

- The most outstanding opponent of the Sophists was the Athenian-born Socrates (470–399 BC), who believed in and quested after an eternal truth. Unfortunately for him his quest eventually led to his enforced suicide after his fellow Athenians accused him of disobeying religious laws and of corrupting the youth.

- The greatest of Socrates' disciples was Plato (427–347 BC) who achieved immortality by writing the first systematic treatise in political science, *The Republic*. Plato saw society as being divided into three classes: bronze (the workers), silver (the middle class), and gold (the ruling class). Significantly, Plato was the first renowned philosopher to recognize race as a factor in the rise and fall of civilizations. In *The Republic* he stated that the first requirement of continued statehood was the necessity of retaining racial homogeneity.

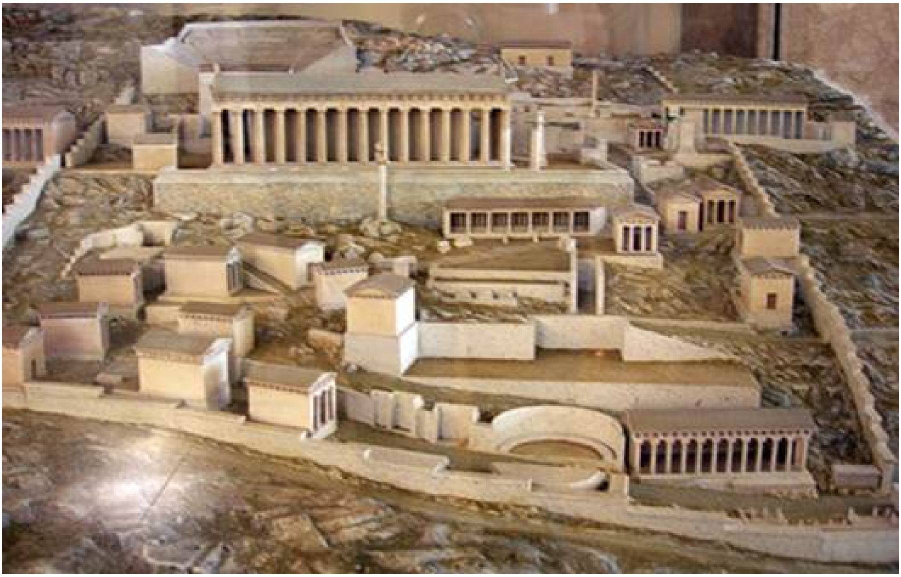
- Plato's greatest pupil was in turn Aristotle (384–322 BC) who wrote well on a large number of topics including art, biology, mathematics, politics, logic, and rhetoric. Aristotle also was the tutor of Alexander of Macedonia, who during his short life became ruler of most of the known world.

- Hippocrates (circa 420 BC) was a brilliant physician who revised much of what was known about medicine. His Hippocratic Oath is still used by doctors today as a code of professional ethics.

- Great Greek playwrights include Aeschylus (525–456 BC); Sophocles (496–406 BC), who was best known for his play *Oedipus Rex* (properly known as *Oedipus Tyrranus*), about a man who mistakenly marries his mother; Euripides (480–406 BC); and the comedian Aristophanes (445–385 BC).

- One freed slave became famous as a storyteller: Aesop (properly named *Aesopus*), who lived in the fourth century BC. He is best remembered for his collection of short stories, each with its own moral lesson.

The Awe of the Ancient World—Delphi



The greatest religious center of the ancient world was Delphi in central Greece. Here the god Apollo dispensed advice to all those who sought it, through dedicated prophets and priests. Set halfway up the mountain Parnassus between majestic cliffs, the complex was the wonder of its age. In the center is the great Hall of Apollo. The surrounding buildings and works of art were given as tribute by kings and commoners alike in thanks for advice received or in hope of favors to come from the gods.

The ruins of Delphi today—testimony to how the people who built this magnificent edifice have passed from history.

Greek beliefs had several characteristics in common with many other Indo-European pre-Christian religions. The Greeks believed in gods who most often resembled humans in form and who also displayed human emotions. They had no holy book or specific directives, so interpretation and practice differed widely.

Their gods lived on a holy mountain, Mount Olympus, in a fairly ordinary society with a strict hierarchical structure. The main gods and their respective areas of responsibility reflect the very earthly nature of the religion as a whole:

- Zeus was the head of the gods, and the spiritual father of all the other gods and people. He was also very commonly known as Dias.

- Hera was Zeus’s wife, and also the queen of heaven and the guardian of marriage.

- Hephaestus was the god of fire and metalworkers.

- Athena was the goddess of wisdom and war and official patron of the city named after her.

- Apollo was the god of light, poetry, and music.

- Artemis was the goddess of wildlife and the moon.

- Ares was the god of war.

- Aphrodite was the goddess of love.

- Hestia was the goddess of the hearth.

- Gaea was the goddess of the earth.

- Hermes was the messenger of the gods and ruler of science and invention.

- Poseidon was the ruler of the sea who, with his wife Amphitrite, led a group of less important sea gods, such as the Nereids and Tritons.

- Demeter, the goddess of agriculture, was associated with the earth.

- Hades, an important god but not generally considered an Olympian, ruled the underworld where he lived with his wife, Persephone. The underworld was a dark and mournful place located at the center of the earth, populated by the souls of the dead.

- Dionysus was the god of wine and pleasure, and as a result was one of the most popular gods.

- There were also creatures such as fauns (creatures with the legs of a goat and the upper body of a human), centaurs (the head and torso of a man and the body of a horse), and nymphs (beautiful, young, fairylike women).

The very name Europe is derived from that of the Greek goddess Europa, the daughter of the Phoenix, which was able to resurrect itself from ashes after being killed in fire.

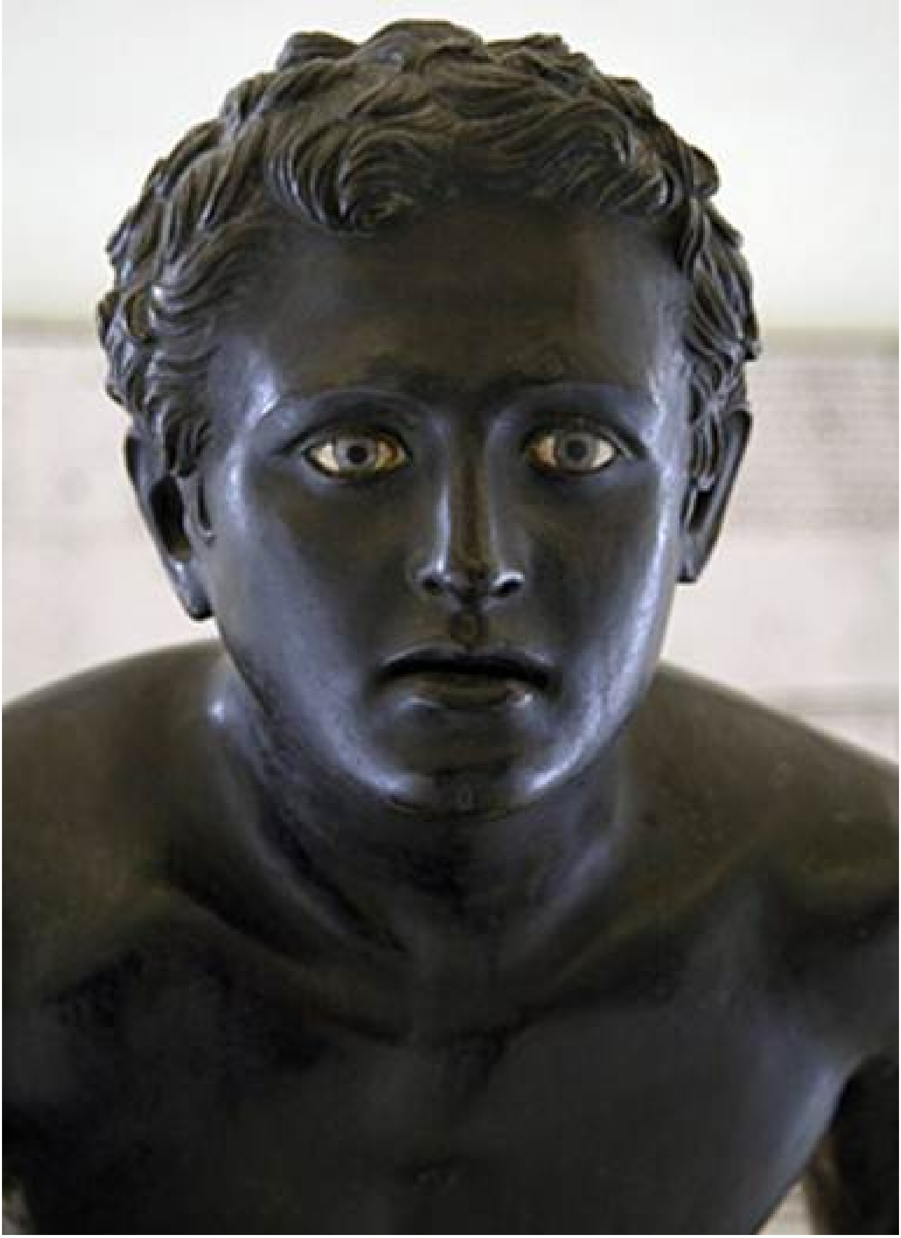
The Greeks believed that the gods controlled all aspects of their lives, and that they were totally dependent upon the goodwill of the gods. Each city devoted itself to a particular god or group of gods, for whom temples were built. In this way Athena was protector of the city of Athens, and a gold statue of her was placed inside the Parthenon.

Delphi was a holy site dedicated to Apollo. A temple built at Delphi contained an oracle, or prophet, who claimed to be able to see into the future; a similar temple was built at Didyma in present-day Turkey. The most intriguing part of the Greek pantheon was that the gods, despite their superhuman powers, showed human foibles and errors of judgment—a strange mix of the supernatural and the very physical, showing clear similarities to the gods of the Indo-European religions.

In Black and White—The Downfall of Classical Greece

The downfall of classical Greece—the importation of nonwhite slaves. In this 300 BC Grecian statue, a black African slave is shown polishing a boot. It was the importation of large numbers of racially foreign slaves which was to lead to the dissolution of the classical Grecian civilization. Contrast the slave with, below, a statue of a white Grecian male dating from classical times. Most present-day white Greeks have very little or no original classical Grecian blood in their veins, and are descendants of later settlers, Crusaders, and other invaders. (The fig leaf, so often seen in such statues, is a Victorian addition.)

Above: A Greek statue of a Negro musician dating from between the fourth *and third centuries BC, Bibliotheque Nationale, Paris.*



The face of true ancient Greece: A statue of an athlete, a Roman bronze copy of Greek original of the 4th century B.C. by Lysipp's school. Inv. No. 5626. Naples, National Archaeological Museum.

Greece Darkened—Citizenship to Foreigners and the "Colorate Gentes"

In 411 BC, forty years after Pericles had enacted his law limiting citizenship to those of biological Athenian descent only, the law was turned on its head. Citizenship of Athens was given to tens of thousands of foreigners who had entered the city, most of whom were from the Middle East. The argument used was that the city-state had to make up the huge population losses suffered as a result of the Persian and inter-Grecian wars.

By this stage the racial mix of Athens and many other Grecian city-states was beginning to show the effects of the importation of peoples from elsewhere in the Middle East, and significant sections of the population had become darker than even during Pericles' time. This darkening of the population (caused partly by the Nordic and original European elements of Grecian society warring themselves to death—and partly by the importation of masses of already mixed Middle Eastern peoples) runs directly in tandem with the decline and fall of classical Greece.

The gradual darkening of the Grecian peoples was noted by many famous Greek writers of the time. Hippocrates makes reference in his works to the "long heads" (that is, Nordic skulls) of the Macedonians, while Aristotle made copious references to the fairness of the Scythians and the Macedonians. The Greek soldier and historian Xenophon (430–354 BC) also made a point of referring to the blond-haired and fair-eyed Macedonians and Scythians in his book *Anabasis,* which described a Greek expedition against the Persians.

By the time of the Roman emperor, Octavian Augustus (who reigned directly after Julius Caesar), the Roman historian Manilius counted the Greeks as among the dark nations of the world, referring to them as part of the "colorate gentes" (*Astronomica,* iv, 719).

It is likely that Manilius was referring to the Hellenistic world in general, rather than the inhabitants of the Greek peninsula alone, as many people from the surrounding areas had by that stage adopted much of Greek culture, and were linguistically and culturally relatively indistinguishable from the Hellenes.

There were, of course, still whites in Greece, both then and now.

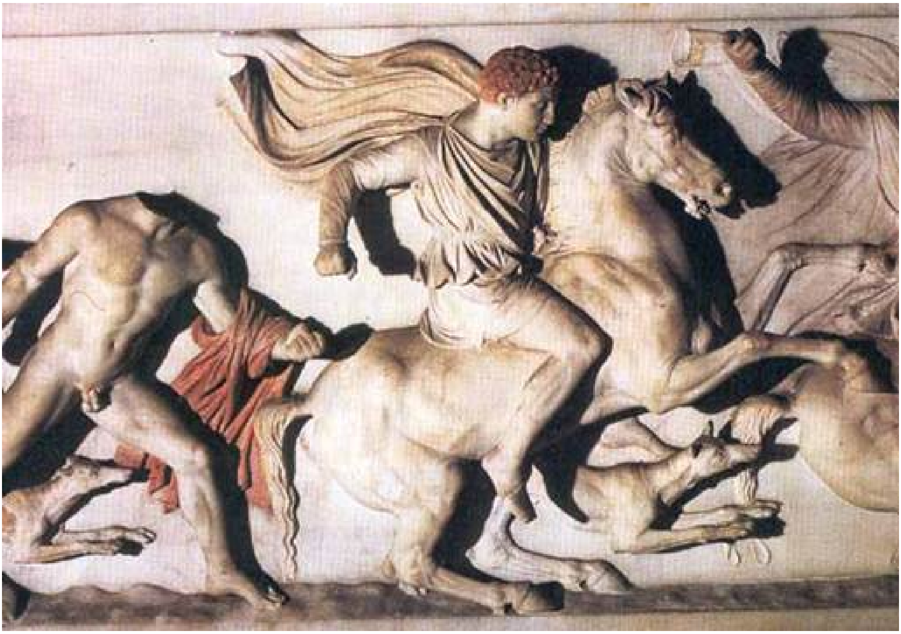
Later Byzantium Empire Drew Middle Easterners

Another factor which influenced the racial makeup of Greece was the later existence of the Byzantium Empire (Eastern Roman Empire), which drew all manner of Middle Eastern mixed types to the region. This process, which happened over a period of centuries, was aggravated by the Turkish invasion of Greece and the Balkans.

CHAPTER 10: Conqueror and Creator—Alexander the Great

The appearance of Alexander the Great on the stage of history is a remarkable example of how one person's strength of will in a leadership position can change the course of world events. From out of nowhere Alexander burst upon the ancient world and turned it on its head, and then, just as quickly, he vanished.

To the north of Greece lay the territory of Macedonia, a nation whose origins lay in an invasion of the area by an Indo-European tribe during the great migrations which occurred from around 5000 BC onward. Archaeological investigations have revealed how Nordic the Macedonians were—particularly in contrast to the peoples who, by the time of the first Macedonian expeditions, made up the majority of the inhabitants of southern Greece.



A detail from the Alexander Sarcophagus, showing Alexander on a horse supported by an infantryman. Alexander's hair is portrayed as blond-red, as is the pubic hair of the infantryman on the left - sure indicators of the racial types present. The Sarcophagus dates from the 4th Century BC, and is currently in the Istanbul Archaeological Museum.

Alexander Sarcophagus Depicts Racial Types

The famous Alexander Sarcophagus (also known as the Sarcophagus of Sidon, dating from 310 BC and presently in the Archaeological Museum in Istanbul) depicts Macedonians, including Alexander, as stereotypical Nordics with white skin, fair hair, and blue eyes.

Philip II—Alexander's Father, Defeats Athens

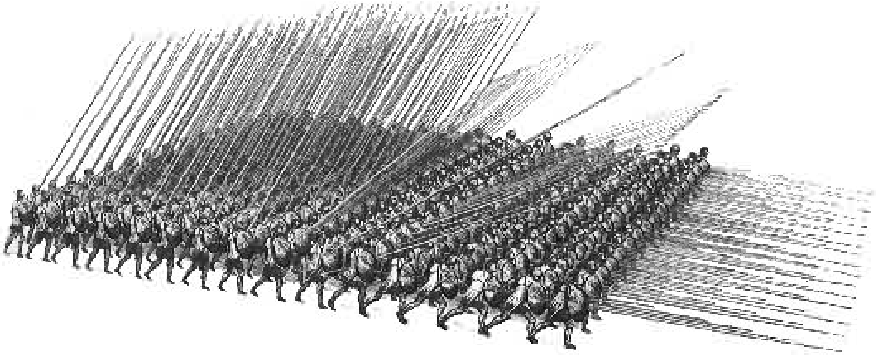
The Macedonians were a relatively quiet people until their potential was unleashed by an energetic king, Philip II, in 359 BC. After firmly establishing Macedonian unity, Philip set about invading the Greek peninsula, occupying Athens in 338 BC. He then turned his attention to the Persian Empire to the east.

Before he could actually invade Persia, Philip was assassinated in 336 BC, soon after he discarded his queen, Olympias (who was Alexander's mother), and had taken a new wife, Cleopatra (not the one famed as an Egyptian queen).

It is cause for speculation that this domestic upheaval led to Philip's assassination, possibly arranged by his son, Alexander. Whatever the case, Philip was given a royal burial, and his tomb was discovered intact and in pristine condition in 1977 AD.

Philip's crown passed to his twenty-year-old son, Alexander, who in the year 334 BC set out to crush the Persians once and for all. In doing this he managed to unite most of the Greeks and became the undisputed master of the Greek peninsula.

A Secret of Alexander's Success—the Speira Unit of 256 Men



The basic unit, or speira, in Alexander's army. The 256 men were ranked in close order, sixteen deep. In a charge, the spears of the first five ranks projected forward to break the enemy ranks—the rest of the men held their *spears skyward to deflect arrows or other projectiles. Tactics such as these helped Alexander's army overcome overwhelming odds time and time again during their breathtaking march from Greece right through the Middle East, north into Asia, and then to India .*

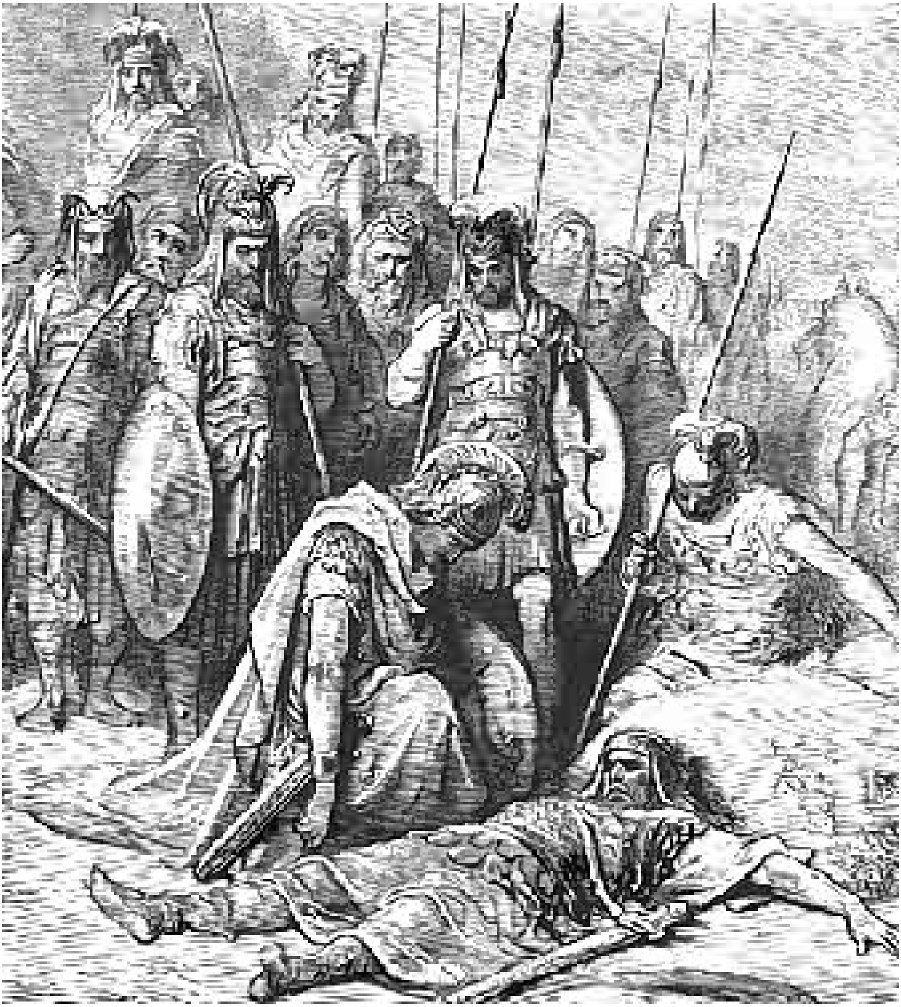
Alexander Begins His Wars Against Persia 334 BC

Alexander began his war against Persia in the spring of 334 BC by crossing the Dardanelles with an army of 35,000 Macedonian and Greek troops. His chief officers, all Macedonians, were Antigonus, Ptolemy, and Seleucus, who all played significant roles in history. At the river Granicus, near the ancient city of Troy, Alexander launched a surprise attack on a forty-thousand strong Persian force.

The Macedonians defeated the Persians, losing, according to Alexandrian exaggeration, only 110 men. Whatever the truth, the victory was overwhelming, and as news of the decisive victory spread throughout Turkey, the entire subcontinent submitted to Alexander without putting up a fight.

Alexander then took on the main Persian army, commanded personally by King Darius III, at Issus, in present-day northeastern Syria. Still only having around 35,000 soldiers, Alexander attacked the Persian army estimated by Macedonian records to be 500,000 strong —probably another exaggeration—but nonetheless indicative of the odds that Alexander faced. Incredibly enough, and probably due to his genius as a military leader, Alexander won the day at the Battle of Issus, in 333 BC, which saw the utter rout of the Persian forces.

ALEXANDER MEETS DYING DARIUS



Alexander and his great foe, Darius III of Persia, met at last. After his defeat, Darius fled to Medea, in 331 BC, where he was murdered just before Alexander caught up with him. Here the final meeting is reconstructed according to original accounts—Alexander still paid respect to his dead foe who had long been the scourge of Greece and Macedonia.

Lebanon and Egypt—Alexandria Founded

Pushing southward, Alexander then stormed the fortified city port of Tyre in present-day Lebanon, seizing the city after a siege of seven months. He then captured Gaza and in quick succession occupied Egypt, the disorganized and enfeebled nonwhite chieftains there offering little real resistance.

In 332 BC Alexander founded a new city in Egypt—which he modestly called Alexandria. This city would later become the literary, scientific, and commercial center of the Greek world. Cyrene, the capital of the ancient North African kingdom of Cyrenaica, submitted to Alexander soon afterward, extending his dominion to the city of Carthage (present-day Tunisia). There his troops set up a ruling aristocracy from whom the great general, Hannibal, would emerge to test the Roman Empire some two hundred years later.

Darius Killed—the Fall of Babylon 331 BC

Turning northward again, Alexander drew up reinforcements and with an army of forty thousand infantrymen and seven thousand cavalry, marched on Babylon. Crossing the Euphrates and the Tigris rivers, he met the Persian king, Darius, once again, who, according to Macedonian records, had drawn up a new army one million strong—certainly once again an exaggeration, but still nonetheless completely outnumbering Alexander's forces.

At the Battle of Gaugamela, on October 1, 331 BC, Alexander once again beat Darius, who fled and was killed by two of his own generals. The city of Babylon then surrendered and Alexander occupied the Persian capital city of Persepolis. Within three years, Alexander had occupied a huge stretch of land, and all resistance crumbled before his ruthless army. His empire extended along and beyond the southern shores of the Caspian Sea, including present-day Afghanistan and northward into central Asia.

In the Footsteps of the Aryans—Alexander Invades India

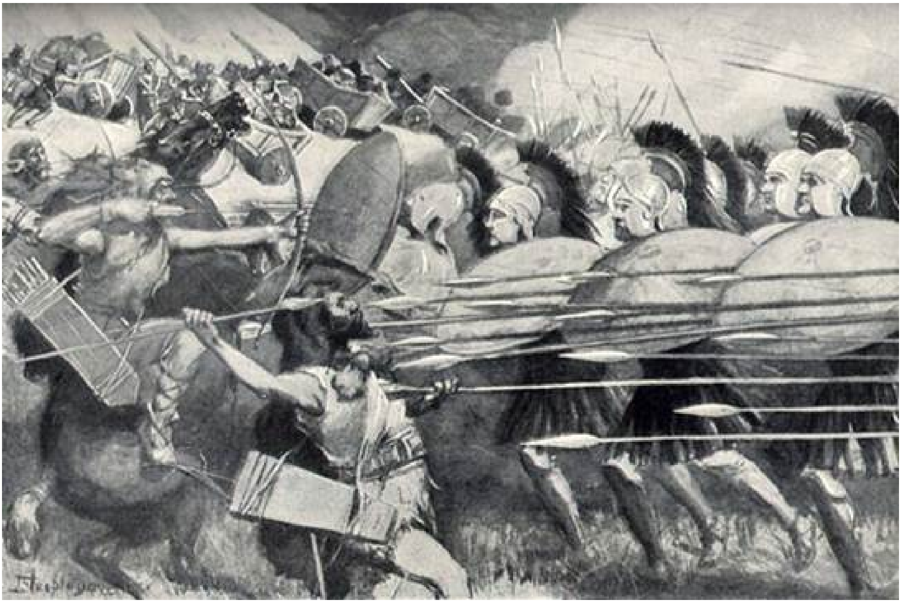
In order to complete his conquest of the remnants of the Persian Empire, which had once included part of western India, Alexander crossed the Indus River in 326 BC, and invaded the Punjab region, following the footsteps of the Indo-Aryans of some 1,200 years previous.

At this point Alexander's army rebelled and refused to go any further, seeing no point in marching endlessly on, getting further and further away from their homes without any respite in sight. Sensing that he had to get his men home quickly, Alexander then pulled off another incredible feat. He constructed a fleet of ships then and there and sailed down the Indus River, reaching its mouth in September 325 BC. He then sailed with his army to the Persian Gulf and returned overland across the desert, arriving in Babylon in 323 BC. It was while on this return journey that Alexander contracted fever and died in Babylon.

Alexander founded twenty-five cities—an amazing achievement all by itself. Many of them bore his name or local translations of his name, but one became most famous of all: Alexandria in Egypt, which is where he was buried. Founded in 332 BC, this city became the new capital of Egypt and in 300 BC a library and a place of learning was started, later to become world famous as the Library of Alexandria. The library was said to have contained the greatest single concentration of contemporary knowledge in the world at that time. Alexandria also became noted for its famous lighthouse. It stood at least 377 feet (115 meters) tall and had a fire and reflective mirrors at the top.

Because it was one of the tallest manmade structures for many centuries, it was identified as one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. Although he only ruled for a short period of thirteen years (336–323 BC), dying at the age of thirty-three, Alexander etched his name into history by singlehandedly creating the greatest land empire the world had ever seen.

BATTLE OF GAUGAMELA—ALEXANDER DEFEATS DARIUS 331 BC



Alexander's final defeat of Darius, the Persian emperor, at Gaugamela. In the two years following his first defeat at the Battle of Issus, the Persian emperor gathered together a new army, usually said to be one million strong—but when he confronted Alexander's superb army at Gaugamela on the Tigris River in 331 BC, his forces were once again annihilated.

Alexander's Racial Unity Fails

Despite having easily overcome the entire mixed-race populations of the Middle East, Alexander publicly declared himself to be in favor of racial integration.

To this end he was an ardent exponent of ensuring the compliance of invaded nations by issuing orders that his Macedonian occupiers be integrated with the subject peoples. He ordered that all his generals should take wives from the conquered peoples, most of whom were racial mixtures of Semites, Arabs, Negroids, and original whites.

Alexander himself took a nonwhite wife, a Persian princess who was of mixed race. He also started dressing like the peoples he had conquered, and in 324 BC at a city called Susa he personally officiated at an arranged mass wedding of nine thousand of his senior army officers to Middle Eastern wives—the famous “marriage of East and West” meant to symbolize the new racial unity he was hoping to create.

Upon Alexander’s early death, almost all of his senior officers who had been forced into these multiracial marriages renounced their imposed wives and set up pure white Macedonian ruling classes in the areas which had been placed under their control.

Alexander’s Empire Divided after His Death

At the time of his death there was no obvious successor to Alexander (as his one son was very young and the other was retarded —both were murdered in 305 BC and that ended the debate on succession), and within two decades his empire split into four units, three of them ruled by his former generals. Asia was ruled by Seleucus and his family, who founded the Seleucid Empire; Greece and Macedonia were ruled by Antigonus, and Egypt was ruled by the most famous of these generals, Ptolemy. The fourth unit, Asia Minor (Turkey), became independent.

Antigonids Rule Greece for 113 Years

Antigonus and his successors ruled most of the Greek mainland from 281–168 BC, when they were finally defeated by the Romans. The conflict with Rome escalated slowly and then come to a head when the Antigonid kings, notably Philip V provided help to the famous general, Hannibal of Carthage, in his campaigns against Rome.

This led to three wars with Rome and the eventual defeat of the Macedonians in 168 BC at the Battle of Pydna. This conflict is regarded as the official end of the Alexandrian Empire in Greece. The Romans installed their own rulers, but a revolt by the Corinthians forced Rome to send a new army, which defeated the rebels at the Battle of Corinth in 146 BC. After that, all of Greece finally came under direct Roman rule.

The Ptolemies—Macedonians Who Ruled Egypt for three hundred Years

Left: Ptolemy I Soter, the first Macedonian ruler of Egypt. Ptolemy was one of Alexander the Great's generals who, upon the latter's death, took the land of Egypt as his kingdom in 323 BC. He set up a white ruling class over the large mass of mixed-race inhabitants. The Ptolemies kept themselves separate from the mass of nonwhite Egyptians, most never even bothering to learn their language, but taking on the ways and customs of ancient Egypt. Center: Arsinoe II Philadelphus, wife of Ptolemy II, one of the most powerful of the Macedonian Egyptian queens. The Ptolemy family were to rule Egypt until the famous Cleopatra VII, right, who was defeated in battle by the Roman emperor Octavian Augustus at the sea Battle of Actium in 31 BC. Cleopatra committed suicide in 30 BC and Egypt became a Roman province. All through this period, whites were a minority in Egypt.

Ptolemaic Egypt—World's First Museums

Alexander's General Ptolemy established the Ptolemaic reign in Egypt, which lasted from 323–30 BC. By far the best known Ptolemaic Egyptian queen was Cleopatra VII, a white woman who won fame due to her relationships with the Romans Julius Caesar and Mark Anthony. Although the Ptolemies in particular ensured that their line was always pure Macedonian, they did take on many of the dress and cultural aspects of the long past ancient Egypt, calling themselves pharaohs, and producing monuments and buildings in the style of the ancient white Egyptians. Embalming and mummification became common once again.

Ptolemy I established a center of learning and research known as the musea, today called a museum—the first in the world.

The Ptolemaic reign provided a new short lease of life to Egypt, but the largely Arabic/mixed-race local population soon overwhelmed the heavily outnumbered white Macedonians, who also had to contend with the vigorous new white civilization of Rome.

Ptolemaic Egypt included present-day Israel, parts of Syria, and even a small part of southern Turkey. Most of these lands were lost to military attacks by the Seleucidians—descendants of yet another of Alexander's generals—around the year 220 BC. The loss of Palestine marked the waning of the Ptolemaic power in Egypt, with tensions between the overwhelmingly nonwhite Egyptians and the white Greek immigrant rulers erupting into violence. Upper Egypt broke away and was ruled by its own nonwhite population between 205–185 BC.

In spite of these pressures, the ruling white Macedonian Ptolemies preserved their Greek culture, and only the very last Ptolemaic ruler, Cleopatra VII (the most famous one), ever bothered to learn the Egyptian language. It was this Cleopatra who, after first becoming the lover of the great Roman, Julius Caesar, married his friend Mark Anthony after Caesar's murder. A Roman army subsequently defeated Cleopatra and Mark Anthony's combined forces (the Battle of Actium) and after this Cleopatra and Mark Anthony committed suicide.

This event marked the end of Ptolemaic Egypt, which was the very last Hellenistic kingdom. After the Battle of Actium, Ptolemaic Egypt was handed over to Rome as yet another province. As the racial balance in the other parts Alexander's empire shifted increasingly against the Macedonians, so the remains of his empire slowly crumbled away into oblivion.

By the time of the defeat of Cleopatra VII, Alexander's empire had long since ceased to exist. As there were too few pure Macedonians to colonize the entire empire, the Macedonian outposts were little more than islands in a sea of people who had long since lost any semblance of racial homogeneity. It was, therefore, only a matter of time before these islands were submerged.

Seleucids Crumble from Racial Diversity

General Seleucus seized an enormous part of Alexander's empire, the area stretching from southern Turkey to the Sinai Desert and eastward to include Mesopotamia and parts of present-day Iraq and Iran. Despite repeated attempts to encourage Macedonian settlers into the region, the Seleucids never had enough manpower to control the vast area properly. Fairly soon their empire also began to crumble under the pressure of trying to contain large numbers of widely diverse racial and ethnic groups within the borders of one state.

In the northern parts of the Seleucid Empire, for example, descendants of Macedonian soldiers teamed up with scattered Indo-European tribes and local mixed-race peoples to break away from the Seleucids to form the relatively short-lived states of Bactria and Parthia. Some of these Indo-Europeans were marauding Celts, who had also occupied a part of Northern Macedonia. The eastern reaches of the Seleucid Empire at one stage reached to the borders of India, but this region also steadily drifted out of control. In 168 BC, King Perseus of Macedonia was defeated by the Romans at the Battle of Pydna and the Macedonian monarchy was abolished.

In 146 BC, Macedonia and Greece became direct Roman provinces after a short-lived rebellion by the Macedonians, and in 64 BC, the Seleucid Empire was conquered by the Roman general, Pompey, and became a Roman province. The Romans did not realize it then, of course, but in occupying these regions they also took on the problem which had led to the dissolution of Alexander's empire—the huge number of nonwhites who would soon overwhelm them in these regions and eventually penetrate right to Rome.

SELEUCUS I NICATOR, MACEDONIAN FOUNDER OF SYRIA

Seleucus I Nicator, one of Alexander the Great's generals who founded the kingdom of Syria. As in all other parts of the Macedonian Empire, a white ruling class was created. They were all, however, soon to be submerged among the largely mixed-race inhabitants of those regions.

Alexandrian Age—Cultural Achievements

The period from 320–330 BC is known as the Alexandrian Age. During this time, a number of philosophic, cultural, and scientific advances were accomplished, including the formulation of three well known philosophies: Epicureanism, stoicism, and skepticism.

Epicureanism was started by the philosopher Epicurus (342–270 BC) of Samos on the Ionian coast in Turkey. He did not believe in an afterlife and taught that the highest good was to obtain material benefits during one's lifetime. This philosophy was later misinterpreted to mean merely sensual pleasure.

In opposition to Epicurus was Zeno of Cyprus, who argued that there should be only one aim in life—freedom from the desires of life, where the ideal state was to be tranquil and indifferent to both pain and pleasure. This philosophy was called stoicism. Skepticism said that all opinions about pain or pleasure were subjective so there could not be one sensible truth or dogma—the skeptics questioned the very basis of all facts.

Circumference of Earth Measured 200 BC

As a result of Alexander's conquests, Greek science merged with what had been found in Babylon and Egypt and produced a number of advances. The expansion of geographic knowledge allowed scientists to make maps and plot the size of the earth, which was already identified as a sphere through the observation of its shadow during a lunar eclipse.

The keeper of the Library of Alexandria, Eratosthenes (276–195 BC), calculated the circumference of the earth to within some 200 miles (321 km) by measuring the difference in angles of shadows cast at midday by two identical poles set in the earth in the north and south of Egypt.

In the third century BC, Aristarchus of Samos first propagated the theory that the earth rotates on its own axis and revolves around a stationary sun. Not until the 1500s AD were scientists to realize that Aristarchus was right. Another great man from Alexandria was Euclid the mathematician (circa 300 BC), who developed the forms and theorems of geometry as still used today.

Archimedes (287–212 BC) of Syracuse is most famous for his discovery of the laws of hydraulics, that a solid object displaces liquid to the same volume as the object itself (which he, probably apocryphally, is said to have discovered while in the bath and then run outside naked in the street shouting "Eureka"). Archimedes also calculated the exact ratio between the circumference of a circle and its diameter, known as Pi, and developed the famous Archimedes screw, a means of pumping water uphill through the use of a large screw in a tube.

The greatest contribution of the Alexandrian Age was the transference of a large amount of classical knowledge to the new power in Europe—Rome.

When Roman legions occupied mainland Greece, they were so amazed at the civilization that they took sculpture, architecture, and much else back to Rome.

CHAPTER 11: The Age of the Caesars—Pre-Christian Rome

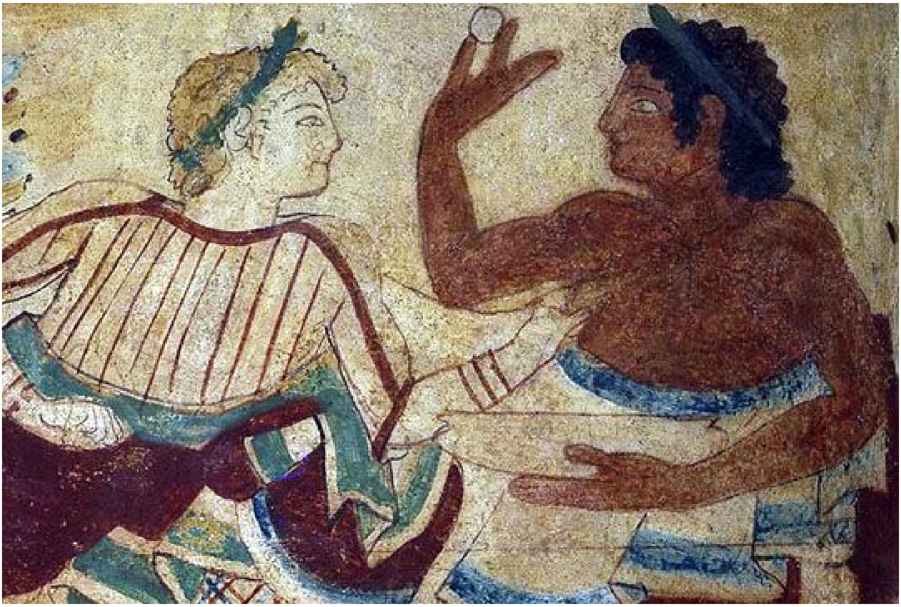
The Italian peninsula had originally been settled by a Proto-Nordic/Alpine Mediterranean white racial mix during the Neolithic age, with the Alpine and Mediterranean elements being in the majority.

From around 2000 BC, Indo-European migrants from central Europe (and originally from southern Russia) settled in northern Italy, crossing the Alps from present-day Austria and Hungary. Among these people were Celtic tribesmen known as the Latini. Racially speaking, they were predominantly Nordic in nature. Another group of whites, known as the Etruscans, also settled in Italy by the year 800 BC.

The Etruscans—Advanced Old Europeans

The Etruscans were a mixture of the original Old European white subgroups, but were culturally and militarily superior to the original inhabitants of Italy. As a result, they soon dominated a large part of northern Italy. The Etruscans established a sophisticated society, building cities and settlements which were certainly far more advanced than anything else seen in the country till that time.

However, the Etruscans were not the only ones interested in Italy. By 800 BC, a number of the Greek city-states had also established settlements in southern Italy and Sicily. These were not merely imperialist colonies; the outposts also served as a buffer from the increasing number of forays from the aggressive and powerful city of Carthage, situated on the North African coast in the country known today as Tunisia.



An Etruscan couple, from the Tomb of the Leopards, a burial chamber dated to around 450 B.C. Monterozzi necropolis, Lazio, Italy.

Rome Founded By Etruscans 700 BC

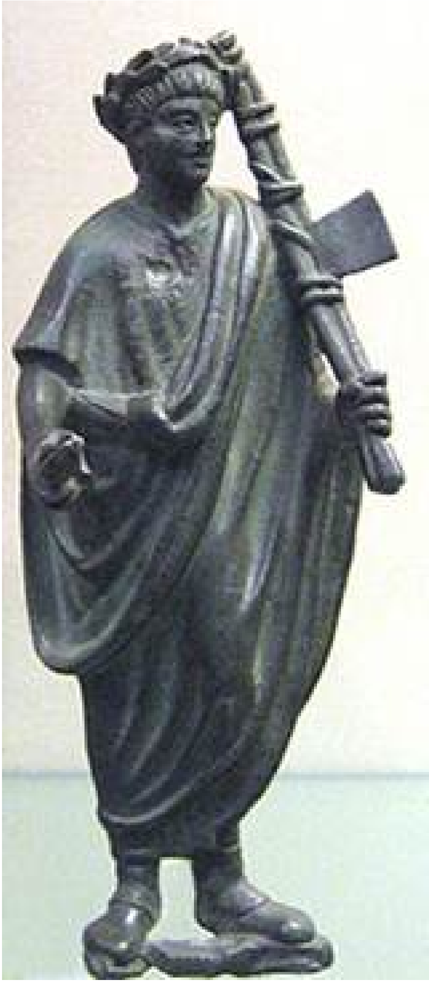
According to Roman legend, the city of Rome was founded around the year 753 BC by the orphaned twin brothers Romulus and Remus, who were saved from death in their infancy by a she-wolf who had sheltered and suckled them.

Whatever the origins of the city, by the year 700 BC it had been firmly established on the seven hills around the Tiber River valley, and by the sixth century BC, the city and surrounding areas were ruled by the Etruscans.

Rome at this stage was ruled by kings elected by the people. The symbol of the elected king of Rome became known worldwide as a symbol of power: an ax head bound together in a bundle of reeds, called a fasces.

The rationale behind the symbol was that each tribe was represented by one reed—by themselves they could be easily broken, but bound together they could be a powerful force.

The fasces symbol, which was used by the twentieth century Italian leader Benito Mussolini, can still be seen today reposing under the hands of Abraham Lincoln in the Lincoln Memorial in the capital of the United States of America, Washington DC; in the Oval Office; on the walls of the House of Representatives; and on the Supreme Court building, among many other places. Advising the first Roman kings were the heads of all the leading families gathered together in a group called the senate. This body remained in place, with varying powers, until the fall of the Roman Empire some 1,500 years later. The senators and their families became the upper class of Rome, called the patricians, while the common people were known as the plebeians.



A Roman lictor carrying a fasces—reeds bundled together with an ax head. The symbol of authority in ancient Rome, it derived its meaning from the fact that singly, reeds can be broken and bent, but bound together, they are strong. The fasces became a worldwide symbol of authority, and can be found in much Western architecture. Mussolini's Fascist Party took their name and party symbol from the fasces.

The Appian Way—One of Rome's Greatest Roads

The Appian Way as it appeared at the height of Rome's prosperity. Originally built around 310 BC by Appius Claudius, this great highway ran from Rome to Capau, and was later extended to Brindisi. Extending from Rome, it was lined for nine miles with lavish mansions and imposing tombs of noted Romans. Today only a few ruins and the road remain.

The Early Republic (509–133 BC)

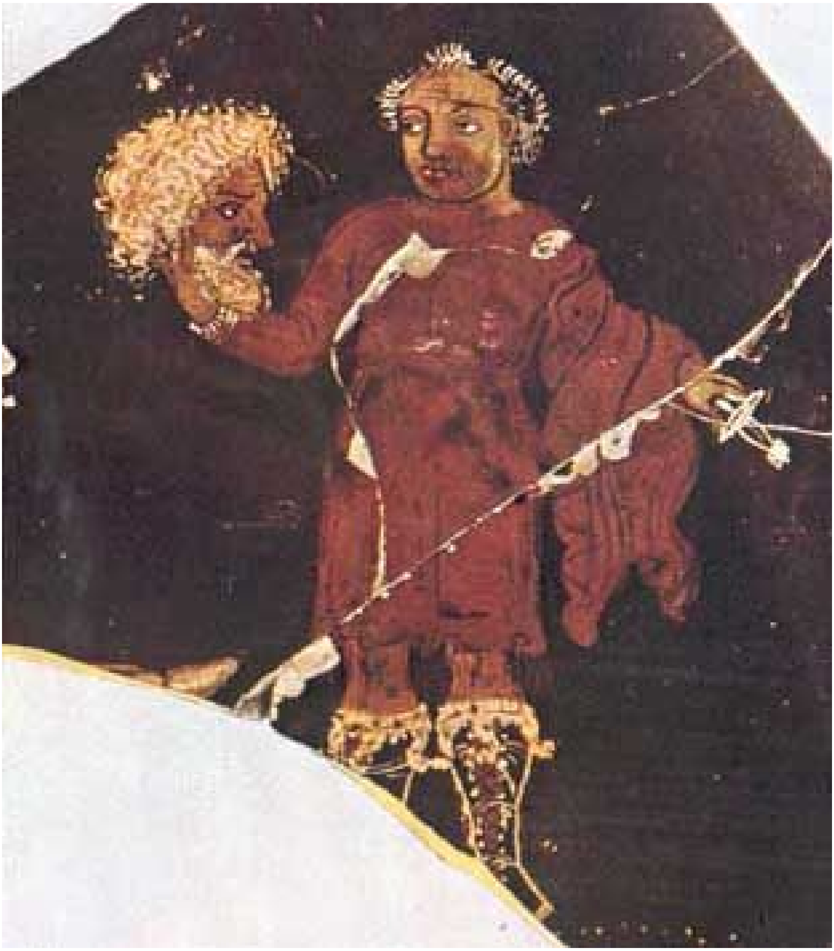
In the year 509 BC, a group of patricians led a rebellion against a particularly unpopular Etruscan king, threw him out, and set up a republic in Rome. This rebellion's most famous incident was a battle outside the gates of Rome when the legendary Roman soldier Horatio personally faced off against the Etruscan king's army while the bridge to the city was destroyed, preventing the Etruscans from regaining control of the capital.

The power held by the former king was now passed on to two annually elected rulers, called consuls. Other cities within central and northern Italy formed an alliance and challenged the power of the new republic of Rome, leading to a Roman defeat at the Battle of Lake Regillus in 496 BC.

Three years later, in 493 BC, the Roman Republic joined the alliance. It became known as the Latin League and it set about dislodging the last of the Etruscan strongholds.

Although originally not as advanced as the Etruscans, by 400 BC the Latini had adopted much of Etruscan culture and in all respects had surpassed their former masters, both militarily and culturally. The secret of their success—as indeed with the whole Roman Empire—was their astonishing ability to organize on a scale not seen since the days of the first Egyptians.

By 400 BC, the Latin League had successfully overthrown all the last vestiges of Etruscan rule, and from then on the Etruscan peoples were completely absorbed into the Latini, creating a Nordic/Alpine/Mediterranean mix which became characteristic of the early and middle Roman Empire, with Nordic elements tending to form the ruling class.



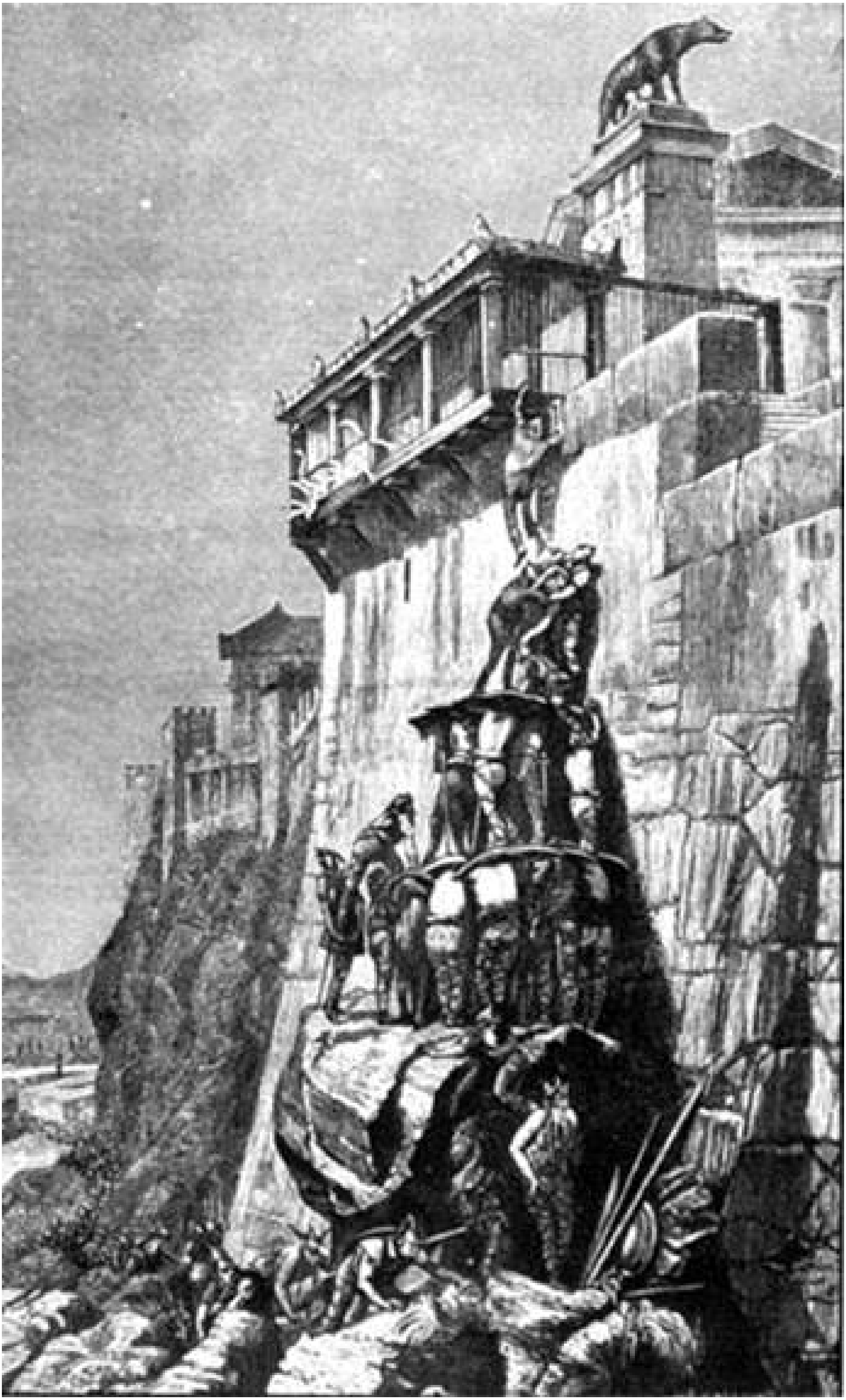
A piece of painted pottery from circa 350-325 BC, south Italian (Tarentine), showing an actor. Called 'Tragic Actor Holding a Mask', it is a fine example of early Roman racial types, although it is possible that the actor himself is also wearing a mask. Martin von Wagner Museum, University of Würzburg, Germany.

All the tribes making up the Latin League acknowledged Rome to be the leading city of the alliance, even though, as it later turned out, they were unhappy with the situation.

It was during this period of nation forming that the Romans wrote their first major legal code. In 450 BC, the Law of the Twelve Tables was laid down, which served as the foundation for the entire Roman legal system and laid the basis for many present-day legal systems all over the world. Mirroring the older Greek Spartan tradition, the Twelve Tables specifically called for the euthanasia death of any infant showing conspicuous deformities or retardation—

an example of basic eugenics at work among these early Romans.

CELTS SACK ROME 387 BC



The first sacking of Rome by the Celts. Gauls, from present-day France, *attacked the city in 387 BC. The city held out for seven months before they capitulated and were forced to pay a weighty ransom in gold. The citizens of Rome were first alerted to the Celtic attackers by the honking of the sacred geese of the god Juno, who sounded the alarm as the Celts stormed the walls.*

Celtic Gauls Attack—the First Sacking of Rome 387 BC

The Romans faced another serious crisis. In 387 BC, Gauls, the descendants of Celtic tribesmen who had settled in France, launched an attack on Rome, and eventually sacked the city.

They were only finally persuaded to leave by the Romans bribing them with gold. The Gaulish invasion showed a serious weakness in the ranks of the Latin League—the other components of the alliance had refused to help Rome against the Gauls.

This was not forgotten by the Romans, who, by 380 BC had not only rebuilt their city and erected huge defensive walls around it, but had also started preparing a new and more powerful army.

In 338 BC, after entering into an alliance with certain smaller tribes around Rome, the Romans turned on their former allies in the Latin League and decisively defeated them becoming, by 280 BC, the dominant force in Italy.

Greek Wars and the Origin of the Pyrrhic Victory

As Roman power and influence grew, a clash with the Greek settlements in southern Italy became inevitable. War broke out as the Romans started occupying the southernmost points of Italy.

A Grecian king named Pyrrhus, from the city of Epirus in northern Greece, was hired by one of the Grecian cities in southern Italy, Tarentum, to help ward off the Romans. Pyrrhus managed to inflict a defeat upon the Romans which temporarily stayed the latter’s excursions.

However, the cost of the victory—in terms of men and materials—was so great, that it exhausted the Greek expeditionary force, and by 270 BC, all of Italy had fallen to Rome, with the Greeks unable to maintain the war. Ever since then, any empty victory—which ultimately leads to a long-term defeat—has been called a Pyrrhic victory.

PYRRHUS AND THE PYRRHIC VICTORY 279 BC

An original bust of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus in Greece, who came to Italy and Sicily with his army and elephants to help the Greek cities in those territories against the expanding Romans. Although gaining an initial victory, it was at such a cost to his forces that he was ultimately defeated. Ever since, any hollow victory which ultimately leads to defeat is known as a pyrrhic victory.

Carthage—a Threat to Rome

With the elimination of Greek bases in Italy, only the city of Carthage on the North African coast seriously threatened further Roman expansion. Carthage had been founded around the year 800 BC by the mixed Mediterranean/Semitic Phoenicians, and had become an independent and powerful force in its own right. A large Nordic infusion had taken place in the region after the occupation by Alexander the Great, and by the time of the wars with Rome, Carthage was at its peak.

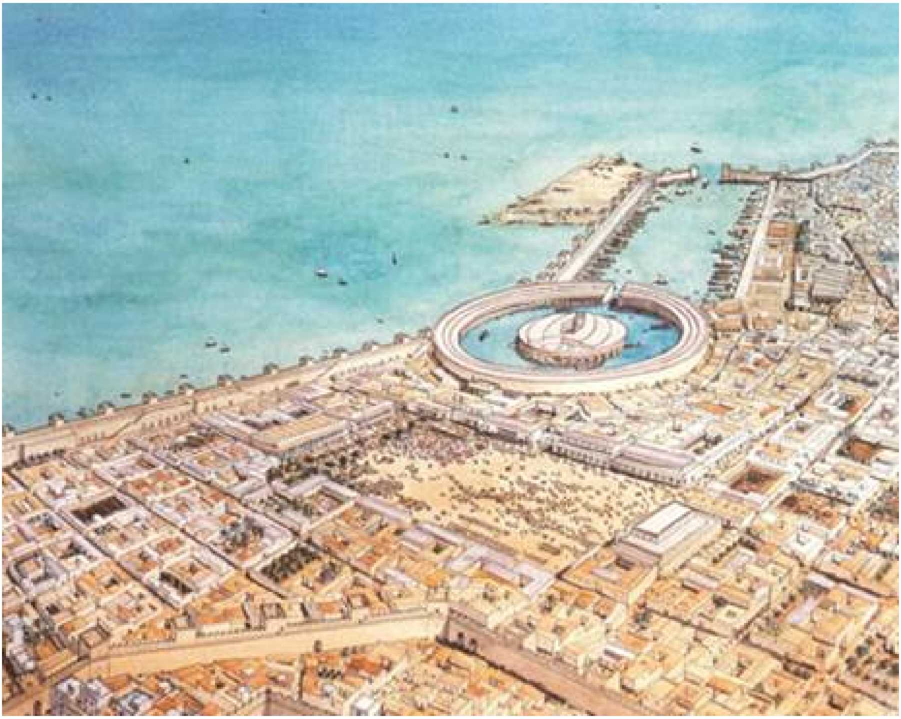
The Latin word for Phoenician, Punicus, from which the word Punic was derived, is the reason why the Roman wars against Carthage are called the Punic Wars.

First Punic War Fought Over Sicily

In 264 BC, war broke out between Rome and Carthage over possession of the island of Sicily. After suffering initial reverses, the Romans defeated the Carthaginians, who were forced to sue for peace in 241 BC. In terms of the peace treaty, Rome administered Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, adding to the growing territorial possessions of the city republic.

Carthage Harbor—Foremost Port of the Ancient World

The city of Carthage, situated on the Tunisian coast, was for many years Rome's greatest enemy. Originally established by the Phoenicians, who were an Old European/Mediterranean people who had mixed with a small number of Semites, the city's population received a massive infusion of Nordic blood when it fell under the control of the Macedonian Alexandrian empire. Its ruling classes became almost exclusively Nordic, and the city was built up on a scale which rivaled Rome.



Top: A reconstruction of what the harbor looked like in its prime, based on archaeological diggings and Carthaginian and Roman descriptions of the great city. Below: The remains of the harbor of Carthage, as can be seen in the present-day. When Rome finally overwhelmed Carthage, its soldiers razed the city built a Roman center next to the ruins.

Second Punic War—Hannibal Invades Italy

The Second Punic War is also known as Hannibal's war, named after the great Carthaginian general who, after a long epic campaign, very nearly routed the power of Rome. After having lost control of Sicily and other Mediterranean islands, Carthage sent an army to invade and occupy Spain between 237–219 BC. The original whites and Celtic settlers in the region were no match for the battle experienced Carthaginians, and were overrun relatively quickly.

Then, starting in 218 BC, Hannibal led an army of about fifty thousand men and a troop of thirty-seven African elephants across southern France and through the Alps in northern Italy (only one of his elephants survived the incredible journey). For the next fifteen years he attacked the Romans up and down the length and breadth of Italy.

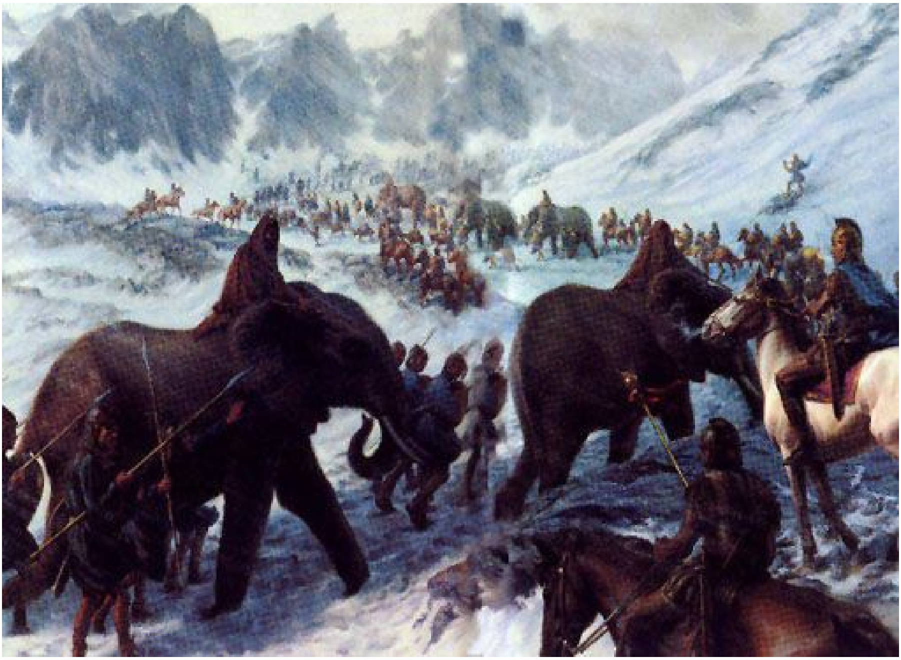
Hannibal had many victories, with the greatest being the Battle of Cannae where he defeated a numerically superior Roman force. For a while it appeared as if the Romans had finally met their match, but a Roman general, Scipio, hit upon the idea of repaying Carthage in kind. He invaded North Africa, using the logic that if Hannibal could invade Italy and threaten Rome, the Romans could invade North Africa and threaten Carthage. The tactic worked, and Hannibal was forced to return to defend Carthage, leaving behind much of his army on the European mainland.

Rome was then able to invade Spain and drive out the Carthaginian armies. Hannibal was finally defeated by the Romans at the Battle of Zama in 202 BC, and another peace treaty followed. According to the terms of this treaty, Carthage agreed to disarm, pay an indemnity to Rome, and hand over its Spanish colonies to Roman rule. Hannibal was never forgiven by the Romans, who pursued him right into Asia Minor (Turkey) where he committed suicide in 182 BC.

The War That Gave Africa its Name

The Nordic face of Hannibal, Carthage's greatest warrior, from a silver coin struck at that city around 220 BC. Founded by the Phoenicians, the city of Carthage had received a major Nordic subracial input when it was occupied and colonized by Nordic Macedonians under Alexander the Great. It was from a long line of Nordic Carthaginian nobles that Hannibal was born.

A bronze bust of the Roman general, Publius Scipio, who finally defeated Hannibal at the Battle of Zama in 202 BC. The Romans called their new colony “Africa”—and in this way the white Romans gave Africa (and Africans) the name by which that continent and its people are known today.



Hannibal's troops crossing the Rhone River on their way to attack northern Italy. Only one elephant actually survived the crossing of the Alps.

Roman Occupation of Greece 146 BC

The defeat of Carthage left the Romans free to assert their authority in the east. The Macedonians, who had helped Hannibal, were the first to be punished for this deed by the Romans.

The legions of Rome invaded Macedonia in 200 BC, defeating the Macedonian army in 197 BC. The Greek mainland then came under Roman protection, although many city-states were allowed self rule.

However, continuous turmoil and infighting between many of these cities eventually compelled Rome to directly occupy the whole region, an operation which was completed by 146 BC (in that year Roman legions destroyed the Greek city of Corinth).

For the next sixty years, Greece was almost completely administered by Rome, although some cities, such as Athens and Sparta, retained their free status. In 88 BC, Roman territories were invaded from the east by the king of Pontus, Mithridates. Many Greek cities supported the invading king in the belief that they would regain their independence.

A Roman army forced Mithridates out of Greece and crushed the rebellion, sacking Athens in 86 BC and Thebes a year later. Roman punishment of all the rebellious cities was heavy, and the campaigns fought on Greek soil left central Greece in ruins. In 22 BC, the Greek city-states were separated from Macedonia and the Romans made these city-states into one province called Achaea. During the reign of the Roman emperor, Hadrian (117–138 AD), many of Athens' famous buildings were restored out of the ruins. The continuing Roman restoration work was interrupted by an invasion of Goths, who in 267 and 268 AD overran Greece, captured Athens, and laid waste the cities of Argos, Corinth, and Sparta. From the sixth to the eighth centuries, Slavonic tribes from the north migrated into the peninsula, occupying Illyria and Thrace. After the Goths left, the Grecian peninsula, thoroughly ravaged by centuries of warfare and racial mixing, settled down to a period of relative obscurity as a province under the Eastern Roman Empire of Byzantium.

Rome had by this time succeeded in establishing itself as the dominant new power in the Mediterranean, and in 168 BC, Egypt (then still under Macedonian Ptolemaic rule) formally allied itself to Rome.

This meant that by 168 BC most of the Mediterranean—from Spain right around the Mediterranean coast through Greece, parts of Turkey, Egypt, and the North African coast up to Tunisia, was either under direct Roman rule or allied to Rome.

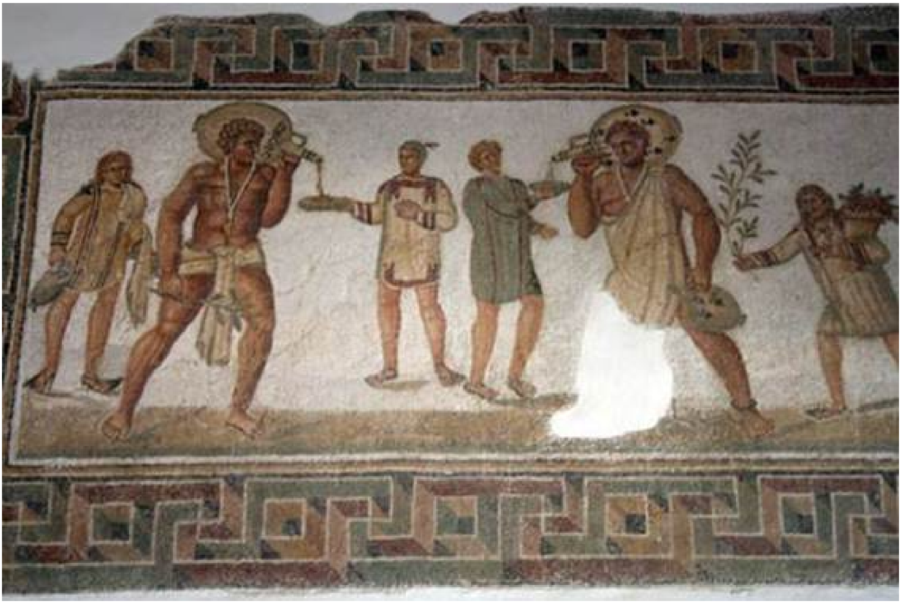
Third Punic War—Carthaginians Exterminated

The enmity between Carthage and Rome was so deep that it could not be buried with a mere treaty, and in 146 BC, war between the two powers broke out once again. By this time, however, Roman power was vast, and Carthage was besieged and destroyed.

This time Rome wrote no treaty. To ensure that the Carthaginians never threatened them again, the Romans killed or enslaved the population, physically destroyed the city, and plowed over the ruins, putting salt into the earth so that nothing would grow there again.

At the end of the Third Punic War, the Romans physically occupied what is today known as Tunisia and refounded a new city of Carthage—a Roman one. They called it the province of "Africa," a name which later was used to refer to the entire continent. In this same manner, Roman conquests in the east led to the creation of the Roman province of "Asia"—once again a Roman name became the name of an entire continent.

BLOND ROMANS CONQUER NORTH AFRICA



Above: A Roman mosaic from Carthage on display at the Bardo Museum in present-day Tunis, Tunisia. The scene shows Romans pouring what appears to be wine from an amphora. The original color shows all the subjects with blond hair, an indication of the racial makeup of the Roman conquerors of North Africa. Note also the swastika motif framing the figures, a common pattern in Roman art. Below: The remains of the Roman coliseum in the town of El Jem, south of Tunis. This well-preserved building is second in size only to the more famous Coliseum in Rome and is better preserved.

Civil Strife—the Late Republic 133–30 BC

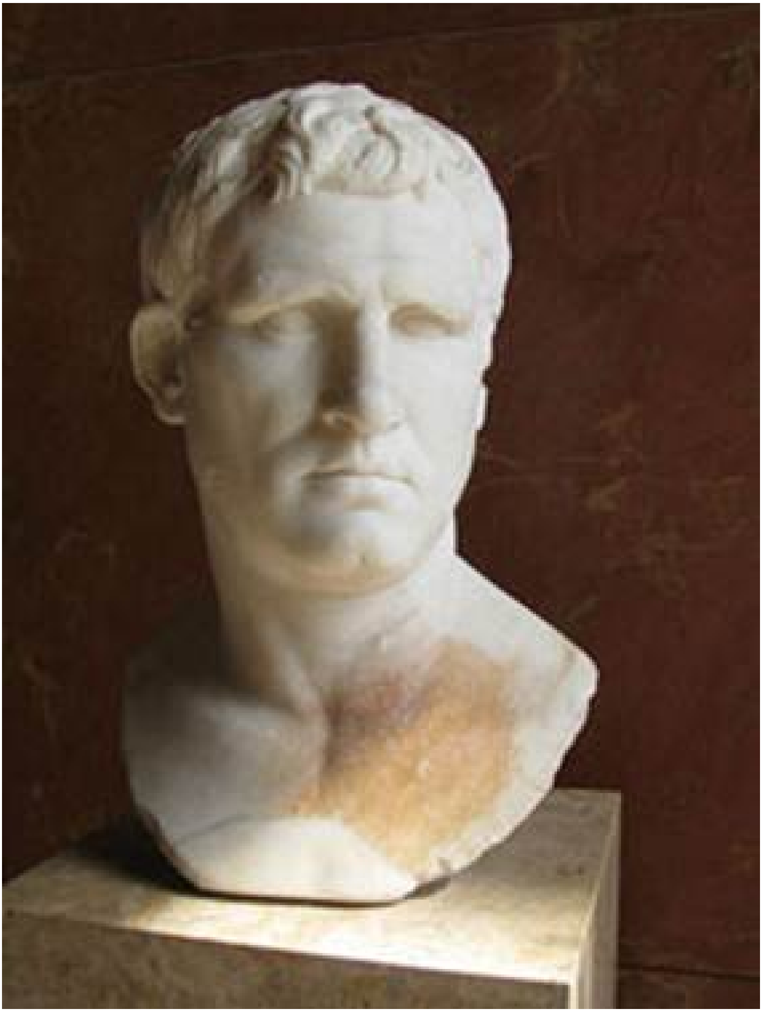
In 133 BC, the ruler of an independent state in central Asia Minor (Turkey), one Pergamum, died. When his will was read, he had left his country to Rome. This somewhat bizarre wish—which was duly carried out—served as a springboard for the later Roman occupation of the rest of Asia Minor and the Middle East. The period from 133 to 30 BC is known as the Late Republic, during which Rome was to experience civil strife not seen since the days of the Latini insurrection against the Etruscans. In addition to this, Rome also engaged in a number of foreign wars.

Slaves—the Seeds of Rome's Decline

From the earliest times, the Romans had been importing slaves into their homeland. This ultimately led to Rome being filled with all manner of people who bore no resemblance to the Romans. Slaves from the Far East, Africa, and the Semitic-speaking world filled the slave houses of Rome in their hundreds of thousands.

Eventually such large numbers created the constant threat of open rebellion. The most famous slave uprising took place in 73 BC, led by Spartacus. This rebellion had to be suppressed by force of arms with a full Roman army.

Men Who Shaped the History of Rome



Marcus Agrippa (63–12 BC), Roman general who from 31 to 36 BC won a number of battles against the rivals of Octavian Augustus, which resulted in Octavian becoming the first Roman emperor.

Vespasianus, Roman emperor (69–79 AD), who led legions in Germany and Britain. He began the suppression of the Jewish revolt and in 70 AD, had Rome's Coliseum built.

Marcus Nerva, Roman emperor (96–98 AD), who was the first to allow non-Romans—and thus ultimately nonwhites—to sit in the senate in Rome as regional representatives of the Roman provinces.

Hadrian, Roman emperor (117–138 AD), who realized that the empire was too big and halted its expansion. He built walls at the borders of the empire, the most famous of which bears his name in England.

Civil War between Plebeians and Patricians

Internally, Rome had become increasingly divided between the patricians and the plebeians, especially with regard to land distribution. Some patricians realized the need for reform. The most famous of these was Tiberius Gracchus, who was elected to the post of tribune (a modern equivalent would be prime minister) in 133 BC.

The reforms Gracchus implemented earned him the hatred of the wealthy classes, and in 134 BC he was assassinated. His work was then taken up by his brother, Gaius Gracchus, who was elected tribune in 123 BC. Also initiating far-reaching social reforms, Gaius succeeded in establishing a form of social welfare which did not work properly and almost bankrupted the state. It served only to stir up the hatred of the upper classes in a manner not seen even against Tiberius Gracchus.

In 121 BC, after a particularly severe outbreak of civil violence in which several thousand of his supporters were killed, Gaius Gracchus committed suicide. The deaths of the Gracchus brothers were to herald all-out civil war in Rome.

By the year 100 BC, a number of able Roman generals had risen to prominence. They subdued and held onto the numerous Roman colonies scattered around the Mediterranean coast. Each of these generals was in command of his own army, and although theoretically they were supposed to serve the Roman state, in reality they operated as private armies working in the interests of their generals.

After physically clashing with some of the other armies, General Cornelius Sulla emerged as the strongest leader and became the de facto ruler of Rome. Remarkably, after introducing a number of reforms (including extending the powers of the senate) Sulla resigned voluntarily from the affairs of state.

Caesar Crosses the Rubicon 49 BC

By this time two other generals had emerged, each with his own army: Pompey and Julius Caesar. Pompey had led Roman legions in Italy, Africa, Spain, Asia Minor, and even as far as the Euphrates River valley. He had also been instrumental in helping to suppress the famous slave uprising led by Spartacus in 73 BC. Julius Caesar had conquered Gaul (France) and some of the Germanic tribes (descendants of the original Celts and far-off cousins of the original Latini) as far as the Rhone River. He had landed an invasion force in Britain between the years 58–51 BC. As Caesar’s name, fame, and influence spread, Pompey and others in Rome realized the threat and ordered him to disband his powerful army and return to Rome. He refused to do so, and instead marched to Rome from his base in France.

Caesar crossed the Rubicon River in 49 BC, irrevocably committing himself to war with Pompey (the Rubicon marked the official boundary of Rome, and hence once crossed, the declaration of war was taken for granted). Within a short while, Caesar crushed all opposition and formally established himself as ruler.

Caesar the Man—Orator, Writer, and Conqueror

Although the most famous of the Romans, Caesar only ruled for five years (49–44 BC). He was an outstanding writer and orator, and instituted far-reaching reforms, from altering the makeup of the senate to the institution of a public works program.

He also introduced the 365-day solar year calendar (based on Egyptian knowledge—in Rome it became known as the Julian calendar) which, with minor alterations, is the same one the Western world uses to this day. The month of July is named after him. Caesar took as his mistress the Macedonian Ptolemaic queen, Cleopatra VII of Egypt, in what was most likely a strategic alliance on both their parts.

In 44 BC, Caesar was assassinated on the steps of the senate in Rome by a group opposed to his almost royal control of the affairs of state. Caesar had considered his powers to be hereditary, and had left a will in which he named his eighteen-year-old nephew, Octavian, as his heir.

Caesar and Pompey—Rivalry that Changed Roman History

Julius Caesar (left) and Cnaeus Pompey (right). Pompey and Caesar had both amassed large followings in Rome as army generals who were responsible for adding vast stretches of land to the Roman Empire. Pompey had extended Rome's power in the east, putting down the Seleucid Dynasty and setting up the Roman province of Syria, while Caesar had occupied Gaul, raided Germany, and invaded Britain and Spain. Concerned at Caesar's growing popularity, Pompey and the rulers of Rome who were his allies, called on Caesar to disband his army and return to Rome. Caesar *refused to disband his army, and instead marched on Rome. Caesar won the civil war (49–45 BC) which followed and Pompey was forced to flee to Egypt, where he was assassinated. Caesar became ruler, changing the course of Roman history by establishing what became the Roman Empire. Caesar was assassinated in 44 BC by Romans opposed to his increasingly autocratic rule.*

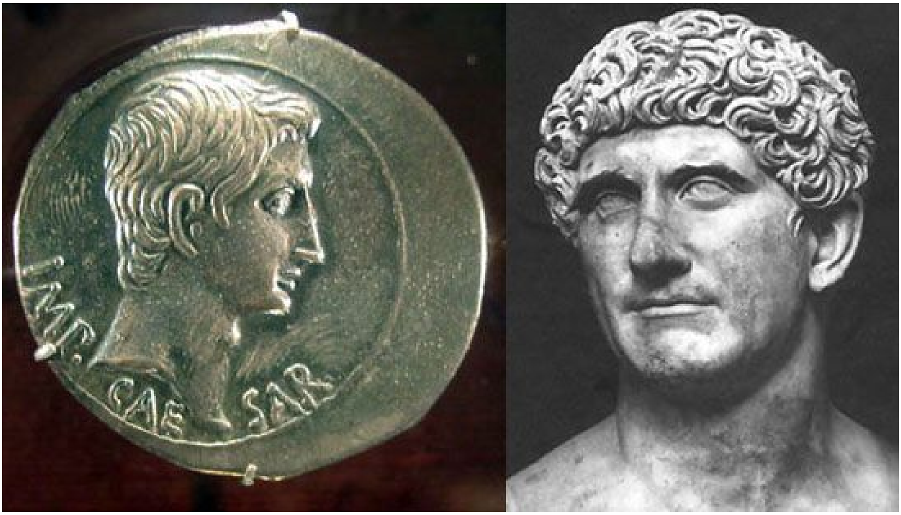
Octavian Augustus

After suppressing and exterminating much of the opposition (including the renowned orator and senator, Cicero), Octavian and one of Caesar's colleagues, Mark Anthony, ruled with complete autocratic powers for a decade.

Mark Anthony married Cleopatra, Caesar's former mistress, giving her Roman territories as wedding gifts. Octavian used this act as an opportunity to incite Rome against Mark Anthony and the long-standing partnership between the two degenerated into civil war.

Both Octavian and Mark Anthony had large fleets at their disposal, and they finally met in battle in 31 BC, at Actium in Greece. Mark Anthony was defeated and committed suicide, as did his wife the following year when the city of Alexandria was captured by Roman forces.

Great Rivals—Octavian Augustus and Mark Anthony



Octavian (left) was the grandnephew and heir of Julius Caesar. The first emperor of Rome (27 BC–AD 14), he brought to an end nearly a century of civil war and strife. He presided over an era of peace, prosperity, and *cultural achievement known as the Augustan Age. When Caesar was assassinated in 44 BC, Octavian was serving in the Roman army in Illyria. Keen to avenge Caesar and secure his own position, he first made peace with his nearest adversary, Mark Anthony (right), Caesar's ambitious colleague. Along with a third potential rival, the general Marcus Aemilius Lepidus, the three men formed a triumvirate to rule Rome, after first dispatching all their combined enemies, including the famous orator Cicero. Octavian and Anthony then marched against the leaders of Caesar's assassins, Marcus Brutus and Gaius Cassius Longinus, who were defeated and committed suicide in 42 BC. The triumvirate did not last. While Lepidus was in the east fighting Parthinians, Octavian removed him from office. Mark Anthony had in the interim married the Macedonian Ptolemy queen, Cleopatra of Egypt, and recognized Caesarion, her son by Caesar, as her coruler. This undercut Octavian's position as the only son of Caesar, and war was inevitable. Octavian and Mark Anthony clashed at the naval Battle of Actium in 31 BC. Octavian won and both Mark Anthony and Cleopatra committed suicide the following year. Caesar's true son, Caesarion, was then murdered. In 29 BC, Octavian returned to Rome in triumph, at age thirty-four the sole master of the Roman world. In 27 BC the Roman senate gave Octavian the title "The August One" (Augustus), and from then on he was known as Octavian Augustus, eventually having a month of the year named after him. Despite being heaped with honors and titles—including the word "imperator" (from which the word "emperor" is derived)—Octavian never took on the formal trappings of a monarchy, always insisting that he had restored the republic. He nonetheless remained the real power in Rome for his lifetime. A patron of the arts, Augustus was a friend of the poets Ovid, Horace, and Virgil, as well as the historian Livy. His love for architectural splendor was summed up in his boast that he "had found Rome brick and left it marble." He also initiated moralistic legislation that included sumptuary (restrictions on private expenditure in the interest of the state) and marriage laws. He died peacefully in 14 AD, acknowledged as one of the greatest Roman rulers in all of that empire's history.*

Pax Romana—Rome Flourishes 30 BC–235 AD

At the end of a century of civil strife (133–30 BC), Rome was finally united under one ruler. Thereafter ensued what became known as the Pax Romana, the Peace of Rome, which lasted for well on two hundred years, from 30 BC to 235 AD.

This time also marked the racial undoing of the empire, caused by the long-term effects of the inclusion of foreign lands and peoples. This process was intensified through the bypassing of an ancient law created by that nation's founding fathers which prohibited marriages to non-Roman citizens.

Upon Octavian’s victorious return to Rome in 29 BC, the senate conferred upon him the title of honorable or August (Augustus), a name by which he became known thereafter.

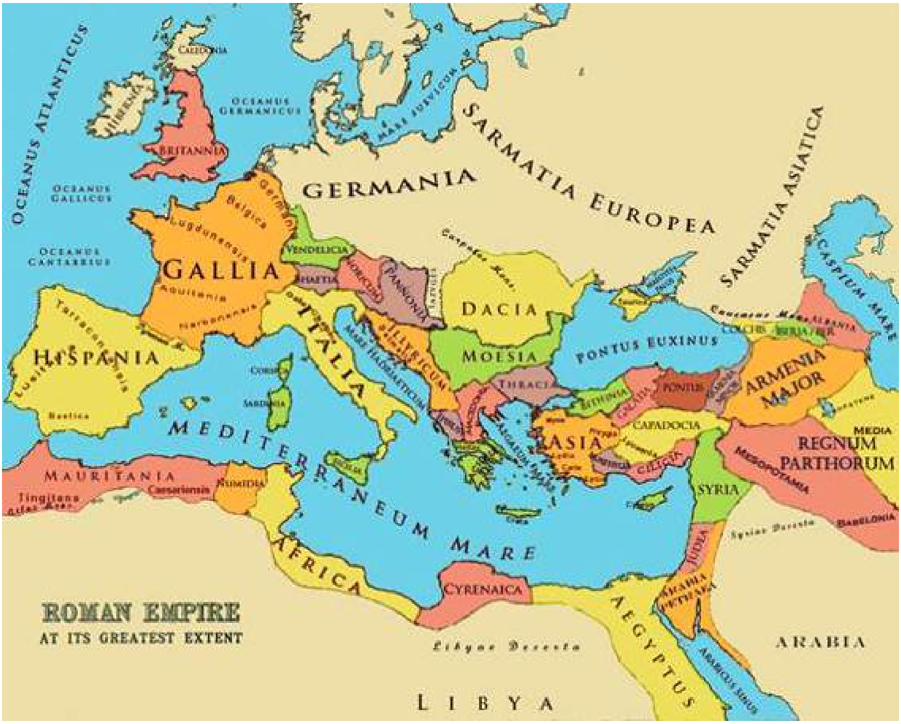
Octavian Augustus held no official government position in Rome after 23 BC. He was, however, de facto ruler of Rome through his position as supreme leader, or imperator, of the Roman army. It was from the word imperator that the word emperor was derived.

The time of the Pax Romana was also known as the “Principate” because political power was divided between the senate and the “principes.” The princeps (singular) was the foremost person of Roman society, or the “first among equals,” as Octavian described it. During his forty-four year reign Octavian Augustus established a stable and efficient public service, an equitable taxation policy, and consolidated the Roman Empire’s borders.

Under his command the borders of the empire moved up the Danube River and into Germania as far as the Rhine, but he suffered a dramatic reverse when the Germans inflicted a massive defeat upon the Roman armies in 9 AD at the Battle of Detmold.

In the Middle East, Sulla’s army had campaigned against the (by now racially mixed) Parthian Empire as early as 92 BC, but it was only the emperor Trajan who managed to finally subdue the Parthians—although he quickly handed their lands back to them in what was claimed to be an act of conciliation.

Empire of the Caesars—The Extent of Roman Civilization circa 150 AD


OCEANUS ATLANTICUS
CALEDONIA
HIBERNIA
BRITANNIA
OCEANUS GERMANICUS
OCEANUS GALLICUS
OCEANUS CANTABRIUS
MARE SUEVICUM
GERMANIA
SARMATIA EUROPEA
SARMATIA ASIATICA
CASPIUM MARE
Germania
Belgica
Lugdunensis
GALLIA
Aquitania
Narbonensis
VENDELICIA
RAETIA
NORICUM
PANNONIA
DACIA
MOESIA
THRACIA
PONTUS EUXINUS
Caucasus Mons
ALBANIA
COLCHIS
IBERIA
ARMENIA MAJOR
HISPANIA
Tarraconensis
Lusitania
Baetica
ITALIA
CORSICA
SARDINIA
MARE HADRIATICUM
ILLYRICUM
MEDITERRANEUM MARE
BITHYNIA
GALATIA
PONTUS
CAPADOCIA
ASIA
CILICIA
SYRIA
MEDIA
REGNUM PARTHORUM
MESOPOTAMIA
BABYLONIA
Syriae Deserta
JUDEA
ARABIA PETRAEA
MAURITANIA
Tingitana
Caesariensis
NUMIDIA
AFRICA
CYRENAICA
AEGYPTUS
ARABICUS SINUS
ARABIA
Libyae Deserta
LIBYA
ROMAN EMPIRE
AT ITS GREATEST EXTENT

Furthest extent of the empire's borders with names as given by the Romans to the various regions.

The Julio-Claudian Dynasty Ends with Nero

After the death of Octavian Augustus, he was succeeded by four descendants of his family, called the Julio-Claudian family. The first two, Tiberius and Claudius, were just and efficient, and it was during the reign of Claudius that the occupation of Britain, begun by Julius Caesar approximately one hundred years earlier, was completed (in 43 AD).

The third Julio-Claudian emperor was the famous Caligula, who is reputed to have gone insane, once allegedly making a favorite horse into an ambassador. The fourth Julio-Claudian emperor was the equally famous Nero, best known for his persecution of the Christians by throwing them to the lions.

The Christians were at that stage still a tiny group, one among many flourishing under the Pax Romana. The Julio-Claudian line came to an end in 68 AD with Nero's suicide. While Nero was emperor, Rome suffered severe damage in a big fire in 64 AD.

The Flavian Dynasty—Coliseum Built

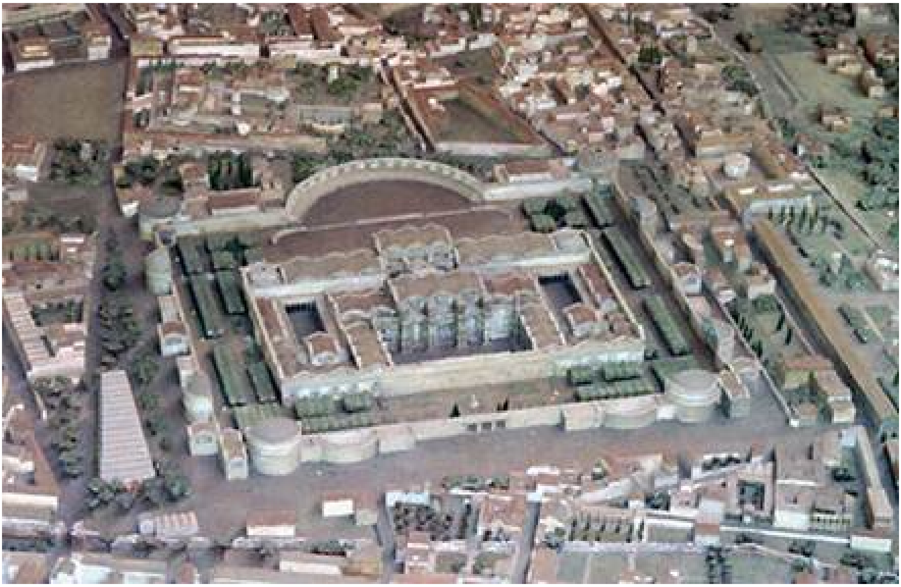
A brief power struggle erupted upon Nero's death, and Flavius Vespasianus (also known as Vespasian) assumed power in 69 AD. He restarted orderly government and founded the Flavian dynasty, which lasted until 96 AD. The Coliseum in Rome (which still stands today) was built by the order of Vespasian, and was originally called Flavian's Amphitheater. Vespasian's son, Titus, ruled from 79 to 81 AD. He is best remembered for his military exploit of capturing Jerusalem in 70 AD, nine years before he became emperor. By the time of the last Flavian emperor, most Romans had accepted that the imperator, or emperor, was the real ruler of Rome.

Nerva and the First Nonwhites in the Senate

Following the Flavian line came the Antonines—or the "five good emperors," who ruled from 96 to 180 AD. The first of these was the emperor Nerva, who ruled from 96–98 AD. Nerva is of importance because he established the rules of secession. Before he died he adopted a promising individual (who would thereafter be called a Caesar) who was then trained to take over the position of emperor when the time came. This system set the standard for many years to come.

Nerva was also the first emperor to allow members of the Roman senate to be chosen from all over the empire. This was a significant step, as the empire extended into territories such as North Africa and the Middle East, all of which had long since lost their significant white majority populations. Nerva's rule marked the first appearance of non-Romans—and nonwhites—in the senate, and hence the government, of Imperial Rome. This process meant that by the end of the second century AD, senators of pure Roman descent were in the minority.

Health and Fitness Roman Style—the Baths of Diocletian



Above: A reconstruction of the greatest health and leisure complex in history, the magnificently decorated Baths of Diocletian, built during that emperor's reign (284–305 AD). Consisting of exercise halls, saunas, and swimming pools, the baths match any modern Western shopping and entertainment complex in size and grandeur, and covered an area greater than any modern sports stadium. Below, the ruins as they can be seen in the present day.

Dissolution of the Roman People

The empire reached its peak in terms of territorial expansion under the next emperor, Trajan, who ruled from 98–117 AD. By this time huge numbers of racially foreign peoples were filling all of the noncontinental European Roman colonies, and were appearing in significant numbers in Rome.

The next emperor, Hadrian (117–138 AD), built the famous Hadrian's Wall of stone across the north of England to keep the remnants of the Scottish Celts out of Roman England.

This was part of an attempt by Hadrian to reduce the size of the empire. Possibly he saw the process of disintegration at work, and he ordered many territories in the eastern parts of the empire to be given up. Under his rule, large slices of the eastern territories, except for Dracia (modern Romania) were effectively abandoned by the Roman Empire. If this was an attempt to stem the flood of foreigners pouring into the southern parts of the empire, it was a futile one.

Attempts to Increase White Roman Population Fail

An overt attempt to preserve the Roman bloodline had been made by Octavian Augustus. He issued several decrees prescribing heavy penalties for celibacy or for marriage with slaves or the descendants of slaves. Another Octavian law was that all Romans between the ages of twenty-five and sixty must be married—and hopefully produce children.

Finally in the year 9 AD, Octavian announced tax concessions for Roman families with three or more children. Unmarried persons were barred from public games and could not receive inheritances, while childless married people could only receive half of any inheritance due to them. All these measures failed during Octavian's own lifetime.

As early as 131 BC, the Roman censor, Metellus, had called for a law compelling Roman citizens to marry. Julius Caesar, Augustus, Nero, and Trajan all offered prizes for Roman citizens having more than four children.

Roman Policy Causes Growth of Non-Roman Peoples

In continental Europe, the Pax Romana saw the benefits of Roman society bear fruit. The population increased and the Roman penchant for organization was swiftly taken up by the European peasantry in their regions.

This process was enhanced by the Roman system of government, which relied on a few Roman administrators arriving in a region, and then getting locals to help with the administration and running of the territory in return for offices of state.

In this way the Romans "Romanized" many of their subject territories. While this did not affect the racial balance in Gaul and other parts of western and eastern Europe (central Europe or Germania remained forever out of Rome's reach), it had dramatic effects in the regions to the east and south which were majority occupied by nonwhite peoples.

This policy was also applied in the other reaches of the Roman Empire—with disastrous consequences for Rome in the Mediterranean territories of North Africa, Egypt, and the Middle East.

In these latter territories huge numbers of the racially mixed populations (consisting of white, Semitic, Arabic, and Mongoloid mixtures) drew the benefits of Roman civilization for as long as the Romans themselves existed.

This meant a dramatic increase in the population due to increased living standards, and so the Romans helped to engineer the nonwhite racial flood that would eventually overwhelm them from the south.

It is interesting to note that the original Indo-European-descended Romans viewed anyone who was dark with suspicion. The Roman proverb "*hic niger es, hunc tu, Romane, caveato*" ("He is black, beware of him, Roman") is recorded by Horace as being a common saying among Romans of the time (*Satire,* i. 4, 85).

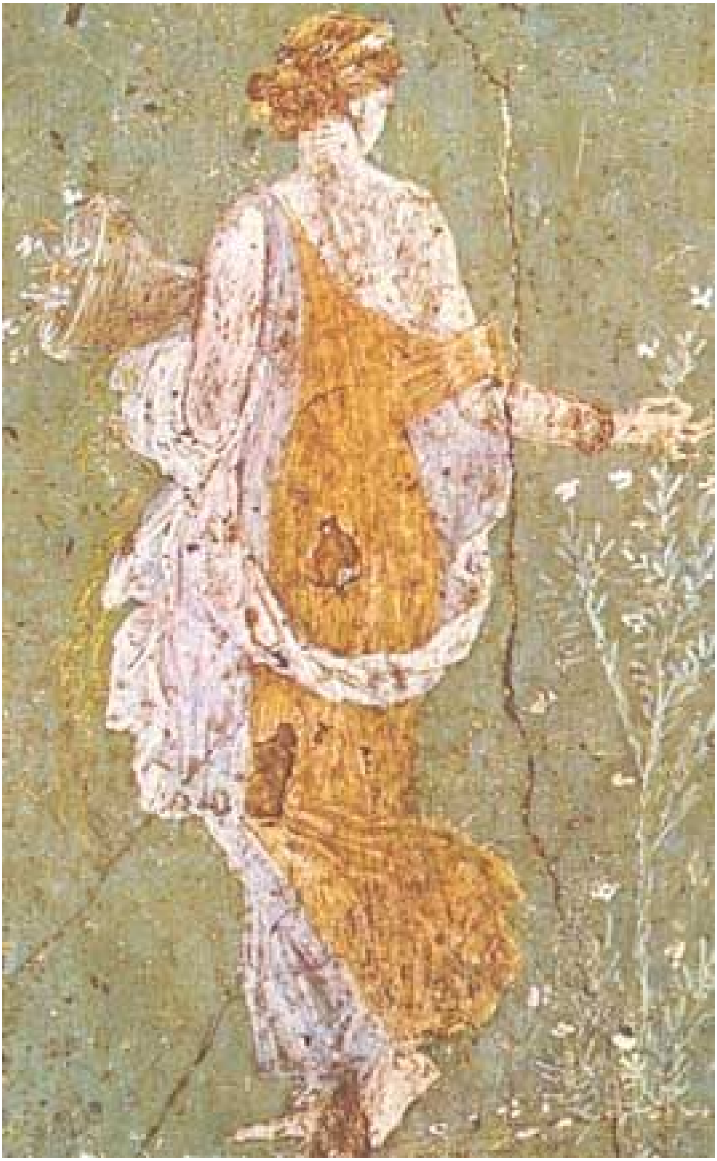
This is not to say that the Romans of the Late Republic or of the Pax Romana resisted the physical integration process.

On the contrary, they seemed to have welcomed it as an essential part of empire building and as a means to keep subdued populations under control. It is unlikely that they could have foreseen the long-term consequences it would create.

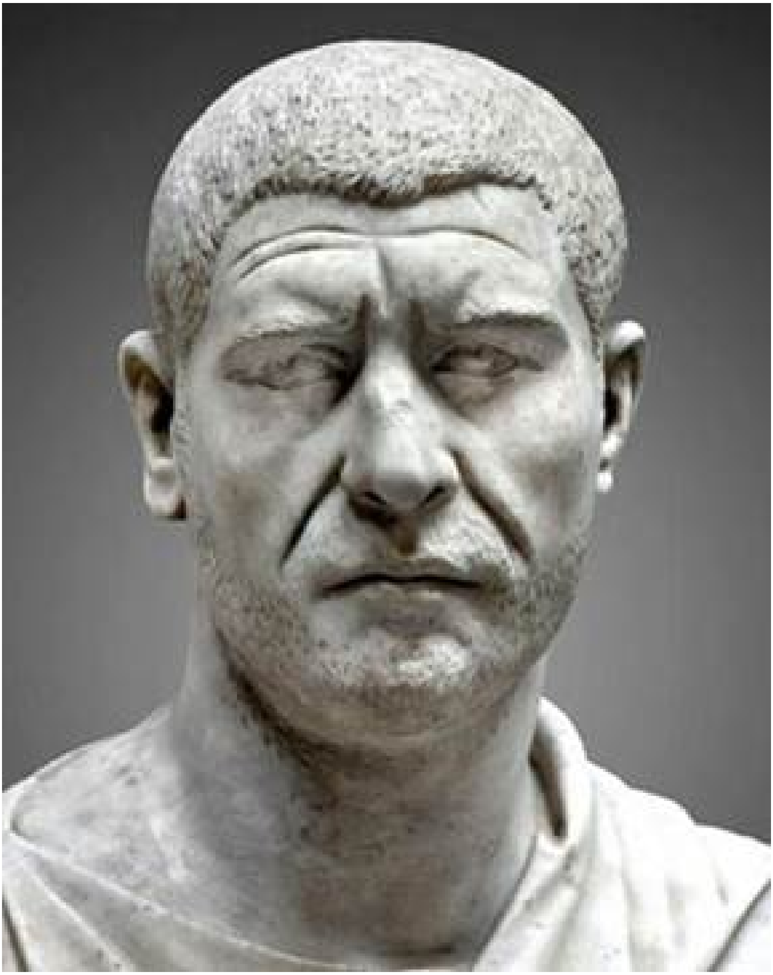
The original spark which created the Roman civilization was extinguished when the last of the true Romans was bred out within the vast reaches of that empire.

Hence there are today Roman ruins in Africa, the Middle East, and indeed, even in Rome—silent monuments to a people long gone.

ROME—FROM BLOND TO PEPPERCORN HAIR



The fall of Rome is encapsulated in these two images. Top: A painting of a blonde Roman woman in southern Italy, Primavera, *a wall painting from Stabiae, first century AD, National Museum, Naples. Compare this to the official bust of the emperor, Philip (244–249 AD), below. Born in the Roman province of Arabia, in what today is the village of Shahba, roughly fifty-five miles (eighty-eight kilometers) southeast of Damascus, Philip's father was a prominent local man, Julius Marinus, who had been awarded Roman citizenship and was thus not a native born Roman. Nothing is known of Philip's mother. Known as "Philip the Arabian," he was an* *emperor who was clearly not of pure European descent. This bust accurately captures his short "peppercorn" hair, an obvious sign of nonwhite ancestry, Vatican Museum, Rome.*



German Resistance Halts Roman Expansion

The Romans never managed to penetrate into central Europe past the Rhine River, with their last attempt to seize present-day Germany halted in the year 9 AD. This created a physical division in the white peoples of northwestern Europe. At that time one section (Gaul and Britain) fell completely under the sway of Rome, and the other section (the German tribes) remained Rome's implacable enemies, fighting the empire at every opportunity.

Ironically, these Germanic tribes (or barbarians, as the Romans liked to call them) were originally far-off Celtic cousins of the Latini. It was these barbarians who finally overran Rome after it had bred its true Romans down to an insignificant minority, causing the great imperial flame to flicker and die.

Extent of Empire Proves Its Undoing

At its height the Roman Empire stretched from England to the Rhine, from Spain to Asia Minor, and from North Africa to the Tigris/Euphrates rivers. The vast number of peoples and races drawn into the empire's influence does not need to be exaggerated. Roman coins found in India and Scandinavia indicate the extent to which Romans traveled as traders or soldiers.

The Romans may have believed that the integration of foreigners into Rome and its system of government was the way to create an empire. The reality is, however, that nonhomogeneous societies are the least cohesive, while homogeneous societies are the most cohesive. So it was that the ever increasing number of foreigners within the empire made it all the more difficult to hold together. Internal dissension, political problems, and social ills were often compounded by brutal or incompetent emperors.

Finally, by 192 AD, the throne was actually auctioned by the emperor's own private guard (the Praetorian Guard, founded by Octavian Augustus) after a particularly ineffectual emperor had been murdered after just three months in office.

The winner of the auction did not last very long and was in turn deposed by Septimus Servus, who was chosen by the army.

Rome's Fate Sealed—Edict of 212 AD

Servus was unremarkable, but his son, Caracalla, who ruled from 211–217 AD, was the Roman emperor who finally opened the racial floodgates on the Roman Empire and sealed its fate. In 212 AD, in an apparent attempt to broaden the Roman tax base, Caracalla passed an edict giving Roman citizenship to all free males within the empire. This proclamation, known as the *Constitutio Antoniniana,* (or "Edict of Caracalla" as it is more commonly known), turned centuries of Roman law on its head and had effects far greater than just broadening the tax base. Early Roman law had made provision for the maintenance of racial homogeneity by stipulating that persons could only be citizens if both their parents were Roman citizens. Those who married non-Roman citizens could not claim Roman citizenship for their children. This was a direct way of biologically excluding all foreign nationals from Roman citizenship.

As the Roman Empire expanded, so the definition of citizenship became broader and broader, till finally with Caracalla's edict, all free men, no matter what their racial or national origin, qualified for Roman citizenship. The last hold preventing the dilution of Roman blood had been abandoned.

The early Romans placed great emphasis on maintaining their racial homogeneity, but by the end of the second century AD, the concept of universality had become a dominating theme throughout the empire.

By the time of Caracalla's edict, a large amount of racial mixing had already occurred due to the sheer size of the empire and the fact that it included so many racially alien elements within its borders. This process was now given legal support. Interracial marriages and mixed-race children became more and more common after this, and slowly but surely, Rome and the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean lost its white leadership core. Thus the fate which had befallen all the other great civilizations, namely the disappearance of the founding population through physical integration, crept up on Rome.

Although this change in racial demographics was not as marked in Rome as in the easternmost outreaches of the empire, it was dramatic enough to change the very nature of the civilization. Foreigners from all over the mixed-race Middle East poured into Rome, attracted by its wealth and status. Being granted citizenship, these foreigners were steadily absorbed into the Roman population, to the point where today very few Italians can still claim pure Roman descent.

The result is that certain population elements in the south of Italy and in Sicily are today clearly of mixed-racial origin, mainly a mixture of Arabic and white. However, there are still flashes of the original population with light skin, light eyes and/or light hair.

The path followed by Rome mirrored that followed by Sumeria, the Middle East, Egypt, and Greece. All of these civilizations remained intact as long as the society which created them remained homogeneous. As soon as these societies lost their homogeneity and became multiracial, the very nature of the societies changed and the original civilizations disappeared. Rome would prove to be no exception to this rule.

CHAPTER 12: Power and Purpose—the Glory of Rome

The fact that the Roman Empire dissolved into a multiracial polyglot does not detract from the very many fine cultural and engineering achievements of the original Romans.

It is, however, very noticeable that the greatest Roman achievements date from before the time of the racial dissolution of the empire—once again mirroring earlier civilizations.

Roman Social Life—Sports and Athletics

Roman social life concentrated on great athletic and sporting events. The tradition of blood sports—gladiators killing each other for the amusement of spectators, was not a sport associated with the original Romans.

It only became common once Rome had started to fill up with foreigners, although there was certainly no active resistance among the original Romans to the rise of the bloody spectacles. The attraction to blood sports was also used as a political tool.

Very often prisoners who had been found guilty of some particularly heinous crime would be fed to the lions, as often happened with the early Christians under the emperor Nero.

Circus Maximus—Largest Stadium Complex in History

The huge Circus Maximus in Rome. This was the greatest Roman entertainment complex of all time, able to seat 300,000 spectators. The first parts of the Circus Maximus were built around 600 BC, and substantially enlarged by Julius Caesar, who also added canals which could flood the theater floor so ships could be sailed to reenact sea battles.

The Circus Maximus, which was far larger than the famous Coliseum, did not survive. It was broken up and much of its stone was used to build the many Christian churches in Rome today after that religion came to dominate Europe. Below, the Circus Maximus today.

Wrestling and chariot racing were both popular amusements. The largest sports stadium in Rome was the Circus Maximus, which could easily seat approximately 300,000 people and could be filled with water to reenact sea battles between regular sized ships.

The Circus Maximus stood for centuries, but its stone was eventually broken up for use in Christian buildings during the Middle Ages. Almost every major Roman town, from North Africa right through to the Near East, boasted a theater or amphitheater—some are still in use to this day.

ROME 100 AD—METROPOLIS OF ITS TIME

Matching any modern city in size and complexity, this model of the ancient city of Rome shows the Circus Maximus in the background and the Coliseum in the foreground. With running water, ordered streets, blocks of apartments, and huge educational and entertainment facilities, the citizens lacked for nothing.

Roman Religion—a Mixture of Beliefs

One distinguishing feature of Roman religion before the advent of Christianity was that there was no single faith or belief. In many ways the religious world of Rome reflected the empire. It was a mix of different cults and beliefs, with influences from Greece, Egypt, and the Middle East.

Many of the oldest Roman gods reflected the nature of the first Romans—representing the practical needs of daily life and military prowess.

Roman Gods' Names Still in Use Today

Janus and Vesta guarded the door and hearth; Lares protected the field and house; Pales the pasture, Saturn the sowing, Ceres the growth of the grain, Pomona the fruit, and Consus and Ops the harvest. Jupiter, the ruler of the gods, was not only credited with bringing rain, but was also known for his weapon, lightning (as was the Greek chief god, Zeus), and was the protector of the Romans in their military activities beyond the borders of their own community.

Mars was a god of young men and war and along with Jupiter, Quirinus, Janus, and Vesta, formed the first Roman pantheon of gods.

As part of their policy of absorption, native gods from conquered surrounding lands were usually granted the same honor with which the Roman gods were held. Formal invitations were often issued to the religions’ leaders to take up residence in Rome. There they were entitled to build temples to their gods and bring with them whatever precious artifacts were associated with their beliefs. This growth in the number of foreign religions had another serious consequence—foreigners were attracted to the city in ever increasing numbers.

Deities from neighboring tribes in Italy which became Roman gods included Diana, Minerva, Hercules, and Venus. The Roman religious calendar also reflected Rome’s willingness to absorb foreign cults.

The oldest Roman festivals lasted till the very end of the pagan Roman era, and marked the original Indo-European festivals of spring and winter. One of the most important festivals was the Saturnalia which was celebrated for seven days, from December 17 to 23, during the original winter solstice time. All business was suspended; slaves were given temporary freedom, and gifts were exchanged.

Another important festival was the Lupercalia, which celebrated Lupercus, a pastoral god. The festival was celebrated on February 15 at the cave of the Lupercal on the Palatine Hill, where the legendary founders of Rome, Romulus and Remus, were supposed to have been nursed by a she-wolf.

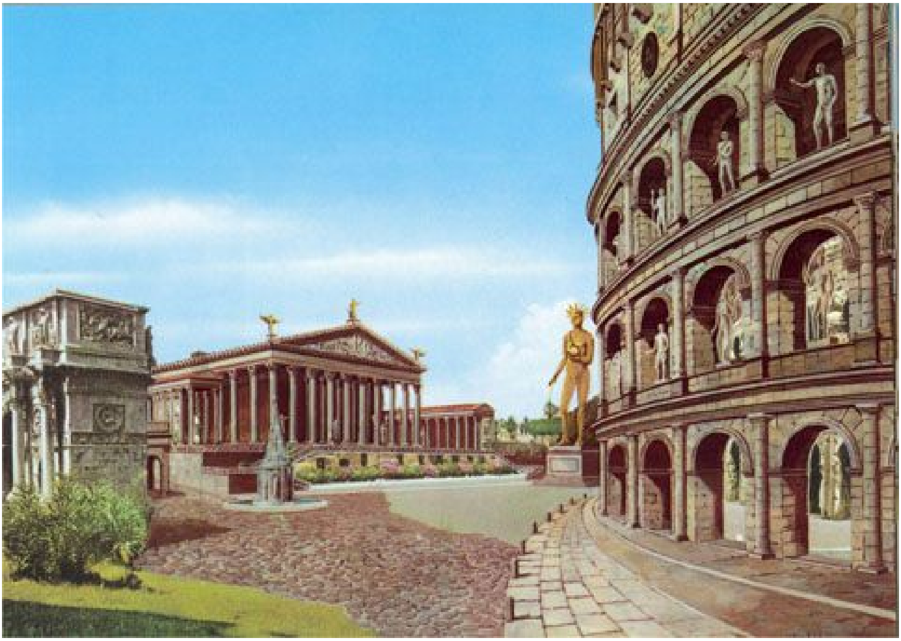
The Equiria, a festival in honor of Mars, was celebrated on February 27 and March 14, traditionally the time of year when new military campaigns were prepared. The growth in the number of temples in Rome also indicated how willing the Romans were to allow all manner of cults to flourish under their rule.

Roman society adopted the fairly liberal approach that each person could conduct his own particular religion as he wished as long as it did not disturb the public order.

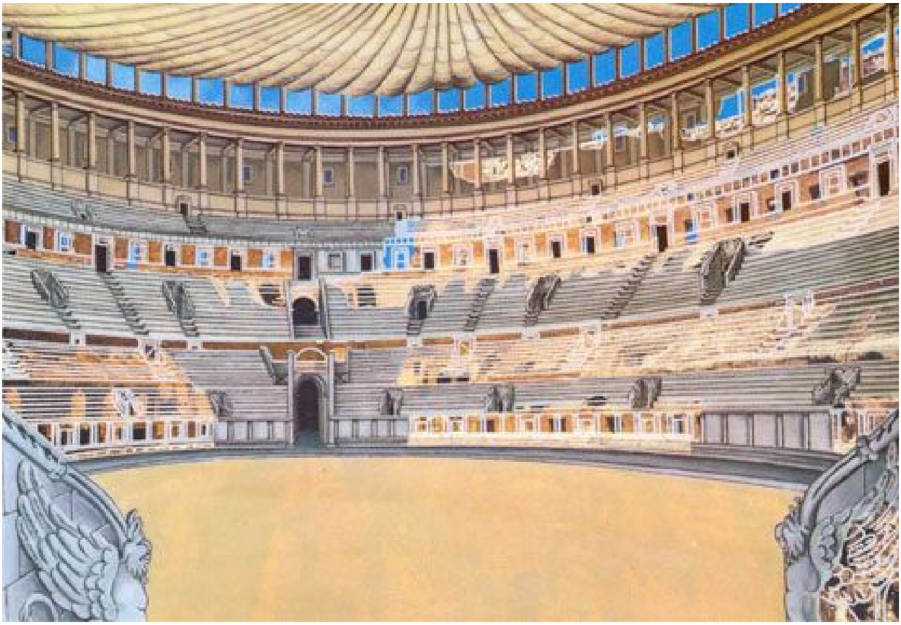
This, combined with the huge areas which fell under Roman domination, saw any number of cults and beliefs stream into Rome from all parts of the known world: Mithraism from Iran, Judaism from Palestine—even the worship of the Isis cult from Egypt became popular after Cleopatra VII visited Rome for a year as the guest of

Caesar. Influences from far and wide all competed for converts in Rome.

All the non-Christian religions were prohibited in AD 392 by an edict of Emperor Theodosius after Christianity had become dominant.



FLAVIAN AMPHITHEATER—ROME'S MOST FAMOUS BUILDING



Reconstructions of the exterior and interior of the "Coliseum" in Rome, more correctly called the Flavian Amphitheater. Constructed from 72–80 AD, the theater could seat fifty thousand spectators and was used up to medieval times. The reconstruction of the interior (above) shows the canvas awning that could be pulled over the entire structure to protect the audience from rain or sun. The name "Coliseum" stems from a colossal statue of the Emperor Nero which stood outside the building. This statue remained standing until at least the year 1,000 AD, when it was melted down for its bronze.

Roman Literature

Culturally, the early Romans left a massive heritage, contributing to Western civilization some of the most famous writers and thinkers outside of classical Greece. All educated Romans were bilingual, speaking Latin and Greek.

- Marcus Tullus Cicero (106–43 BC) was one of the most famous Latin writers, producing texts on a wide number of topics, including analyses and discussions of Greek thought, especially that of Plato and the Stoics.

- Virgil (70–19 BC) was the greatest of all Roman poets, mainly because of his epic poem the *Aeneid,* which told the story of Aeneas, who moved from Troy to Italy and helped establish the Latini people.

- Ovid (43 BC–17 AD) is most famous for his poem *Metamorphoses,* which contains stories from classical mythology. He also won renown as a poet of pleasure and love, and after one particularly bad sexual scandal involving a member of an imperial family, was exiled to an outpost on the Black Sea.

- Livy (59–17 BC) wrote an immense history of Rome, the first comprehensive history of that type undertaken.

- Tacitus (55–117 AD) wrote several pieces including *Germania* and *The Annals,* which were critical of Roman society and the emperor system of rule.

- Plutarch (46–120 AD) is most famous for his biographical work of forty-six famous Romans and Greeks, called the *Parallel Lives.* This work was used some 1,600 years later by the English playwright William Shakespeare to obtain details for two of his tragic dramas, *Anthony and Cleopatra,* and *Julius Caesar.*

- The historian Pliny the Elder (23–79 AD) assembled what can be called the first encyclopedia, the *Natural History*.

The Macedonian remnant in Egypt kept up the scientific research work started under the Ptolemies. Alexandria was once again built up into a huge city, spawning the famous geographer Ptolemy (circa 200 AD), who was the first to draw a map of the world onto a curved surface, working off the original Greek plans drawn up by Eratosthenes.

Galen (139–200 AD) was another Romanized Greek, who established the principles of medicine used in Europe until the early Renaissance period.

Roman Art—Set World Standards

As with many things architectural, early Roman art copied Grecian forms. This was readily apparent in the style of sculpture, and many statues of Greeks which have survived to the present-day are Roman copies of Greek originals. Roman art has set the standard against which all other art is measured—even to the point where an object or style is known as “classical” or not. This is an indication that, even two thousand years later, little improvement has been made upon Roman design.

SPECTACULAR AND ENDURING ENGINEERING

A tribute to Roman engineering—the Roman-built aqueduct at Segovia in Spain.

Architecture—Invention of Concrete

The Romans unashamedly took many building designs from the Greeks, including various column types and the now famous Greco-Roman building style of a triangular roof set atop rows of columns. The Romans perfected and added to these designs, creating structures which are still awe-inspiring today and unequaled in sheer aesthetics.

Many of the buildings in Rome date from the height of the empire. Some Roman structures, such as the famous water aqueduct in Segovia, Spain, are still working today, nineteen centuries after they were built.

Roman roads were the autobahns of their day, and the road system set up by the Romans was not equaled until the twentieth century. The workmanship which went into many of the constructions of the time would be hard to match even in the present-day—and this in spite of the advantage of modern tools. The Romans started town planning as a skill: laying out new cities on a grid pattern for ease of commuting. Their inventions of concrete and the vaulted dome made possible the huge buildings later to become known as cathedrals. However, this frenzied building activity had its price. Masses of slaves provided the cheap labor to build these edifices, and the influx of slaves combined with natural immigration to the Roman center provided the demographic shift which brought about the empire's downfall.

WORLD'S FIRST GEODESIC MAP FROM ROMAN EGYPT 200 AD

PRASODES MARE

The first map to represent the earth on a curved surface (and hence part of a globe)—devised by the Roman-Greek scientist Ptolemy, working during the second century AD.

Slaves—the Racial Time Bomb

Slavery was an institutionalized part of Roman society. Due to the sheer size of the empire, many slaves were foreign. Greek slaves were held to be the best type to own (they were the whitest slave, after Gauls or Germans, who were less common as slaves). Arabs, blacks, and others of mixed race from the Middle East also made up a huge number of the slave population. The importation of these racially alien slaves had an impact upon the demographics of Rome over a period of time. The number of slaves in Rome and Italy was tremendous: in 45 AD, it has been estimated that a third of the entire population were slaves.

There were enough of them to form their own seventy thousand strong army, as happened in 73 BC, when the slave leader Spartacus led the famous slave uprising. It took an entire Roman army to suppress, yet the practice of slavery continued, and ultimately cost the Romans their very existence.

CHAPTER 13: Opponents and Allies—Rome and the Celts

By 600 BC, the Celts had firmly established themselves in France, having thoroughly absorbed most of the original Old European population in that region. These Celtic tribes lived in relative stability in small villages and the occasional larger town.

They had a strongly developed sense of social status, with the aristocracy being warriors and the middle and lower classes the tradesmen and laborers. Almost all the descriptions of their lifestyles come from Roman writers, including Julius Caesar, who was head of the Roman army which occupied Gaul in 54 BC.

Roman historians reported that the Celtic warriors had long hair and often engaged in battle naked, which was apparently used as a shock tactic. The absence of armor—although they did use shields—was a distinct disadvantage in battle, particularly against the well-prepared Roman legions.

Gauls Found City of Milan and Attack Romans 400 BC

The enmity between Rome and the Celts (or Gauls, to give them the name that they had by the time of the Roman occupation of France) went back to 400 BC. In that year, Gaulish armies invaded northern Italy.

There, one of their early bases was later developed into the city of Milan. By 387 BC, the invading Gauls had occupied Rome, only leaving after the Romans paid them a ransom in gold.

THE DYING GAUL

A detail from the Dying Gaul, a Roman sculpture, circa 230 BC. An excellent portrayal of the racial characteristics of the Gauls with whom Rome was to do battle. At first the Gauls fought the invading Romans bitterly, but once subdued, they became firm allies.

Roman Revenge 350 Years Later

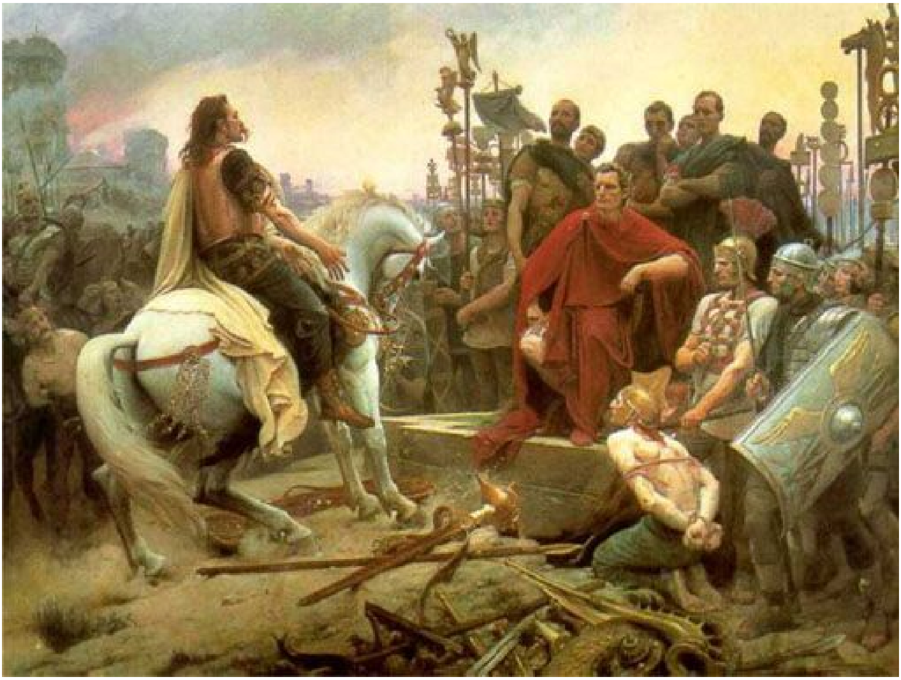
The Romans never forgot nor forgave the Gaulish invasion of 400 BC. They bided their time, and after a series of minor clashes, Roman armies under General Caesar rolled into Gaul in 54 BC.

The swiftness of the invasion and the superb Roman army organization smashed the Gauls, enslaving almost the entire population which numbered three million by Roman count. The cruelty with which the Romans suppressed the Gauls triggered a great uprising in central France. This rebellion, led by Vercingetorix, king of the Arverni tribe, spread to other tribes around the country and was only suppressed after two years of war. Gaulish resistance intensified with each Roman counterattack. Caesar showed no mercy—when he occupied the rebel-supporting town of Avaricum, he ordered the execution of all forty thousand inhabitants.

Spurred on by these and other outrages, Vercingetorix and his Gaulish allies launched a renewed assault on the Roman army. For a while, the Roman expedition nearly foundered, but eventually superior Roman organization won the day.

Vercingetorix and eighty thousand of his men were cornered in the fortified town of Alesia on the Seine River. Caesar's army settled down to a siege, preparing their defenses well enough to ward off attacks by Gauls from outside. Finally, in an attempt to save his people from extermination, Vercingetorix personally surrendered to Caesar in 52 BC. Caesar had the Celtic king sent to Rome in chains, where he was kept prisoner for six years before being publicly strangled and beheaded. The Gaulish rebellion was at an end.

VERCINGETORIX SURRENDERS TO JULIUS CEASAR 52 BC



The Gaulish rebellion came to an end with the rebel leader, Vercingetorix, surrendering to Caesar. After conquering present-day France and moving on to Britain, Caesar had to rush back to Gaul to face a full-scale rebellion in 52 BC, led by Vercingetorix. After being cornered and besieged at Alesia, the Gaulish chief surrendered to Caesar in an attempt to save his own people. Caesar had him sent to Rome in chains where he was kept prisoner for six years before being executed.

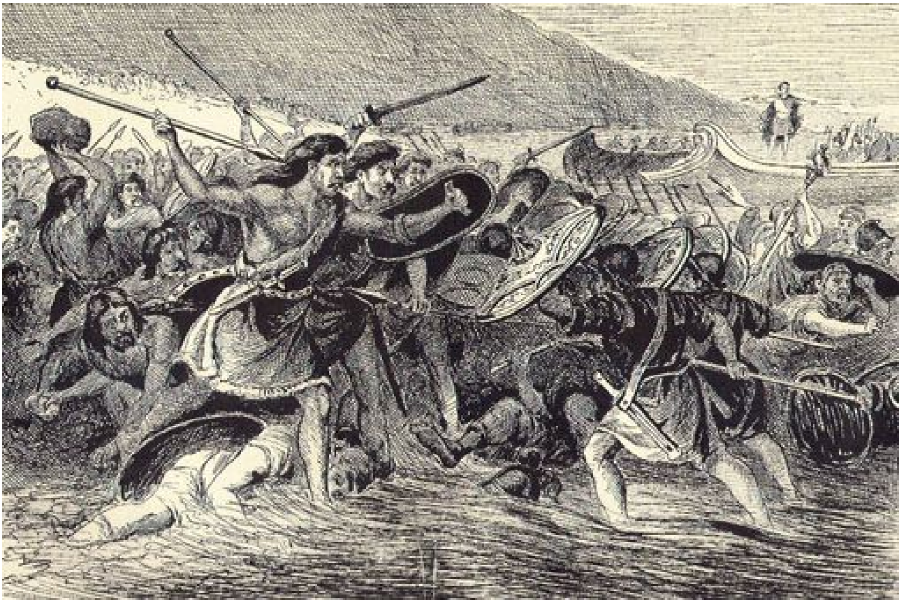
Celts from European Mainland Settle in Britain

The island of Britain had in the interim also been settled by waves of Celts, producing the same mix of European types as had happened elsewhere in Europe.

Generally though, the Celtic Britons were not as Nordic as their Celtic cousins across the channel in France. This was due to the fact that a smaller number of Nordic Celts had crossed the English Channel to mix with the original Neolithic population of Britain. Nonetheless, the Celts had a significant cultural influence on the island, in both art and language.

Yet more Celts moved to Ireland, taking the ancient Indo-European language with them. The very name Eire is, like Iran, derived from the word "Aryan." Eire was never conquered by the Romans (although they did have a fort outside Dublin, but this appears to have been an emissary party only), and thus remained known as a Celtic stronghold.

JULIUS CAESAR INVADES BRITAIN 55 BC



Caesar leads the assault on Britain. In 55 BC, Julius Caesar and a Roman army landed in Britain to strong resistance from the Celts and Britons. Great was Caesar's surprise when he found that the Celts had chariots. It was only after an inconclusive battle that a stalemate was reached which allowed Caesar to leave without conceding defeat. Caesar launched another invasion of Britain the following year, and this time managed to subdue a larger number of Celts. Most of the country remained independent for nearly another ninety years until 43 AD, when a renewed Roman offensive subdued almost all of present-day England.

First Roman Invasion of Britain 55 BC

In 55 BC, Caesar undertook the first Roman crossing of the channel to Britain. Upon landing, he sent an emissary, a Romanized

Gaul named Commius, to the Celtic tribes of southeastern Britain to try and establish some sort of peaceful accord. This came to naught when Commius was captured by one of the Celtic tribes.

The Romans were surprised to find that the Britons had war chariots. This was bad news for the Romans, as bad weather had prevented Caesar from bringing his cavalry across the English Channel with the rest of the army. For a while it seemed as if Caesar's two legions would be driven out of Britain. Then Commius, who had been released as part of a diplomatic cat-and-mouse game, managed to lay his hands on some local horses with which the Romans whittled down the Celtic advantage. A stalemate was achieved after an inconclusive battle. It was the respite that Caesar needed, and shortly thereafter the bulk of the Roman legions withdrew to Gaul. Caesar was fêted in Rome for the expedition to Britain, although it was minor in comparison to the far more significant conquest of Gaul.

Caesar Launches Second Invasion 54 BC

The following year, 54 BC, Caesar launched yet another invasion of Britain. This time he landed a force several times larger than used in his first expedition—and included a two thousand strong cavalry.

Caesar hoped to land his forces, march quickly into the heart of the Celtic territory, and inflict a defeat upon the scattered tribes before they could unite into one army. The plan nearly failed because the landing beaches were chosen poorly. To compound the problems, a storm forced the Romans to spend ten days dragging all the ships onto the dry land to prevent them from being sunk. This delay gave the Britons enough time to sound the alarm and to draw up their army, uniting under a chief named Cassivellaunus.

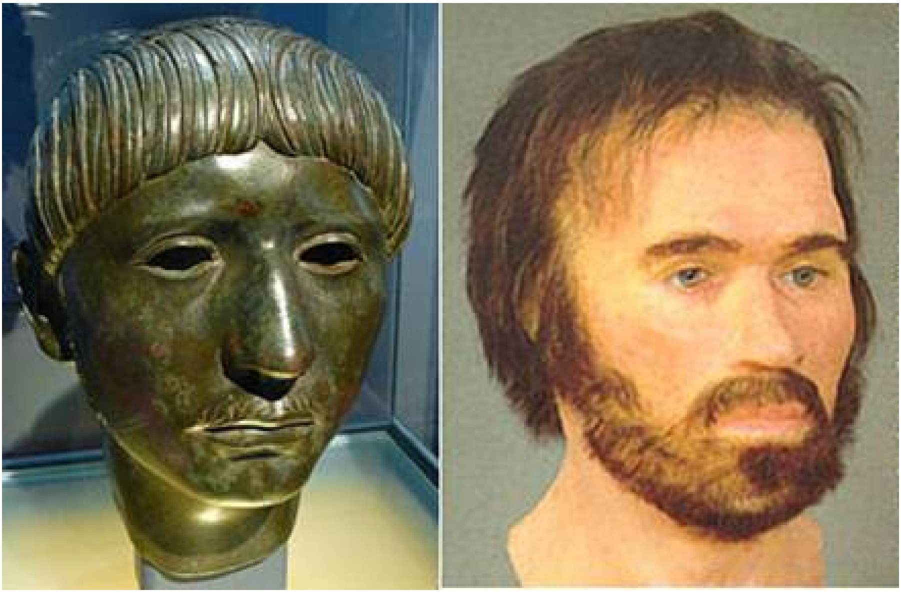
Nonetheless, the overwhelming force with which Caesar had invaded allowed him to defeat the united Celts. This caused the Celtic alliance to wither, and some significant tribes went over to the Roman side. The most important of these were the Trinovantes of Essex, who had reason to disapprove of Cassivellaunus because he had, in an earlier skirmish, slain their chief.

Cassivellaunus went on the offensive, attacking a major Roman camp in Kent, but was defeated. Caesar's victories were not, however, complete. The earlier loss of time meant that winter was now approaching, and the quick outright conquest he sought still evaded him. Even worse, rebellion was brewing in Gaul.

Caesar and Cassivellaunus then agreed to a peace treaty whereby the Celts would pay an annual tribute to Rome and would safeguard Roman interests in Britain. This concluded, Caesar hurriedly left Britain to return to Rome and then back to Gaul, where he had to face Vercingetorix's uprising.

Any thoughts Caesar may have had of a third invasion of Britain were shelved by subsequent events which saw him seize power in Rome in 50 BC.

CELTIC TYPES FROM GAUL AND BRITAIN



Celtic types, from Gaul and Britain. Left: A Roman bronze casting of a (French) Gaul chieftain—an excellent depiction of a Gaulish nobleman from the time of the Roman invasion. Right: A reconstruction of the head of Lindow Man, the Iron Age (100 AD) body found in a Cheshire, England, peat bog in 1984. This would have been the typical Celt that the Romans encountered, fought against, and finally mixed with, in Britain.

Caesar's Conquest of Spain in Six Weeks

Caesar did not limit his Celtic conquests to Gaul and Britain. In a six-week campaign in 49 BC, he conquered Spain as well, bringing the Celts in that country under Roman rule. Prior to this conquest, only a portion of southern Spain had been in Roman hands, seized from the Carthaginians during the Punic Wars. The process of Romanization of Spain also began in earnest after this date.

Third Roman Invasion of Britain with Elephants 43 AD

Caesar's successor, Octavian Augustus, planned a number of invasions of Britain, but all were postponed due to distractions elsewhere in the empire. Britain, therefore, remained in a state of semi-independence for another one hundred years.

It was only in 43 AD that the emperor Claudius finally ordered a full conquest of Britain. An army of forty thousand men assembled under the command of Aulus Plautius duly invaded the island that year. The powerful Roman army swept inland, defeating determined Celtic resistance around present-day London. The Roman forces spread out, employing powerful weapons such as bolt catapults against tribesmen armed with only bows, arrows, and slings. Nonetheless, the Celts defended to the death places such as the ancient hill fort of Maiden Castle in Dorset.

Claudius decided to be present at the final victory, and landed in Britain with additional forces and elephants, which must have seemed akin to dragons to the Britons.

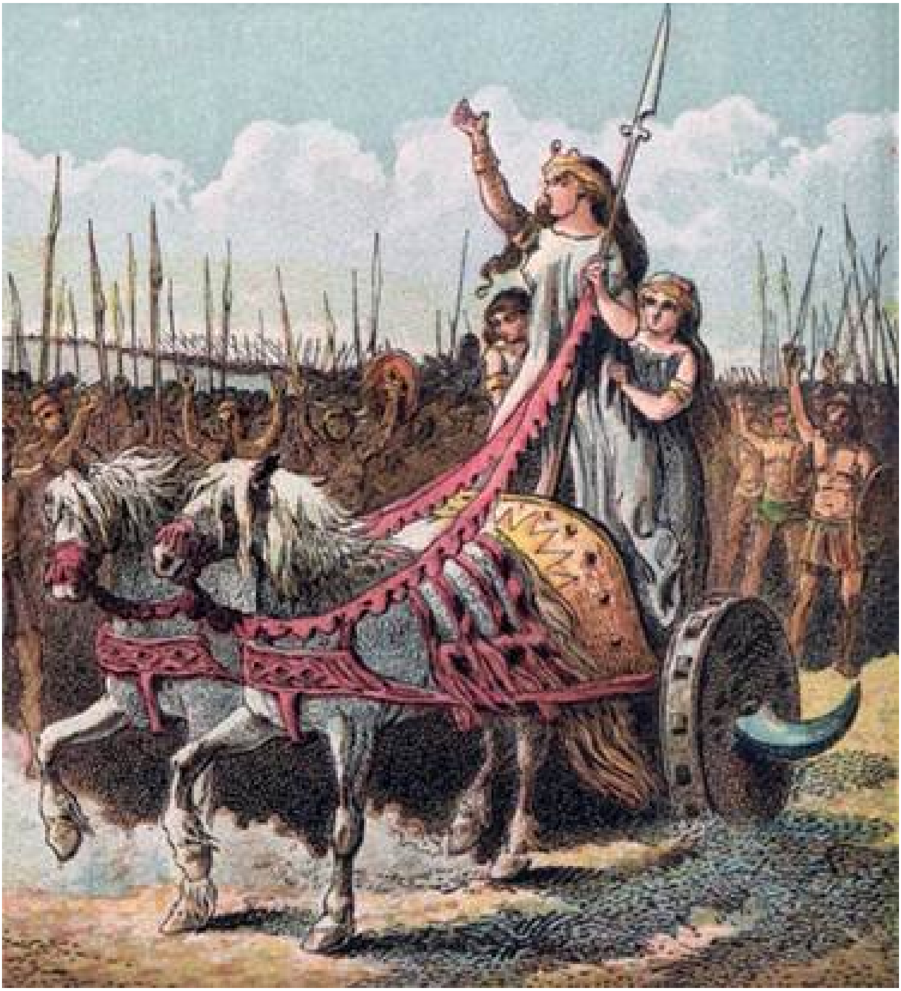
The Celtic tribes then surrendered near what became the city of Colchester, and Claudius was able to leave after a stay of only sixteen days, finally having added the province of Britain to the empire.

Celtic Rebellion Under Boadicea 61 AD

The initial Roman occupation was not universally accepted. By 47 AD, open resistance had broken out. This discontent simmered on until 61 AD, when it finally erupted into open revolt under the leadership of the Iceni tribe in Norfolk.

The spark came with the death of the Iceni king, which had caused a Roman unit to enter that territory. After engaging in looting, the Roman soldiers publicly whipped the king's widow, Boadicea, and raped her daughters. This public shaming was the last straw, and the Iceni, joined by many other tribes, broke out into open revolt. Led by Boadicea, they seized several Roman strongholds, including Colchester and London, both of which were sacked and burned. Some seventy thousand Roman and Romanized Celtic fatalities were inflicted in the destruction of these two centers.

QUEEN BOADICEA LEADS REVOLT AGAINST ROMANS 61 AD



Queen Boadicea of the Iceni leading the Celtic rebellion against Roman rule in 61 AD. She won some great victories and overran the Roman towns of Colchester and London. The Celtic queen was defeated at the Battle of Loughton, where, Tacitus records, eighty thousand Britons were killed. Boadicea committed suicide.

Although shaken by the ferocity of the uprising, the Romans drew together their forces and met Boadicea's army in central Britain. There, through superior organizational ability and better training, the Romans were able to inflict a massive defeat upon their numerically superior enemy. Roman accounts of the battle say that some eighty thousand Britons were killed on the field that day, while the Romans only lost four hundred.

The Boadicean revolt was the last major native rebellion the Romans experienced in Britain for the next two hundred years. From then on, the military conquests of other parts of the island, reaching north into lower Scotland, continued without major interruption. By 80 AD, the Romans had pushed the most rebellious Celts up into the Scottish Highlands.

One of these rebellious tribes, the Caledonians, nearly defeated the Roman legions at the Battle of Mons Graupius in 83 AD. The Romans prevailed, however, and the Caledonians vanished into the Highlands. Nonetheless, the ferocity of the far northern Celtic defense meant that the Romans never pushed home the advantage, and slowly withdrew southward.

HADRIAN'S WALL BUILT ACROSS ENGLAND'S NORTH

Hadrian's Wall runs seventy-three miles across England at its narrowest point. The Romans built the wall, properly called Aeilan Wall*, from 122 AD onward to ward off attacks from the Picts in present-day Scotland.*

By 122 AD, the Roman emperor, Hadrian, who had visited the province of Britain, ordered the building of a fortified wall across the north of England to keep out the northern barbarians. Many parts of this wall, named after Hadrian, can still be seen to this day. By 200 AD, the Romans were firmly entrenched in England (as opposed to Britain) and the Romanization process was almost total, being sped up by the 212 AD Edict of Caracalla which granted Roman citizenship to all free inhabitants of the empire. This led to the automatic legalization of the already *de facto* situation of soldiers taking wives from the local population. This policy did not have the same racial effects on the Romans in Britain and France as what it had on the Romans in the Middle East. The mixing of Roman, Celtic, and original European subgroups did not disturb the racial homogeneity of either the conquerors or the conquered peoples, unlike in the southern and eastern reaches of the empire where the local nonwhite populations soon swallowed up the white Romans.

In 287 AD, a revolt once again broke out in Britain, even though by this stage many Romans had become Britons and vice versa. The rebellion was led by Romanized Britons and Romans who disliked the emperor of the time, Maximian, who had been appointed as coemperor by Diocletian.

A specially dispatched Roman army subdued the rebellion in 296 AD. According to the Roman records, the rebels employed a large number of German mercenaries. This was ironic, because many of the newly arrived Roman legionnaires were also German mercenaries. This rebellion was the last major armed action undertaken by the Romans in Britain.

Roman Control Lost 410 AD

As the Roman Empire began to disintegrate due to its cosmopolitan nature, central control over the furthermost colonies began to be more difficult. Finally, around 410 AD, Emperor Honorius ordered the Roman legions to officially withdraw from Britain, telling the people of Britain that they no longer had a connection to Rome and that they should defend themselves.

Within a very short period of time, Britain was subjected to a new wave of Germanic invaders in the form of the Saxons and other Teutonic peoples. The Roman period of influence was at an end.

ROMANS FOUND CITY OF LONDON 43 AD

A statue of Emperor Trajan at a remaining segment of the Roman wall around the town of Londinium (today called London). The town was established in 43 AD, and sacked by Boadicea seventeen years later. The city recovered, and the first bridge across the Thames River was built in 85 AD. The city grew in importance and its status was considerably enhanced after Emperor Hadrian visited it in 122 AD. A port was established near the present-day Tower of London, and the city's inhabitants grew in number to around sixty thousand by the end of the second century AD. Around this time the first city walls were built, a project which became one of the largest Roman construction projects in Britain. The wall was three miles long, twenty feet high, and eight feet thick. The effort which was expended on building the fortifications represented Londinium's importance in the Roman Empire. In 200 AD, Londinium was named capital of the Roman province of Britannia Superior, a status which it has retained ever since.

CHAPTER 14: The Useful Foe—Rome and the Germans

The Germanic peoples had spread throughout the area now known as Germany for two millennia until they reached the Rhine River around the year 300 BC. Some adventurous tribes even crossed that river, penetrating what is today Belgium (the Romans called these tribes the Belgae, hence that country's name). These advances invariably brought the Germans into conflict with the Celts in France, and after the Romans occupied Gaul, with the Romans themselves.

Germanic tribes had clashed in 113 BC with the Romans when an invading tribe had passed through northern Italy. Although the invading Germans had been defeated in battle and driven off by the Roman forces, other tribes still occasionally dared to launch raiding parties into Roman-occupied Gaul. In 57 BC, for example, the German Saubian tribe seized present-day Alsace-Lorraine in France. Julius Caesar was forced to intervene to prevent further German incursions. He defeated the German invaders, and drove the few survivors back across the Rhine River, which became the border between Roman Gaul and Germania.

First Roman Invasion 55 BC

In 55 BC, Caesar built a wooden bridge across the Rhine, near the present-day city of Cologne. Over this first ever bridge on that river, the Romans took the war to the Germans in their own territory.

Having been beaten several times in a row by the Romans, the Germans withdrew eastward into the forests, leaving the Romans free to destroy the scattered remaining German settlements on the eastern bank of the Rhine River. After just over two weeks of plundering, the Roman army withdrew back over the bridge, declaring the entire western bank of the Rhine to be officially Roman territory.

GERMANS FORCED TO BEHEAD EACH OTHER

The Germans proved to be the only people subject to a Roman invasion who managed to fight off and defeat the caesars. This relief is from the Antoine Column, and shows Romans forcing German prisoners to behead each other.

Second Roman Invasion

Some two years later, in 53 BC, Caesar again crossed the Rhine River and broke the threat of German tribes in Westphalia. Caesar even recruited German mercenaries to fight with the army used to subdue Vercingetorix the Gaul in France.

After Caesar had finally subdued the Celts, he was challenged by Pompey back in Rome to disband his army. Caesar then famously marched on Rome, which ultimately led to his seizure of power. Some six thousand German mercenaries marched with Caesar's army to Rome, the forerunners of many thousands who would end up serving in the Roman army.

This development—the use of German and Celtic mercenaries—would play a significant role in both keeping the Romans out of Germania and in keeping the Roman Empire alive long after the majority of the original Roman stock had vanished.

After taking power in Rome, Caesar tried to subdue the still rebellious Celts who lived in the Alps north of Italy. It took some thirty years for the Roman legions to finally quell these hardy mountain dwelling people, and afterward their lands were formally annexed to Rome.

Third Roman Invasion—Elbe River Reached

By 15 BC, the Roman Empire's borders extended as far north as the Danube River and as far east as the Rhine, but over the latter river, hostile Germans still lurked. In 12 BC, the Romans under General Drusus launched a new attempt to invade the German heartland. Although the Germans put up stiff resistance and inflicted several major defeats upon the Roman forces, Drusus defeated the major German tribes and in three years managed to reach the Elbe River in central Germania.

At the height of his victories, Drusus died after falling off his horse. He was replaced by General Tiberius (who was later to become emperor) and by 7 BC, most of the territory between the Rhine and Weser rivers had been seized. The Roman military machine seemed unstoppable, and it even pushed on to some lands beyond the Weser River, inhabited by a tribe known as the Cherusci.

On all fronts, the Germans were forced to fall back toward the east over the Elbe River, or face subjugation by the Romans. It seemed that it was only a matter of time and the Germans would also suffer the fate of the Gauls in France. Many of the cruel tactics employed by Caesar in France were used against defeated German tribes under Roman control.

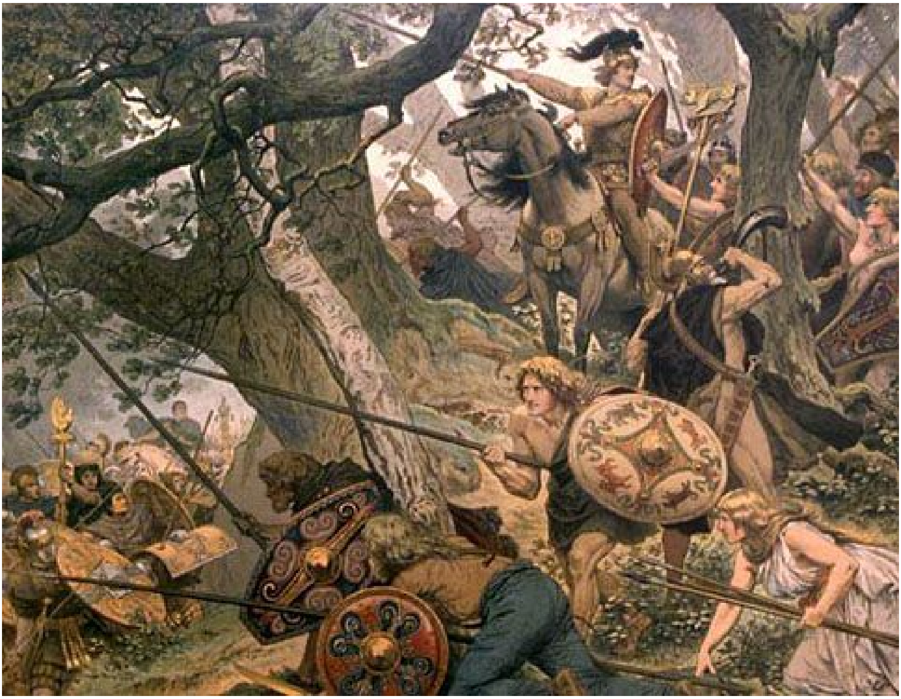
Hermann Cherusci—Trained by the Roman Army

However, the Roman policy of drawing subjugated peoples into the administration of their own territories and Romanizing them was applied in Germania as well. In 1 AD, two young Cherusci princes, the sons of the king of that tribe, were selected to be sent to Rome and commissioned in the Roman army.

One of the brothers became completely Romanized and took on the name Flavius, while the other kept his German name, Hermann, although the Romans called him Arminius. Hermann served five years in a Roman legion, became a Roman citizen, and was employed on active service in two expeditions against other rebellious colonies. All the while, he retained his German roots, unlike his brother.

Hermann returned to his homeland in 8 AD as a senior soldier and administrator in the region under the Roman general, Varus. Never once did the Romans suspect Hermann's true intentions, which were to throw the Romans out of his homeland.

ROMANIZATION OF GERMANY HALTED—TEUTOBURGER WALD
9 AD



The 9 AD Battle of Teutoburger Wald marked a turning point for the

Roman Empire in the West. Hermann Cherusci was a Romanized German who, once appointed to a senior post in the Roman army, used his position as a German prince to organize a rebellion against Roman rule in Germany. After creating a diversion and tricking the main occupying Roman army into penetrating a forest near the present-day town of Detmold, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans. After days of intense hit-and-run attacks, fifteen thousand Romans were killed and the few survivors fled over the Rhine River which henceforth became the German/ Roman border.

Battle of Teutoburger Wald—Romans Defeated

As soon as he was in a position to act, Hermann set about organizing a rebellion among the Germans. Using his position as a German prince to influence a large number of German tribes, Hermann secretly began preparing his own great German army—no doubt using much of what he had learned during his training in the Roman army. He was able to recruit a large number of Germans in the area who were also serving in the Roman army, all of whom supported his dream of expelling the Romans from Germany.

In 9 AD, Varus's Roman army was encamped west of the Weser River in the present-day German state of North Rhine Westphalia. Hermann arranged to have a German tribe start a diversionary battle to the east. Always ready to respond to any sign of trouble, Varus and the Roman army set off in that direction.

Hermann put his plan into action. Gathering up his secretly recruited army, he set out in pursuit of Varus. The Germans caught up with the unsuspecting Roman column in the middle of the Teutoburg Forest, near the present-day town of Detmold. In the forest, Hermann's forces ambushed the Romans. For three days the battle raged, with Hermann employing unusual guerrilla tactics, repeatedly attacking and then suddenly withdrawing into the forest before the Romans could create their set battle formations. Hermann knew from his training in the Roman army that his enemies did not have an adequate defense against this tactic. After three days of continuous ambushes, they were exhausted. No sleep, constant attacks by German raiders, and unfamiliar territory took their toll and the Roman lines broke.

Only a handful of Roman soldiers escaped from the forest to tell the tale. Most were killed in combat. Those who were captured suffered the fate of many Germans and Celts who had earlier fallen into Roman hands—they were killed on the spot. News of the victory spread throughout occupied Germania, sparking off a rebellion which forced the Romans to retreat all the way back to the western side of the Rhine River once again.

The war with the German tribes dragged on for eight more years, but by 17 AD, the Romans had accepted the Rhine River as the formal border between Germania and Rome. Germany was never to be invaded again by the Romans.

Although Hermann had succeeded in uniting the German tribes against Rome, this unity was short-lived. Once the Romans had been driven from their land, the German tribes lost little time in lapsing back into intertribal warfare. Hermann was assassinated in 21 AD—by a German. Thus Germania once again became a land of fierce and warlike tribes, all battling with each other for territory as they had done before the advent of the Roman incursions.

MONUMENT TO HERMAN’S VICTORY AT DETMOLD

The Hermannsdenkmal (or Hermann monument), located in the Teutoburg Forest, North Rhine Westphalia. It was built near the site of the Battle of the Teutoburger Wald in which the Germanic tribes under Hermann defeated a Roman army in 9 AD, effectively halting Roman expansion into Germania.

“A Pure and Unmixed Race”—Tacitus Describes the Germans

The Roman historian Tacitus, writing during the first century AD, made the following insightful remarks on the racial nature of the

Germans: *"I concur in opinion with those who deem the Germans never to have intermarried with other nations but to be a pure and unmixed race, stamped with a distinct character. Hence, a family likeness pervades the whole, though their numbers are great. Their eyes are stern and blue, their hair ruddy, and their bodies large."*

In what became a major twist of irony, Rome began to rely more and more on German and Celtic mercenaries to fill the ranks of its armies. This was caused by the demographic changes at work within Italy which saw declining numbers of Romans. Rome, with its status as capital of the empire, had acted as a magnet for slaves and immigrants from all over the known world, but particularly from the Middle East.

GERMAN MERCENARIES

German cavalryman serving in the Roman army. The Roman army began to rely heavily on German mercenaries to fill its ranks as white Roman numbers declined. From the Antoine Column in Rome.

Rome Increasingly Mixed—Blonds Decline

By the time of the Battle of Teutoburger Wald, the Roman nobility was already in terminal decline. Even though they had tried to maintain their original racial heritage, their numbers had been reduced. This was due in part to their declined fertility levels, which were a result of a combination of factors including the use of lead water pipes and the use of sapa (lead acetate) as a skin lightener (a valuable racial indicator in itself). High lead intake has the side effect of sterility, an issue which is noted as having plagued the Roman upper classes.

By the end of the second century AD, the lower classes of Roman society had reached the point where a significant number had been replaced by what were in effect mixed or nonwhite racial types gathered from the four corners of the empire.

In his book, *The Gallic War,* Caesar, who was himself a Nordic type, compared the Romans of that time with the Gauls, remarking how blond the Gauls were and, in comparison with the Romans, how tall they were. (Caesar went on to describe Celts in Britain as being blond, but not so much as their Celtic brethren in Gaul.) This is not to say that Rome of that time was a completely nonwhite city—there remained a large number of whites, but the demographic trend was most certainly against them. This had implications for the recruitment of Romans for their army: with increasing numbers of foreigners in Rome, the number of volunteers for military service declined dramatically. Although they had taken on the dress of Roman civilization, they either refused to serve in the army or were simply not up to the exacting physical demands, preferring mercantile pursuits to the rigors of a military life.

The Germans and Celts therefore ended up being the primary source of recruits for the Roman armies. This is not surprising, considering that in racial terms they were much closer to the original Romans than the majority of inhabitants of Rome from the second century AD onward. By the time Caesar's conquests of the Celts had ended, Roman records show that the average height of the Roman soldier had been lowered to around five feet. As the number of German and Celtic mercenaries increased in the Roman army, the average height began to rise. By 300 AD, the average height had risen to around five feet five inches, an indication that the racial type of the average soldier had changed substantially.

So it was that the "Roman" armies began to fill up with non-Roman soldiers. Romanized Germans and Celts formed a significant number, possibly even a majority, of foot soldiers and commanding officers. These Romanized Germans and Celts were to play a significant role in the remaining years of the Western Roman Empire. It was they who, predictably, formed the backbone of the resistance to the last "barbarian" invasions which saw the final physical fall of

Rome.

A Romanized German soldier was the last (self-declared) emperor in Rome. By that date (476 AD), the last true original Romans had for all practical purposes disappeared, having been swallowed up in a mass of immigrants from all regions of the empire.

New Germanic Invasions

In the second century AD, German tribes went on the offensive against Rome and crossed the Danube River. They were bloodily defeated by a Roman army, which contained a significant number of German and Celtic mercenaries. During the third and fourth centuries, German tribes called the Franks and the Saxons also raided Roman settlements in France and Britain respectively.

These smaller incursions continued until the final chapter in the saga of the German-Roman Wars was written by the Goths, who featured prominently in Rome’s final military defeat.

CHAPTER 15: Racial Cauldron—Rome and the Middle East

The story of Roman expansion to the east is as dramatic as the conquering of western Europe, but there was one critical difference with a hugely important consequence. It was the extension of the empire's borders to the east which ultimately led to its downfall, as this was the gateway for vast numbers of people to be drawn to Rome who shared a different genetic inheritance than the original founders.

As had been the case with every great civilization before it, Rome fell because the original people who created the empire disappeared. They were submerged into a mass of foreigners, replaced by immigrants and the descendants of slaves brought in from all over North Africa, the wider Mediterranean, and the Middle East.

Roman Engineering in Africa

The Roman aqueduct at Cherchel on the Algerian coast, North Africa. Serving the city of Caesarea, it was built in three superimposed tiers of arches and was the largest work of its kind to be constructed on the African continent. The deserted ruin stands as evidence of how, once the original white Roman genes had been dissipated into the local mixed-race *inhabitants, the drive to create and maintain such structures vanished with them.*

Gradual Dissolution of the Indo-Europeans

Prior to the Roman expansion into the Middle East, the process of racial integration in that region had proceeded apace. Original Indo-European and Old European Mediterranean types had all but vanished in North Africa and the Middle East by the year 100 BC. In the space of a few hundred years, these white peoples had been submerged into the far faster breeding Semitic, Arabic, and Asian elements filling up the region.

Blue-Eyed Persians Visit India 600 BC

One example of how the whites were submerged in the Middle East can be seen with the Indo-European origin Persians, who reached present-day Azerbaijan around the year 900 BC.

After mixing with another less numerous Indo-European tribe, the Medes, the descendants of these peoples established their rule over a large territory including present-day Iran, a large part of Iraq, and other land extending as far as present-day southern Turkey.

In 600 BC, Persian envoys visited India, and their visit was recorded in a series of paintings made by Indian artists in Bombay (and which are on view today in the Ajanta caves outside that city).

The racial makeup of the envoys tells an interesting story. Of the three Persians depicted, one has blond hair and blue eyes; the second has dark hair and blue eyes, and the third has dark hair, dark eyes, and is obviously more Semitic in appearance.

This is a good indicator of the racial demographics at work in Persia at this time. Today, a few widely dispersed examples of light-colored eyes and hair among the overwhelmingly Arabic population of the Middle East are the only reminders of the ancient rulers of this territory.

This scenario was replicated across the entire region. The Indo-European tribes and the Old European Mediterranean peoples, who had together provided the impetus for the great ancient civilizations, had for all practical purposes, disappeared by the time that the Romans started pushing east.

The end result of these racial changes was that by the time of the Roman Empire, the native population of the Middle East was already racially very mixed.

Mixed-Race Pontus Threaten Rome

The first Roman move east came about when the king of Pergamum, a state which existed to the east of the Roman borders, turned his nation over to Roman rule in terms of his will upon his death. Next to be occupied by the Romans was a part of western Turkey called western Cilicia, which was annexed as part of an anti-piracy campaign in 102 BC. Shortly thereafter, Ptolemaic Egypt and the states of central Anatolia (eastern Turkey) became formal vassals of Rome.

A belligerent mixed-race people, the Pontus, invaded the lands to the east of the Roman Empire in 110 BC. They swept through much of northern Turkey and occupied land around the Black Sea, including the Crimea. Eventually they penetrated part of Roman-ruled Greece.

The Roman emperor Sulla ordered an army east and the Pontus were defeated. The act of pursuing the invaders led to Roman rule being extended to northern Turkey and large parts of land around the Black Sea.

By 66 BC, relations between the Pontus and Rome had once again deteriorated and war broke out. This time the Roman general Pompey formally annexed the Pontus kingdom. This extended Rome's reach into the southern part of Crimea and into the Caucasus region between the Black and Caspian seas.

Syria and North Africa

To the south, Syria was made a Roman province, along with Palestine and even a slice of the Arabian peninsula extending nearly halfway down the Red Sea, including for the first time vast numbers of Arabic Semites in their original homeland in the Arabian peninsula.

In 50 BC, Caesar swept to power in Rome. General Pompey gathered together an army in Greece to try and dislodge him, but was defeated (with the help of six thousand German mercenaries) at the Battle of Pharsus in 48 BC. Caesar went on to march right through North Africa in 46 BC. This meant that with the exception of Spain and parts of Greece, all of the areas collected into Caesar's grasp by his astounding series of military campaigns had nonwhite majorities.

Caesar's successors also extended Roman control over other parts of the Middle East. Octavian Augustus reinforced Roman rule in

Turkey and extended the empire's borders deep into the Caucasus. Roman vassal states extended as far as a few hundred miles from the Caspian Sea.

PETRA FLOURISHES UNDER ROMAN RULE

The famous rock city of Petra, in present-day Jordan, flourished under Roman rule and many incredible building works were carried out—including the famous rock temple cut out of a cliff (below).

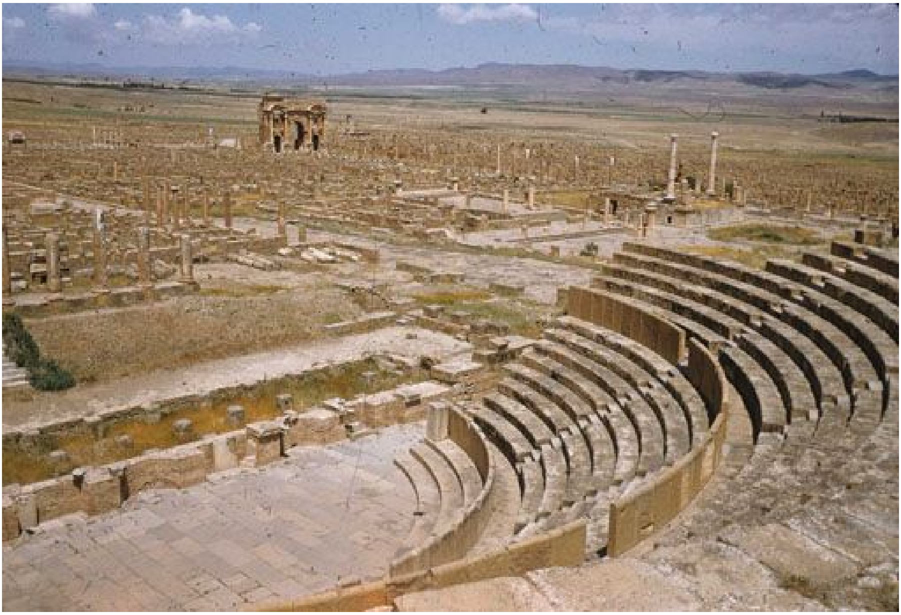
Romanizing of Arabic Semites Implemented

The vast number of Arabic and mixed-racial types present in the Middle East and North Africa were all put through the Romanizing process. Within the space of a few decades they were allowed to elect senators to the Roman senate in Rome, and their sheer weight of numbers meant that true Romans soon made up a minority of senators in the capital of the empire. Under these conditions, it takes no imagination to understand how the relatively small group of original Romans lost control of the racial makeup of Rome.

It was demographically impossible for the Romans alone to supply the manpower to run such a vast area. As a result, they were forced to Romanize the local population and recruit soldiers and tradesmen from them. Very often, only the most senior civil servants in the Roman provinces were actually originally from Rome—and in many cases, even they were replaced in the course of time by locals.

Eventually the logical step was taken by the emperor, Caracalla, in 212 AD, when he gave all free men in the empire Roman citizenship. The racial implications of this step were important and were discussed in a previous chapter. The most famous of these “new citizens” was Philip the Arab, who was a Syrian-born Roman citizen who became emperor.

TIMGAD—ROME’S LOST AFRICAN CITY



The Roman city of Timgad, in present-day Algeria, stands today as a massive ruin, but when the Romans occupied the region it was one of their major centers on the North African coast. However, the province of Africa was the first step in the undoing of the Roman Empire. As it spread its borders ever more eastward, it started incorporating more and more nonwhite peoples into its borders. This infusion of non-Romans eventually caused the empire to lose its racial homogeneity and fall.

Palestine 4 AD—Jews Petition for Inclusion

The Jewish tribes in Palestine (who were originally a Semitic tribe, but had, like almost all the peoples in that region, been fairly heavily mixed with other racial groups over the course of time) had been independent since shaking off the declining Seleucid kingdom in 129 BC.

The Jews maintained their independence until 4 BC, when their king, Herod, died. Anarchy broke out in the territory, and eventually a group of Jews petitioned Rome to occupy Palestine and make it into a Roman province so that order could be restored. This duly happened, and from 4 AD onward, a large portion of Palestine, known as Judea, became part of the empire.

Trajan Crushes the Parthian Revolt in Syria

In 66 BC, the mixed-race Parthians (resident in present-day Syria, Iran, and Iraq) broke out in open revolt against Roman rule. This rebellion sparked a similar uprising in Judea, where groups of nationalist Jews had decided to try and eject the Romans.

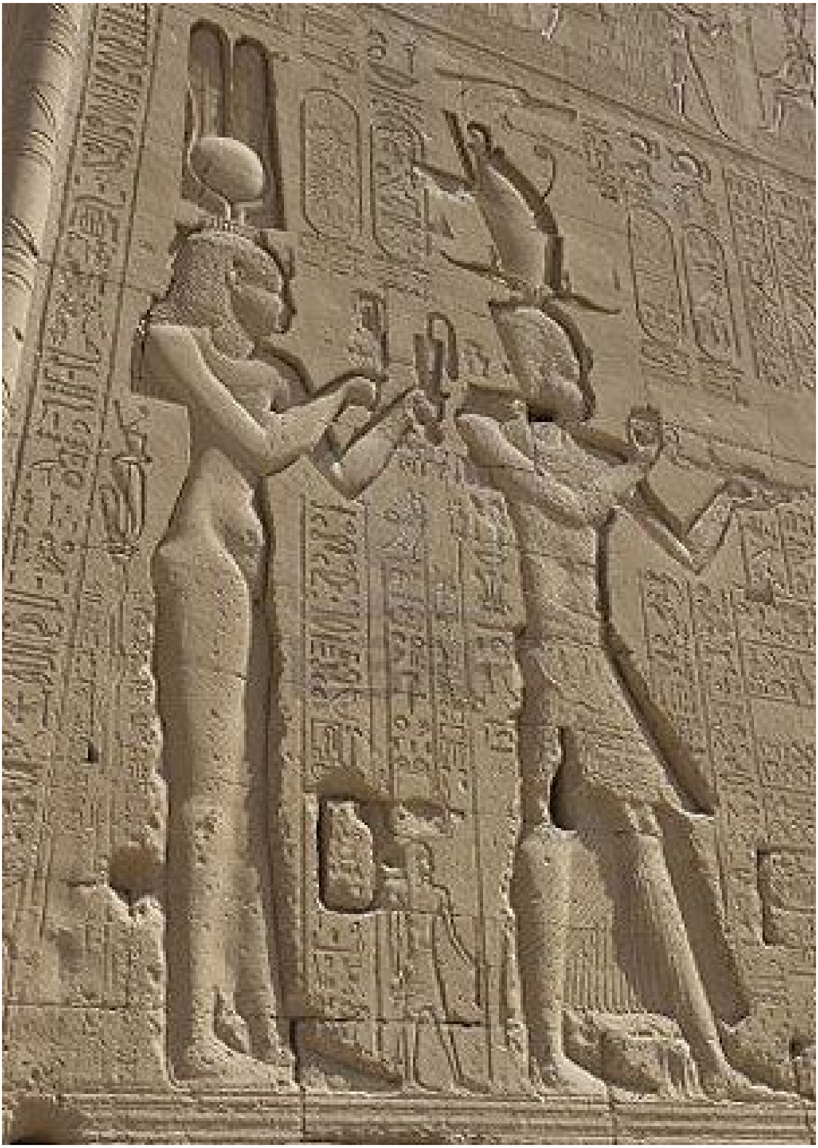
A Roman general in charge of one of the armies in Palestine, Vespian, suppressed the Jewish revolt, and then, instead of turning his attention to the Parthians, returned to Rome to suppress the anarchy and civil strife which had followed the suicide of Emperor Nero.

The Parthians took advantage of the chaos to declare themselves independent, and for a while all of present-day Iraq and Iran became independent of Roman rule. The only consolation for the empire was that other Roman vassal kingdoms now extended as far as the Caspian Sea.

Parthian independence did not last long. The Roman emperor, Trajan (98–117 AD), finally launched a counterattack, using an army largely comprised of German and Gaulish mercenaries. Trajan's army defeated the Parthians, and marched as far east as the Tigris and Euphrates River basin, in what is today called Kuwait.

The very next emperor, Hadrian, realized that the Roman legions were overextending themselves. He embarked upon a deliberate program of consolidation, and the Roman armies were withdrawn to the easternmost point of the Euphrates River, near the present day Turkish border.

“FAKE” PHARAOHS—ROMANIZED EGYPT



Very often, confusion exists in the public mind over what exactly was ancient Egyptian and what was not. This is understandable if the scene to the right is studied. Appearing to be a relief from Egyptian antiquity, it is in fact a representation of Cleopatra and Julius Caesar, with their son, *Caesarion. The relief was made during Caesar's lifetime. Cleopatra was the last of the Ptolemies, a dynasty set up by one of Alexander the Great's generals. The Ptolemies took on the ways and customs of the ancient Egyptians, even down to art and dress. This, then, is the reason why this image of Julius Caesar can be found at the Temple of Hathor in Dendra, Egypt.*

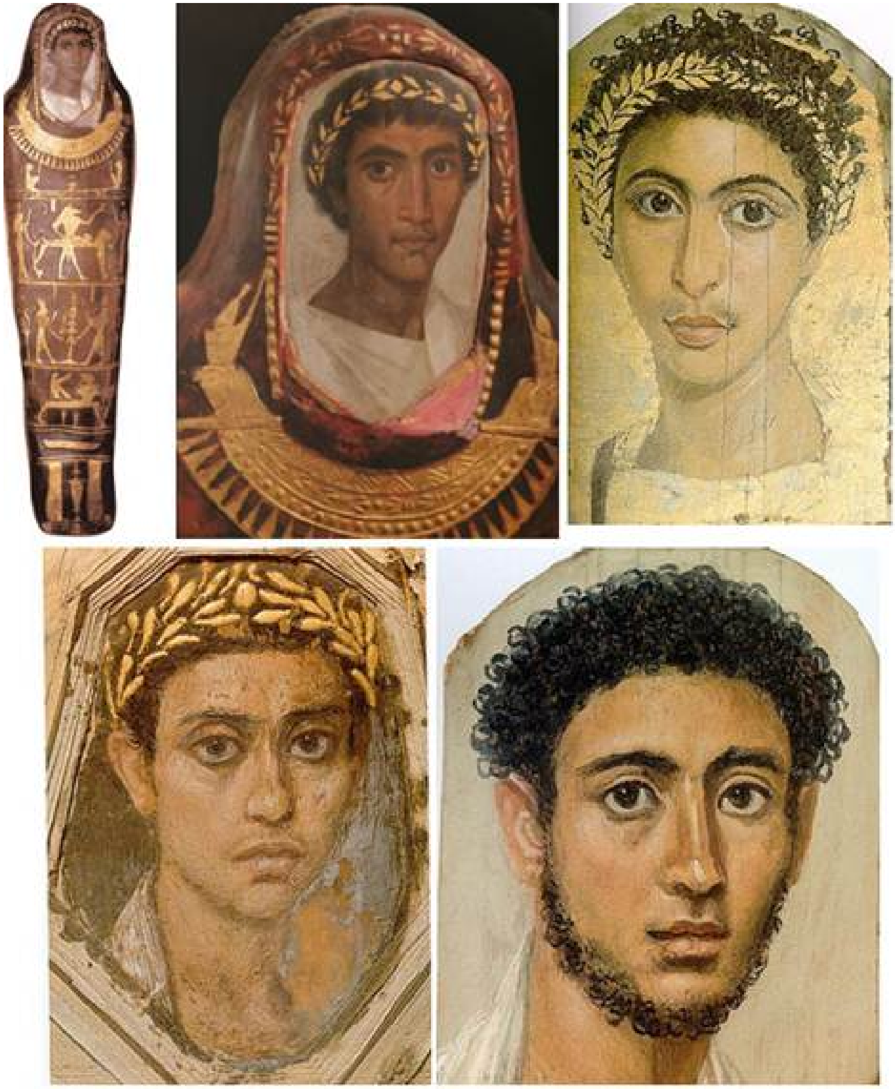
Roman Control Disintegrates Circa 200 AD

After 200 AD, the enemies of Rome were battering at the gates. In the north, on the borders with Germania, one of the last of the great Indo-European invasions had created a new and powerful force in the form of the Goths. Spreading out across Germania, the Goths soon started raiding Roman outposts in Gaul and in the east, crossing the Danube River. Some of their racial cousins created a Gothic power in southern Russia, which also beat upon the doors of the Roman provinces in the Black Sea basin. The Romans barely clung to their strong points under the new wave of attacks.

Meanwhile, in the east, the Parthians had been finally overthrown by the mixed-race Persians, who began to make excursions into Roman territory. Around 258 AD, the Persians broke the power of many important Roman vassal states, overrunning Armenia and Syria. The Roman citadel of Antioch was sacked in 260 AD.

In Africa, Roman control fared no better. In 268 AD, the Syrians seceded from the empire and Roman forces in Egypt lost control over the southernmost parts of that land. The Eastern Empire seemed on the point of collapse under the pressure of continual native rebellions which were compounded by the inability of the locally recruited "Roman" armies to suppress the uprisings.

Dark Faces from Roman Egypt Signal Fate of the Empire



Roman-controlled Egypt became one of the prime examples of how nonwhites filled up the borders of the Roman Empire after that nation annexed the Middle East. Here are some examples—all portraits on coffins from the British Museum's famous "Fayum" collection—dating from 200 AD in Roman Egypt. The faces show the very clear effects of racial mixing—slowly but surely the nonwhite element of the lands in the Middle Eastern part of the Roman Empire grew and seeped toward Rome. Within a short period of time, the scattered Romans in the Middle East were racially disintegrated, spelling the doom of the empire.

"Roman" Army in Mesopotamia Composed Mainly of German Mercenaries

Raising new mercenary armies in Gaul and Germania, the Roman general, Caesar Galerius, pursued a successful war against Persia in 297 AD, occupying half of Mesopotamia.

This remained the eastern frontier of the empire until 626 AD, when the Persians once again forced a contraction of the Eastern Empire's borders. By 626 AD, the Roman Empire had been divided into East and West. Like the Western Romans, the Romans in the Eastern Empire barely resembled the original Romans, and relied greatly on German and even Viking mercenaries (the Eastern Roman emperor's private guard was composed exclusively of Viking mercenaries) to hold their borders against their Persian enemies.

The Eastern Empire and the Persians were kept so busy in a long drawn out war that neither of them took any notice—until it was too late—of the rise of Islam in the south. This power would eventually overrun the last parts of the Eastern Roman Empire.

CHAPTER 16: By Stealth and Steel—Christianity

The rise of Christianity as the dominant religion of post-Roman Europe played a major role in shaping the course of history, not only on that continent but also in all parts of the world to which European people spread. The story of the origins of this remarkable religion—and its influence on the course of civilization—therefore deserves a full examination.

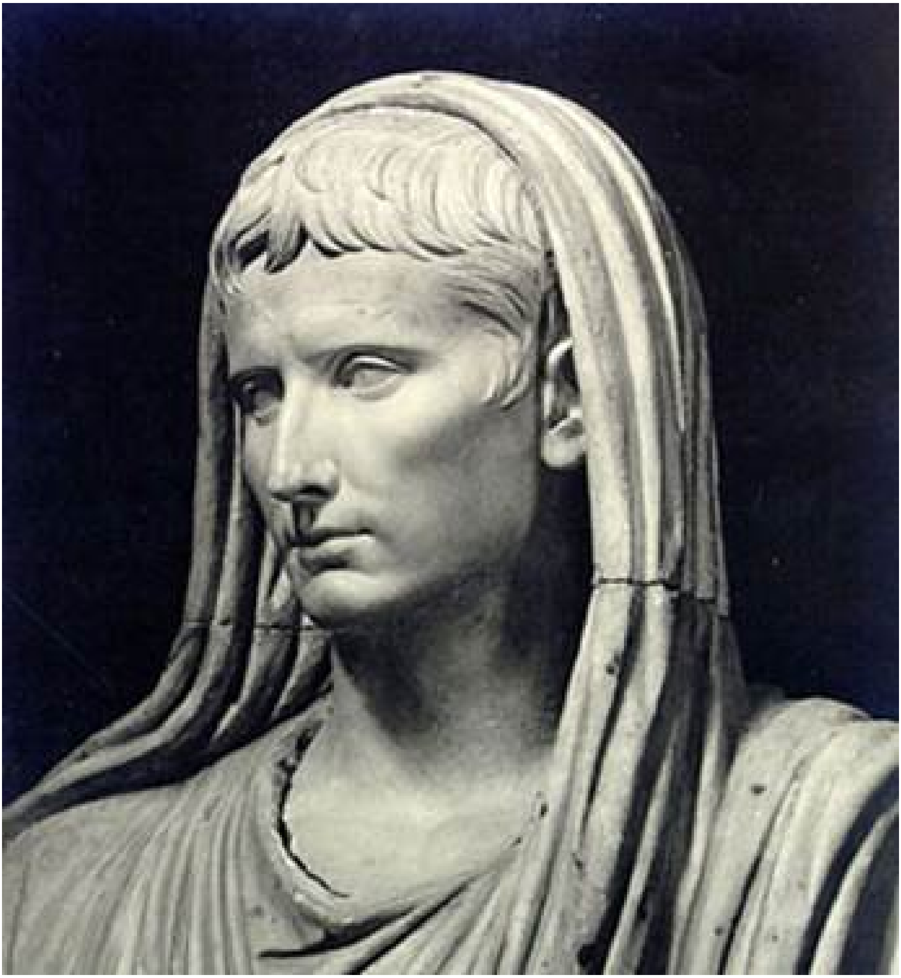
Rome's Pontifex Maximus—an Important Position

Religion in pre-Christian Roman times was marked by diversity. There was never really a single theme in the worship of any particular god or set of gods, and it remained very much a haphazard collection of local beliefs, varying greatly from region to region.

It was only after the time of the emperor Octavian Augustus that any formalization of religious beliefs came into being. After Octavian, all the Roman emperors were known by the title of *Pontifex Maximus* or "Greatest Pontiff."

The idea of this title was that the emperor would be the formal head of whatever particular cult happened to be the most popular at that time in the empire. This was not limited to a single religion—it could also be any number of beliefs which were in existence simultaneously. The Pontifex Maximus position was the Romans' attempt to try and create some sort of religious unity, although all cults were accorded equal status.

AUGUSTUS WEARING ROBES OF OFFICE OF PONTIFEX MAXIMUS



A statue from circa 20 BC shows Octavian Augustus wearing the robes of office of Pontifex Maximus ("Greatest Pontiff"), the high priest of the ancient Roman College of Pontiffs. A religious office under the early Roman Republic, it was later absorbed into the imperial office. In an attempt to provide some sort of cultural unity, the emperor became chief priest of all the religions in Rome. The religion followed personally by the emperor came to be regarded as the most desirable among the citizens, and this played a major role in helping to popularize Christianity after the emperor Constantine converted to that faith.

The position of the emperor as chief priest of what was deemed to be the unofficial state religion (or religions) was to have major consequences. Very often, a cult either gained or lost popularity solely because of the emperor's interest in it.

One of the more obvious examples occurred when the

Macedonian queen of Egypt, Cleopatra, visited Rome. The presence of somebody thought to be an Egyptian queen (she was, of course, not of Egyptian stock but actually Macedonian) sparked off a major revival in the ancient Egyptian cult of Isis, which eventually died out once again.

Christianity Originates in the Middle East

Before it came to dominance, Christianity was merely one more of these numerous cults, and, like many of its competitors, originated in the Middle Eastern reaches of the empire, in the Roman province of Judea (also known as Palestine).

Following the conquests of Alexander the Great, Palestine had been ruled intermittently by either the Ptolemies or the Seleucids, both descendants of Alexander's generals of the same name. It was while under the rule of the Seleucids that the great temple in Jerusalem was built as a center for the Jewish religion, a surviving wall of which is today known as the Wailing Wall.

The Semitic-speaking peoples living in Palestine were known as Jews, a tribe which had been in existence for many centuries prior to this. What set the Jews apart from their neighbors was their religion, which, in contrast to their neighbors, was monotheistic. Its one god, Jahweh or Jehovah, was, and still is, central to the Jewish religion, although monotheism originated with the ancient Egyptian pharaoh Akhenaton. Other religions all had a pantheon of gods, each looking after a particular aspect of life on earth and in the beyond.

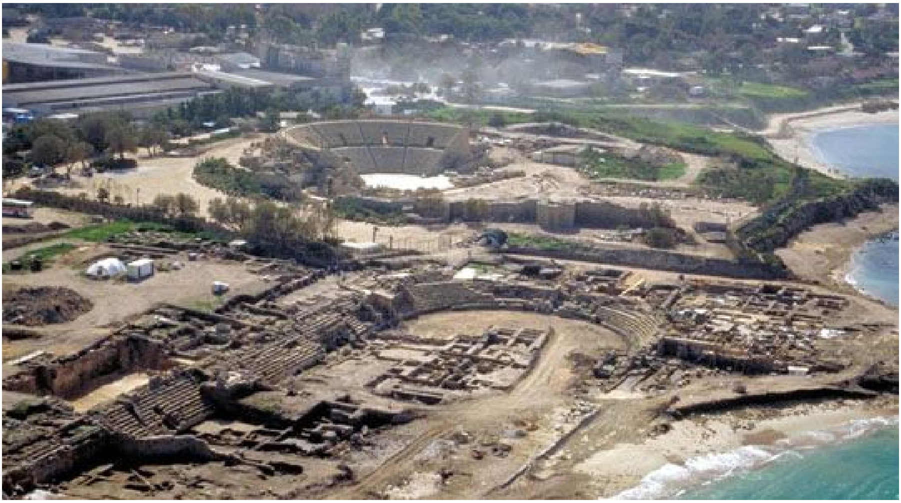
The Jewish Rebellion against Seleucid Rule 168 BC

Seleucid rule in Palestine caused many Jews to take on the ways and even the Greek language of their rulers. This led them into conflict with the more nationalistic Jews, and a minor skirmish broke out between these two groups in 168 BC.

The fighting provoked the ruling Seleucids into trying to stamp out the Jewish religion. Among their measures, they ordered the Jewish temple in Jerusalem to be stripped of its Judaic artifacts and dedicated to the worship of the Greek god Zeus.

The Jews rebelled at this order, and after a short military conflict, were able to exact partial independence from the Seleucids in 142 BC, and full independence in 129 BC. The leader of the Jewish rebels was one Judas Maccabeus, and he became the first Jewish king in Palestine, creating the Maccabean dynasty which lasted until 64 BC.

CITY OF CAESAREA BUILT BY HEROD TO HONOR ROMANS



The extent of Roman power in Palestine is illustrated in the ruins of the city of Caesarea Palaestina, situated in northern Israel on the Mediterranean coast. Built on the ruins of an earlier settlement by the Jewish King Herod to honor the Roman emperor around 25 BC, the city contained a deep sea harbor, markets, wide roads, baths, temples honoring Augustus, and imposing public buildings including an amphitheater. Every five years the city hosted major sports competitions, gladiator games, and theatrical productions. The theater was the first of its kind in Palestine, and was maintained throughout the Roman and much of the Byzantine eras. It had a seating capacity of around four thousand and is used to this day.

Romans Invited into Palestine 64 BC

Independence in Judea did not bring stability, and the Jewish state was continually wracked by internal dissent and rebellion. In the midst of one of the civil wars, a group of Jews appealed for help from the Roman general Pompey, whose army was completing the conquest of Turkey and Syria at the time. He agreed to help, and Palestine was occupied as a Roman protectorate in 64 BC.

True to their long established practice, the Romans immediately began Romanizing the Jews and recruiting locals to run the province. In this way, the Roman senate appointed the Jew, Herod as king of Judea in 37 BC. After his death in 4 BC, Judea was divided up into smaller units, most of which were ruled by other Roman-appointed governors.

Jews Move to Rome—First Expulsion 19 AD

During this time some Jews immigrated to Rome, making use of the traditional lack of Roman control over entry into the city. However, their presence aroused a marked anti-Semitism even among the fairly easygoing Romans. In 19 AD, the Jews were to experience for the first time a situation with which they would later become familiar. In that year, the Roman emperor Tiberius formally barred all Jews from Rome and deported all those he could find in the city. This ban on Jews only lasted a few years, for it was not long before they, along with ever increasing numbers of other foreigners from all parts of the empire, once again took up residence in Rome. By this time, Jews had started settling in other parts of the Middle East, Asia Minor, North Africa, and Egypt, in each of these places attracting the enmity of the local populations.

Jewish Revolt—"Horrid Cruelties"

In Palestine, dissension was always brewing. In 66 AD, nationalist Jews rebelled against Roman rule, and the Roman garrison in Jerusalem were slaughtered. The revolt spread quickly to all parts of the province, fanned by a marked hatred for Rome.

This Jewish hatred for the original Roman Empire was well documented to the point where the famous English historian Edward Gibbon, in his classic work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* (Lippincourt, Philadelphia, 1878, vol. 2, page 4), had the following to say: "*From the reign of Nero to that of Antoninus Pius, the Jews discovered a fierce impatience of the dominion of Rome, which repeatedly broke out in the most furious massacres and insurrections. Humanity is shocked at the recital of horrid cruelties which they committed in the cities of Egypt, of Cyria, and of Cyrene, where they dwelt in treacherous friendship with the unsuspecting natives; and we are tempted to applaud the severe retaliation which was exercised by the arms of the Legions against a race of fanatics whose dire and credulous superstition seemed to render them the implacable enemies not only of the Roman government, but of all human kind.*"

It was, therefore, not surprising that the Romans sent an army to quell a new uprising in 68 AD. This successfully squashed the Jewish rebellion in 70 AD, and the last of the Jewish rebels were besieged at the mountaintop fort of Masada.

After a lengthy siege, Masada fell to the Romans in 73 AD. Palestine remained under nominal Roman control for some eight hundred years thereafter, first as part of the Western Roman Empire, and then as part of the Eastern Roman Empire.

MASADA—JEWISH REBELLION

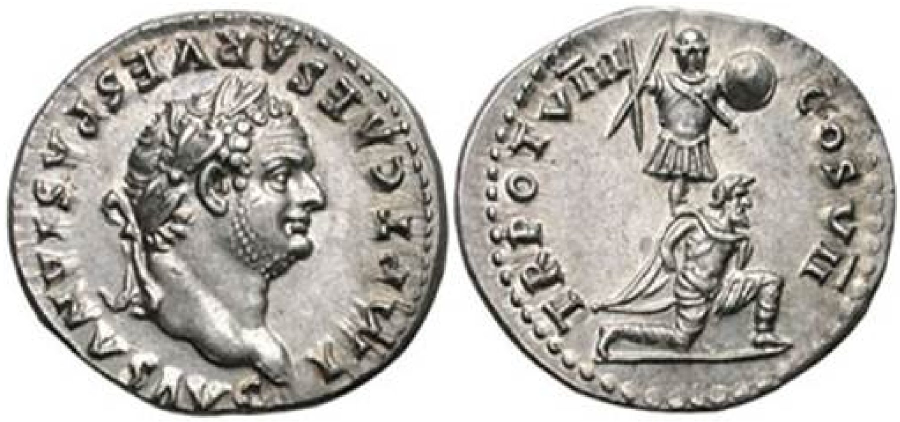
The hilltop fort of Masada, Israel. During the course of the Jewish rebellion (which started in 68 AD), Roman legions occupied Jerusalem in 70 AD. They drove out or killed the Jews in the city, and about one thousand remaining Jewish rebels fled to the remote mountain fort. Undeterred, the Romans followed them and laid siege to the rebel stronghold. After a two year siege, during which the Romans built a massive earth ramp all the way up the one side of the mountain (which can still be seen in the foreground), all but seven of the Jews committed suicide rather than being taken alive, fully aware of the fate that awaited them should they be captured by the avenging Romans.

Titus Suppresses Jewish Revolt in Palestine—Triggers Diaspora 70 AD

The suppression of the 70 AD rebellion had another important consequence. The Romans, furious at the continued rebellions, renamed Jerusalem Ælia Capitolina and outlawed the practice of Judaism. Jews were forbidden entrance to the city under pain of death. As a result, the Jews were scattered throughout the world in a movement known as the Diaspora. A large number went north into southern Russia, mixing with local tribes along the way and eventually penetrating into eastern and central Europe.

A number of Jews went out along Turkey and settled in Rome, while a small number settled in Gaul. However, not all Jews went north—a significant portion went west along the North African coast, setting up Jewish communities all the way to Tunisia, and finally crossing into southern Spain.

EMPEROR TITUS—CRUSHES JEWS AND TRIGGERS DIASPORA



The emperor Titus—Roman conqueror of the Jews and destroyer of Jerusalem, an act accomplished in 70 AD. In 68 AD, the Jews rebelled against Roman rule, despite having originally asked the Romans to occupy that land to bring order and peace to it. Roman revenge for the Jewish vacillation was severe—the Jews were forbidden to enter Jerusalem upon pain of death and dispersed from Palestine into North Africa and the Middle East in a movement known as the Diaspora. This laid the basis for the great Jewish immigration into Europe. Above: A Roman denarius depicting Titus, 79 A.D. The reverse commemorates his triumph in Palestine and shows a kneeling Jewish prisoner.

ROMANS DISPLAY JEWISH TROPHIES ON ARCH OF TITUS FROM VICTORIOUS CAMPAIGN IN PALESTINE

The crushing of the Jewish revolt in 68 AD by a Roman army was commemorated as a great feat of arms. On the Arch of Titus, erected in Rome and still standing to this day, Roman soldiers are shown bringing Jewish trophies (note the menorah taken from the Jewish temple in Jerusalem) back to Rome.

Origin of the Ashkenazim and Sephardim Division in Jewry

The Jews who went to Europe via the east absorbed a substantial amount of European blood, and became known as the Ashkenazim, or European Jews. Those who settled in North Africa became known as the Sephardim. This division in Jewry exists to this day, and is most marked in Israel where the two communities, the Ashkenazim or “light” Jews and the Sephardim or “dark” Jews (dark because they did not mix with the number of Europeans to the same extent that the Ashkenazim did) tend to vote for different Israeli political parties.

Only their unique religion has kept them bound together after a fashion, although even this is divided into subsects.

Judaism—Uniquely Racial Religion

Although Christianity sprang from Judaism, its Jewish adherents were at first fiercely persecuted by the Jewish religious leaders. This was linked to the fact that Judaism had one particularly unique trait in that it was the first specifically racial religion. While all other religions had no limitations on who could become adherents, Judaism was limited by blood inheritance.

The uniqueness of the Jewish god was that he was a god only for the Jews, not for anyone else. Biological laws of descent were built into Judaism as divinely inspired laws. To this day, there is a rule that only someone born of a Jewish mother can be a Jew.

While some less strict Jewish communities have relaxed this rule to allow conversions from other faiths, the orthodox Jewish community follows this law to the letter. It is still followed to this day in Israel as citizenship is based exclusively on Jewish descent and not national origin.

Essene Beliefs—Origins of Christianity

While this racial religion unquestionably helped to preserve the Jewish identity, it irked some of them, who felt that their god was for all people, and not just the Jews. Around the year 100 BC, this dissenting group founded a new sect. It was loosely based on parts of the Talmud and introduced some new ideas to Judaism, most notably that their god was for all people.

This dissenting group of Jews became known as the Essenes. They developed a whole series of books relating to morals and lifestyles, including a monastic tradition, and pacifism. Most notably, they claimed to have a teacher, who they called the "Teacher of Righteousness," who, they said, had been murdered and then rose from the dead.

ESSENE'S DEAD SEA SCROLLS—OLDEST BIBLICAL TEXTS

The Book of Isaiah, as laid out in the Dead Sea Scrolls, discovered in

Palestine in 1947. They were the holy books of a subsect of Jews called the Essenes, who lived in the first century BC. The Essenes were persecuted by other Jews, who disagreed violently with the Essene belief that the Jewish god, Yahweh, was actually a god for all people, and not just the Jews. Many of the concepts which were later to become fundamental to Christianity were contained in the Essene religion. They even had an allegorical story about a wise prophet who was killed and then rose from the dead, known to them as the "Teacher of Righteousness."

The universality of their version of Jahweh (that he was a god for all people, not just for the Jews) remained the biggest point of difference between the Essenes and mainstream Judaism. This ideological clash eventually brought the Essenes into open conflict with their fellow Jews, and the rabbinical leaders urged the Jews to stamp out the new cult. Although it is not recorded what happened to the Essenes in Judea (it is presumed that the Jewish suppression worked in that region), the Essene tradition lived on among a small group of Jews, most of whom eventually left Palestine for more receptive ears elsewhere in the Roman Empire.

In Judea, the Essenes all but vanished, leaving behind only some of their holy books which they hid in caves around the Dead Sea. It was these books, discovered by chance in 1947, which become known as the Dead Sea Scrolls.

The basic ideology and format which the Essenes created laid the basis for what later became Christianity. It combined three major elements: the base beliefs of Judaism (today the Bible's Old Testament), the Indo-Aryan Zoroastrian (Persian) belief of heaven and hell (which does not appear in the Old Testament), and the Essene story of a killed and resurrected leader. From these strands, the religion was reworked and reformulated until it finally became Christianity.

Jesus Christ—No Contemporary Evidence

It is an important but little known fact that there is no contemporary (from his time) evidence showing that the biblical figure of Jesus Christ actually existed. The first source of information about the person who became known as Jesus Christ are the Gospels of the Bible's New Testament. As these works only appeared some 80 to 120 years after Christ's death, they are not contemporaneous. It is therefore possible that the person who was deified by Christianity could be a composite character based on the stories surrounding several Essene leaders, particularly the one they called the "Teacher of

Righteousness."

The first time that the name Jesus Christ appears in any Roman records (and they were generally meticulous in record keeping) is the book *The Jewish Wars,* by Josephus, a Romanized Jew, who was commissioned to write a history of the Jewish rebellion. Josephus's work was first published in 90 AD.

Other researchers have claimed that even this reference is a later addition to Josephus's work, citing irregularities in the actual passage. In the disputed passage, Josephus makes mention of a small sect of Jews who claim to follow a messiah figure called Jesus, but the mention is brief and in passing. In any event, by the time of Christ's alleged death (circa 33 AD) Christianity had very few followers, especially among the Jews themselves, who regarded the Christian philosophy as nothing but a reworking of the Essene cult, and did their best to silence it.

Saul of Tarsus Launches Christianity

One of the most zealous of these Jewish persecutors of the Essene ideology was a man by the name of Saul of Tarsus. He is unique in that he is the one major character who features in the New Testament for whom contemporaneous evidence does exist.

At some stage, according to the Bible, Saul experienced a vision and was persuaded that the Christian religion which he had been suppressing was actually correct. Saul then changed his name to Paul and set off on long evangelistic tours of Asia Minor, Cyprus, and Greece, attracting small bands of followers and writing proselytizing pieces along the way. Returning to preach in Jerusalem, he was violently attacked by his fellow Jews and was imprisoned for two years. Following an appeal to the Roman emperor, Paul was transferred to Rome in 60 AD. Placed under house arrest, he was eventually beheaded by the emperor Nero, who developed a particular hatred for the new religion. Paul did much to create and solidify the groundwork for Christianity, and many of his writings were taken up into the New Testament.

Roman Persecution and Tolerance of Christianity

The official Roman attitude to religion was one of tolerance—except when openly subversive to Roman rule. Early Christians refused to take part in any Roman state ceremonies (viewing them as pagan) and would not serve in the army or hold public office, echoing the Essene beliefs of a century earlier. This attitude prompted the

Roman leadership to begin a program of persecution against the Christians.

The first major campaign was launched by the emperor Decius in 250 AD and the last by Diocletian in 302 AD. However, the campaigns of sustained persecution of Christians had the opposite effect to that intended. The new religion thrived on martyrdom, and Christianity steadily gained new adherents despite the state's attempts to stamp it out.

The Christian religion had to compete for supremacy with a number of other religions in the Middle East and the Roman Empire. It only grew large enough to be a serious contender after the emperor Galerius issued an Edict of Toleration in 311, making Christianity legal in the eastern part of the empire.

NERO—MALIGNED ENEMY OF CHRISTIANITY

The Roman emperor Nero reigned from 37 AD to 68 AD, and was a great *persecutor of Christianity, overseeing the throwing of Christians to the lions in the Coliseum among other things. As a result, later historical accounts of his life tend to be biased, leading to his portrayal as the personification of evil. In July 64 AD, two-thirds of Rome burned while Nero was at Antium. Biased versions of history have usually held that he either set the fire—something that was impossible, as he was not present—or that he played the fiddle while Rome burned (the fiddle was not invented until 1500 years after his death). Nero claimed to have proof that Christians had set the fire, and persecuted them even more vigorously after the event. In contrast to his image as an uncaring madman, he ordered that all the people made homeless as a result of the fire be housed and provided with grain, all at state expense. He then had the city rebuilt with fire precautions. Nero was also an accomplished artist and man of letters, and personally acted in several important plays of the time. He was emperor when the Jewish revolt in Palestine broke out. As a result of internal politics, in 68 AD the Gallic and Spanish legions, along with the Praetorian Guards rose against him, and he fled Rome. Declared a public enemy by the senate, he committed suicide in 68 AD.*

Constantine's Conversion 312 AD

The breakthrough for Christianity in the Roman world came with the emperor Constantine's conversion to that religion in 312 AD. The background to his conversion—or, as many scholars have claimed, his alleged conversion—is shrouded in controversy.

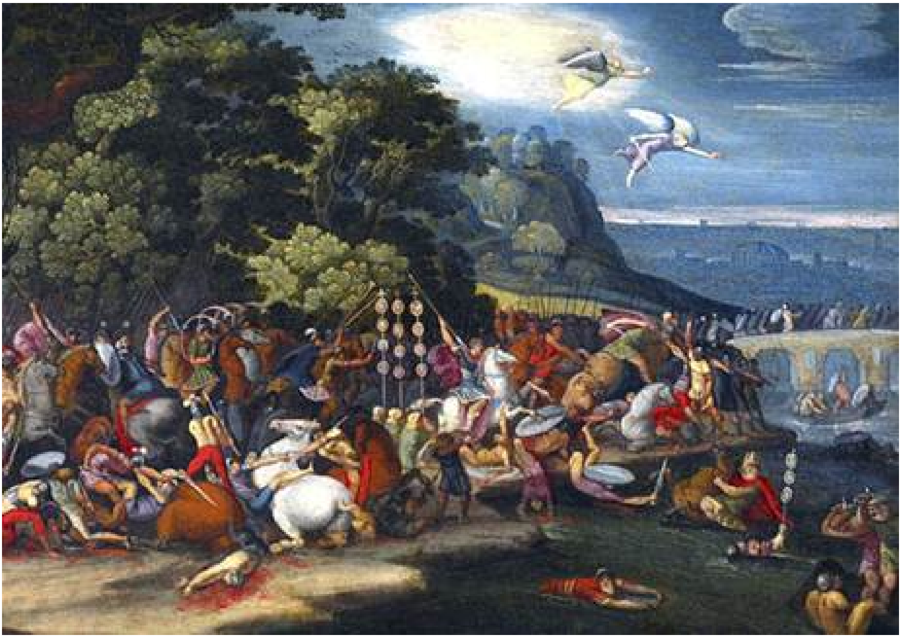
It is said that while engaged in battle with a rival claimant to the throne, Constantine had a vision of a cross in the sky, above which were written the words *In Hoc Signo Vinces* ("In this sign you will conquer").

It is alleged that he took this as a sign from the Christian god that he would win the battle—if he converted to Christianity. Constantine went on to win the struggle for the throne, and then did convert to Christianity.

While many have questioned the veracity of the "vision" story, the reality is that Constantine issued the Edict of Milan in 313 AD, which legalized Christianity throughout the empire and placed it on a par with all other religions.

With the conversion of the emperor of Rome to Christianity, the established pattern of following the emperor's lead in religious matters came into play. Very rapidly, Christianity became one of the most popular religions throughout the Roman Empire.

CONSTANTINE CONVERTS TO CHRISTIANITY 312 AD



Constantine at the Battle of Milvian Bridge, 312 AD. This decisive battle by Constantine against a rival claimant to the Eastern Roman Empire's throne marked a major turning point in history. It was here that Constantine reputedly saw, written in the sky, the Latin phrase "In Hoc Signo Vinces" (in this sign you will conquer) and a cross. By choosing Christianity and the cross as his emblem, Constantine caused the Christianization of the Roman Empire and ultimately all of Europe.

"Donation of Constantine"—A Fabrication

Constantine's conversion to Christianity led directly to the most famous forgery in European history, known as the "Donation of Constantine." This document purports to be a signed document by Constantine with its principal feature the granting of temporal authority over the city of Rome and the entire Roman Empire to the bishop of Rome (who was to become the pope).

Although there are many glaring factual errors in the text of the document, which by themselves show the document to be a forgery, the Donation of Constantine was accepted as genuine until the fifteenth century. It was used by the Catholic Church to claim political power in the Roman Empire and all Christian lands. Eventually the Donation of Constantine was rejected as a forgery—but by then the Church had established itself in almost all of Europe, power founded on a forgery.

Julian the Apostate

One of Constantine's successors, the emperor Julian, attempted to reverse the Christianization process, earning him the name Julian the Apostate. He simply overturned Constantine's adoption of Christianity as the state religion, relegating it to just one of many competing religions once again. The manner in which Julian reversed the progress of Christianity served as an example of the arbitrary way in which the personal wishes of the emperor could influence the whole empire.

To underline the point, the next emperor after Julian converted the empire back into a formal Christian state. The end result of all this to-and-fro activity was that from the year 395 AD, Christianity became the legal, sole, and official religion of the Roman Empire.

Christianity became widely known in southern Europe some 1,700 years ago, and was only accepted in northern Europe many hundreds of years after that. The last northern European country to formally adopt Christianity was Iceland around the year 1,000 AD.

EMPEROR JULIAN—PAGANISM'S CHAMPION

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The emperor Julian, nephew of the Christianizer Constantine, was raised as a Christian, but always secretly abhorred that religion and favored the old Roman gods. When he became emperor in 361, he overturned his uncle's decision to favor Christianity, and very nearly halted the progress of that religion through the empire. His successors were Christians and they undid his reforms.

The Office of the Pope

As Christianity became formalized throughout the empire, each major town was assigned a religious leader, called a bishop. Gradually the bishop of Rome came to be recognized as the most important, and assumed the title of "Pope" (from the Greek word meaning father).

By the seventh century AD, the pope had become the spiritual leader of all Christendom and was in possession of great political power, aided by the forged Donation of Constantine. The pope even adopted the Roman emperors' color, purple, which to this day remains the most used color in the Catholic Church.

Disputes Almost Immediate

Although there was initially only one Christian church—the Catholic Church—disputes over interpretations of the religion broke out among its supporters. As Christianity spread, it became more and more disorganized, with serious disputes erupting among the various missionaries.

One of the earliest clashes was over the concept of what was called "Arianism" (named after Arius, a Christian leader in Alexandria), in regard to the three components of the Trinity: God, Christ, and the Holy Ghost. The belief that all three of these beings were one and the same was challenged by Arius who argued that the Christ figure could not be God as well. So seriously was this dispute taken, that Emperor Constantine called a special meeting of all the major leaders of the religion in 325 AD, to the now famous Council of Nicaea, to discuss the problem. At the Council of Nicaea it was decided that the Arian doctrine was incorrect, and it was declared a heresy.

Bible Created—First Council of Nicaea 325 AD

Several other disputes over doctrine made the religious leaders gathered at Nicaea realize that if some weighty final word on the outline of their belief was not forthcoming, the religion could splinter into factions. The problem was that there was no such outline or book in existence.

The council at Nicaea then took it upon themselves to create such a book, and turned to whatever texts they could find. To achieve this, they gathered up all the existing manuscripts being used by the Christian church in various parts of the empire, and compared and selected which ones to include in the final version.

This was not without its difficulties. The books now contained in the Old Testament were largely oral before 300 BC, although some had been written down by Jewish rabbis. King Ptolemy II of Philadelphus (285–246 BC) is credited with ordering the translation of the Jewish religious books into Greek. The Christian version of the Old Testament was only established as a comprehensive work by the scribe Origen around 250 AD, and up until that time only loose translations of the Ptolemaic Greek work formed the basis of that religion's teachings.

CODEX SINAITICUS—WORLD'S OLDEST "COMPLETE" BIBLE

The Codex Sinaiticus, a manuscript of the Bible written in the middle of the fourth century AD, contains the earliest existent copy of the New Testament and most of the Old Testament, on display at the British Library in London. The handwritten text is in Greek. The New Testament appears in the original vernacular lang-uage (koine). The Old Testament is the version known as the Septuagint which was adopted by early Greek-speaking Christians. The Codex Sinaiticus was probably compiled after the First Council of Nicaea in 325 AD, at which disparate manuscripts used by Christian leaders all over the Roman world were compiled into one book to try and avoid disputes over interpretation. Modern Bibles differ in a number of places from the Codex Sinaiticus, which omits the following verses: Matthew 12:47, 16:2b–3, 17:21, 18:11; Mark 15:28, 16:8–20; Luke 22:43–44; John 5:4; Epistle to the Romans 16:24. Phrases which do not appear include: Mark 1:1, "the Son of God;" Matthew 6:13, "For thine is the kingdom, and the power, and the glory, for ever. Amen;" Luke 23:34, "Then said Jesus, Father, forgive them; for they know not what they do." An interesting part of the Codex Sinaiticus which was omitted in later versions of the Bible can be found in its Matthew 27:49 verse which describes the piercing of Christ's side by a Roman solider with a spear while on the cross. According to the Codex version, the soldier "took a spear and pierced His side, and immediately came out water and blood."

New Testament Collated 200 AD—Vague Origins of Biblical Writings

The origins of the New Testament are very vague. By the end of the first century AD, the writings of Saul/Paul (called the Pauline Epistles) consisting of letters to the various Christian communities in Asia Minor and Rome had been established as a collection of inspired works. The Gospels which make up the first part of the New Testament only emerged after the writings of Paul had become well-known, and long after his death.

This is evidenced by the fact that in his writings there is no mention of any other New Testament book or gospel, and his account of what Jesus did on the night he was betrayed (1 Corinthians 11:23) differs substantially from that recounted in the Gospels of Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John. It is clear that if the four gospels were in existence at the time when Paul wrote his epistles (around the year 55 AD), he would have at least mentioned them, or very likely quoted from them. The earliest existent gospel consists of fragments of the Gospel of John in the Greek language. These fragments date from about 100 AD.

By 200 AD, the Church had developed the New Testament in its present form, although it was still written in various languages, including Greek and Hebrew.

The only book which did not yet feature in the collected works was the Book of Revelation. Where this last section came from no one knows for sure, but by the fourth century it had been included in the New Testament. Not all of these various manuscripts were in accord with each other, and this presented a real problem for the Council of Nicaea. Finally, the decision was taken to simply leave out several early Christian manuscripts which did not fit in with the other books. The most famous of these “left out” (or “apocryphal”) books include the Book of Enoch, the Epistle of Jude, the Epistle of Barnabas, fragments of the Book of Jubilees, and the Gospel of St. Thomas. The latter was discarded because the events described therein are at serious variance with the events described in the four more well-known Gospels.

The Council of Nicaea went a long way toward formalizing the Bible as Christians know it today, in an attempt to prevent the church from splitting again as it nearly did over the Arian controversy. In this attempt they failed, and some of the most grievous conflicts in Europe were over different interpretations of the Bible.

Spread of Christianity Is Resisted

When the Roman Empire in the West collapsed, Christianity had been spread throughout its former dominions, with the exception of the Germans, the Balts, and a significant section of the Slavs. Nonetheless, the Germanic tribes who participated in the sacking of Rome at the formal end of that empire did not destroy the Roman

Catholic Church along with the Roman state.

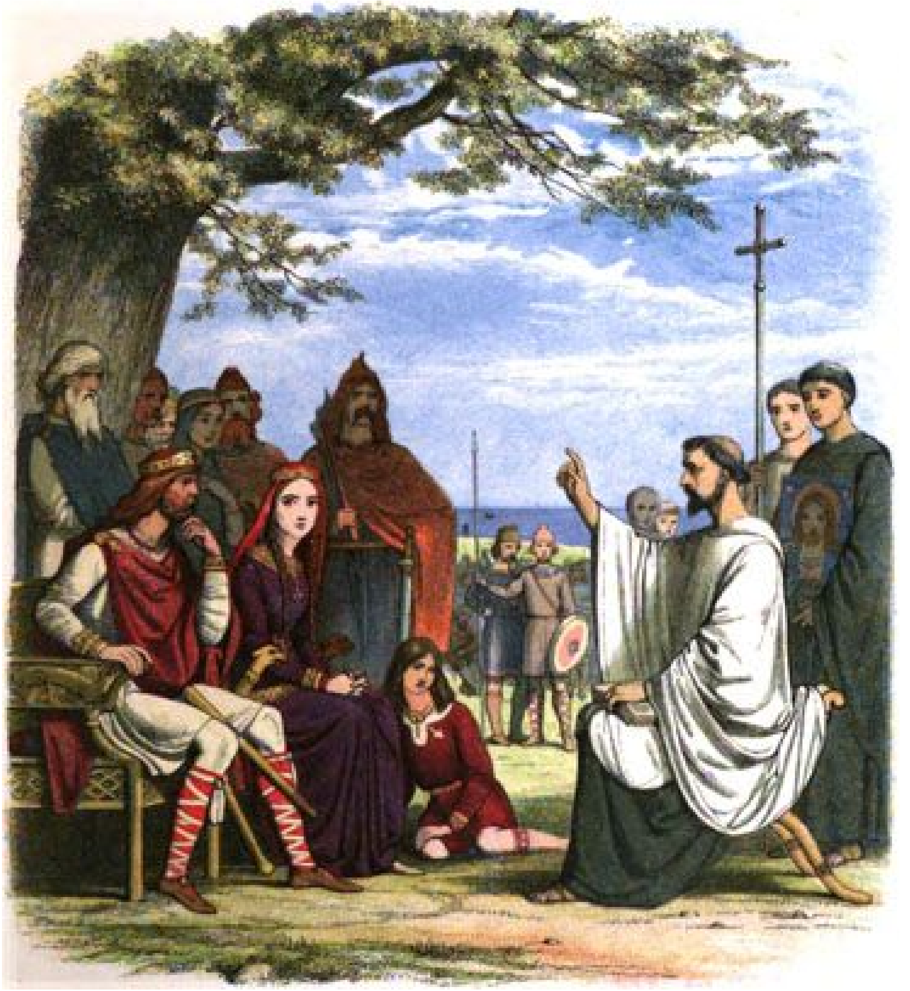
The leader of the church in Rome, the pope, survived the Germanic invasions, and went on to become an important political player in his own right. The Church also lost no time in sending Christian missionaries to the pagan tribes, the most famous of them being Wufilas (311–383 AD), who worked among the Visigoths. Another famous missionary was Patrick, who, although born in Britain, went to Ireland and became the Christianizer of that island, later being made a saint by the church for his efforts.

Saxon Invasion of Britain

The Roman Christianization of the British Isles was set back with the invasion of those lands by pagan Germans (the Angles and Saxons) following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire. As a result, most of the British mainland became pagan once again, with Christianity only surviving in the Celtic fringes of Ireland and Wales. To counteract this development, the Catholic Church sent a missionary, St. Augustine, to Britain from Rome in 597 AD. Augustine managed to convert an important Anglo-Saxon ruler to Christianity, and that religion began to spread once again in Britain.

Christian Britain in turn gave rise to the missionary, St. Boniface, who spent thirty-five years among the German tribes on the mainland of Europe before he was killed in 755 AD. Catholic missionaries were also active among the Germanic tribes living in Scandinavia, but met with much less success than in Britain or Central Europe.

AUGUSTINE REINTRODUCES CHRISTIANITY TO BRITAIN



The return of Christianity to Britain. That religion, introduced during late Roman rule, had been stamped out in England during the Angle and Saxon Germanic invasions following the fall of Rome. In 597 AD, the pope sent a missionary, St. Augustine, to try and Christianize the British population. He was fortunate in receiving the aid of King Ethelbert and his queen, Bertha, and managed to establish a significant Christian following in that land. Here Augustine is pictured preaching to a Saxon king.

The Conversion of the Frankish King Clovis I in 496 AD

The Franks were a Germanic tribe who had emerged from northern Europe to occupy much of what is today Germany and France. With the fall of the Roman Empire, the Frankish tribes had set up small kingdoms scattered up and down the length and breadth of these two territories.

One of the most important conversions to Christianity on the mainland of Europe was the first king of the Franks, Clovis I, in 496 AD. He invaded the Visigoth Empire in 507 AD, causing them to abandon the part of France they had occupied since the fall of Rome and to retreat to Spain. The Frankish king, Pepin the Short, who reigned from 741 to 768 AD, was notable for being the first ruler of France to receive from the pope an official sanction to his kingship. Pepin was crowned by the English missionary, St. Boniface, acting on behalf of the pope, in 752 AD. This would be the first of many times that the pope would see fit to approve leaders of states in the name of God.

In 768, Pepin's son, Charlemagne (Charles the Great), inherited the Frankish kingdom. It was this king who was directly responsible for the introduction of Christianity to the Germans.

Charlemagne Murders Tens of Thousands of Non-Christian Saxons

To destroy German paganism, Charlemagne proclaimed harsh laws applicable to those Germans under his control who refused to be baptized into Christianity. Eating meat during Lent, cremating the dead, and pretending to be baptized were all made punishable by death. In 768 AD, Charlemagne started a thirty-two-year long campaign of what can only be described as genocidal evangelism against the Saxons under his control in western Germany.

CHARLEMAGNE AND ENFORCED CHRISTIANITY

The sword and the cross: Charlemagne, and two of his armed priests. The Frankish king was directly responsible for the forced and violent introduction of Christianity to much of western Europe. This was at least partially achieved by killing pagans who did not want to convert to Christianity.

The campaign started with the cutting down of the Saxon's most sacred tree, their version of the World Tree or Yggdrasil (the symbol of the start of the earth and the source of all life in the ancient Indo-European religions), located in a forest near present-day Marburg.

Charlemagne quickly turned to violence as a means of spreading Christianity. In 772, at Quierzy, he issued a proclamation that he would kill every Saxon who refused to accept Jesus Christ, and from that time on he kept a special detachment of Christian priests who doubled as executioners. In every Saxon village in which they stopped, these priests would execute anybody who refused to be baptized.

Then in 782, at Verden, Charlemagne carried out the act for which he is most notoriously associated. He ordered the beheading of 4,500 Saxons who had been caught practicing paganism after they had agreed to become Christians. Charlemagne's constant companion and biographer, the monk Einhard, vividly captured the event in his biography of the Frankish king. In it is written that the king rounded up 4,500 Saxons who *"like dogs that return to their vomit"* had returned to the pagan religions they had been forced to give up upon pain of death. After having all these Saxons beheaded, *"the king went into winter camp, and there celebrated mass as usual."* Twelve years later, in 794, Charlemagne introduced a law under which every third Saxon living in any pagan area was kidnapped and forced to resettle and be raised among Christian Franks.

With the use of violent and bloody coercion, Saxon and German paganism was quite literally killed off. Most of the survivors became Christians more out of fear than out of genuine conviction.

Christianity finally spread to the Goths, through a Christian slave named Wulfila, who translated the Bible into Gothic. Before the end of the fourth century, Christianity had spread to the Vandals, the Burgundians, the Lombards, and other German tribes within the direct sphere of influence of the Western Roman Empire. By the year 550 AD, the only non-Christian tribes were to be found in Bavaria and those parts of Germany north from there—including almost all of the Danes, Scandinavians, Balts, and Slavs to the east.

Pagan Origins of Christmas and Easter

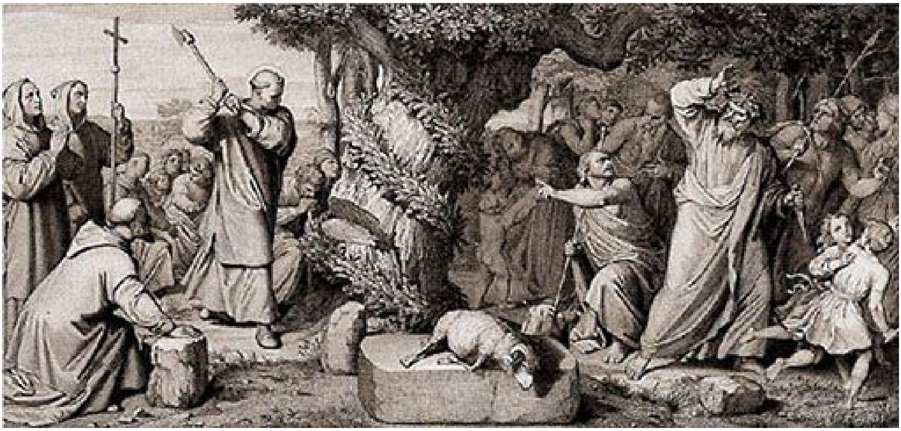
Through sheer terror, Christianity then became the dominant religion of the previously pagan central Europe. Yet, because some pagan customs were far too entrenched to be rooted out, they were quietly incorporated into Christianity. In this way, Easter, for example, was absorbed to become a celebration of the resurrection of Christ—although its pagan origins are clearly shown in the symbolism of the egg and the rabbit. Both of these come directly from the pagan goddess of fertility, Eoster (from which Easter was derived), who used the egg and rabbit as fertility symbols. The date of Easter—at springtime, when new life emerged from winter, was linked to Eoster, and this was why it was celebrated at that time of year.

The same happened with the winter solstice, which was originally a pagan celebration to mark the turning point of winter. The pagans marked the longest night of the year with a fire, a pine tree, and gifts to mark the fact that they had survived yet another winter. Christianity combined the solstice celebration with the birth of Christ, in this way preserving much of the outer trappings of the pagan celebration which are still kept in modern times.

The church was uneasy with the pagan undertones of the celebration, particularly the "Christmas tree." This led to the Catholic Church officially banning the celebration of Christmas no less than three times, all of which were unsuccessful.

Christmas was also banned in Britain by Oliver Cromwell in 1647, and in 1659 by the Puritans in the American colony town of Boston in New England. The ban in Boston was so long lasting that Christmas only became fashionable again in that city in the 1800s.

BONIFACE CUTS DOWN THOR'S SACRED TREE



The Christian missionary, St. Boniface, cutting down the sacred great oak tree of Geismar, Hesse, in 724 AD. The oak tree was sacred to the god Thor, and was one of many pagan sites which the Christians destroyed in their ultimately successful campaign to extinguish the pagan religions. Similar acts of desecration were carried out against numerous non-Christian sites, with Roman temples singled out for destruction. Despite this, many of the original customs remained, such as the celebration of the spring and winter solstices. The Christians took the celebration of the pagan goddess of fertility, Eoster, and turned it into the Christian rite of Easter. The winter solstice, which marked the longest night of winter, was turned *into the festival today known as Christmas.*

Teutonic Knights Exterminate Baltic Pagans

The only significant group of whites left in Europe who were not, nominally at least, Christians by the year 1000 AD, were found in eastern Europe and along the Baltic Sea coast. To destroy this last bastion of paganism, the Church employed the services of some of the most fanatic Christians of all—the Teutonic Knights. This organization was first established in Palestine in 1190 as a charitable religious military order, providing first aid during the Crusades. By 1198 they had taken on a military role and took an active part in the war against the Muslims, becoming known as the Teutonic Knights.

Membership in the order was strictly limited to Christian German noblemen. The Teutonic Knights received official recognition from Pope Innocent III in 1199, and adopted the official uniform of a white tunic with a black cross. Soon their deeds on behalf of Christendom became famous. In 1210 they were invited to Hungary by the king of that country to participate in a war against the non-Christian pagan tribes in eastern Europe.

The Teutonic Knights responded to the call, and through the use of violent tactics similar to those employed by Charlemagne, became the Christianizers of the people of that region. This task soon became the sole obsession of the Teutonic Knights, and by 1226 the order had set up permanent settlements in northeastern Europe.

Teutonic Knights Stamp out Paganism

In 1226, the Holy Roman Emperor granted the Teutonic Knights control over what was then Prussia (today northern Poland) to rule as a fiefdom on condition that they converted all the locals to Christianity. In 1234, Pope Gregory IX granted the Knights control over any other territory that they might conquer from the pagans. The Teutonic Knights soon built a series of imposing castles to defend their new territory, some of which still stand today.

The fortress Ordensburg Marienburg, built in 1274 by the Teutonic Knights and located in present-day Poland. Originally called Marienburg, and now known by the Polish name Malborg, this castle was the seat of the Teutonic Order in the Baltic.

From the safety of these castles they waged their own brand of evangelicalism, which was limited to the Frankish king Charlemagne's recipe: once a number of pagans had been captured, they were offered the choice of either accepting Christianity and being baptized, or being killed on the spot. Unsurprisingly, almost all chose conversion. The price for being caught practicing paganism after being baptized was death. As was the case with the genocidal evangelicalism of Charlemagne, the first one or two generations of converts were in all likelihood not genuine.

Usually they would pay lip service to Christianity in order not to be killed (there is evidence for this in the numerous recorded instances of the tribes reverting to their pagan ways once the Teutonic Knights had moved on to a new area). However, by the third generation or so, the young children knew no other religion, and in this way Christianity replaced the original Indo-European religions.

The Teutonic Knights realized that the easiest way to change the nature of a society was to change its inhabitants, and actively encouraged already Christianized Germans to settle in Prussia. By 1300, the Teutonic Knights were one of the most powerful organizations in Germany, controlling territory which stretched from the Baltic Sea into central Germany, a private empire which saw them engaging in, on average, eight major wars every year.

Battle of Tannenburg Sees Knights Defeated 1410

It was only a matter of time before the Teutonic Knights ran out of pagans to convert. By 1386, the last of the major non-Christian tribes in the north, the Lithuanians, had all more or less been converted, and the order started to lose the reason for its existence. In addition to this, the methods employed by the order had not endeared it to the local populations, even though they were all now Christians. This enmity flared up into a new war in 1409, when the king of Poland invited all enemies of the Teutonic Knights to participate in a campaign against the order. This led to the Battle of Tannenburg in 1410, which saw the Teutonic Knights defeated.

In 1525, the order's grand master, Albrecht of Hohenzollern, became a Protestant and dissolved the order in Prussia. Scattered elements of the order lived on but the last were finally expelled in 1591 from the Baltic.

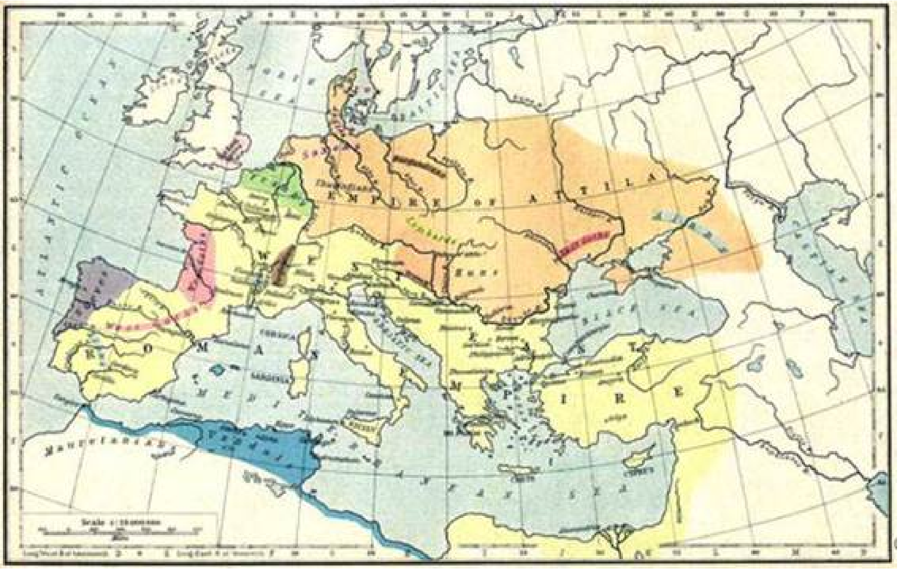
Christianity came to be the dominant religion of Europe for four reasons:

Firstly, paganism was swept aside because it was less organized and formalized; secondly, those hardcore pagans who refused to convert were either threatened with death or in some cases just executed; thirdly, Christianity was used as a political excuse by kings and popes to expand their own territories; and fourthly, through the use of syncretism (the merging of many aspects of European paganism with Christian belief).

CHAPTER 17: The First Great Race War—Attila the Hun 372–454 AD

Among the assortment of tribes on the eastern borders of the Roman Empire, one group in particular held sway: the Goths. This tribe, in the form of its various subdivisions, such as Ostrogoths, Visigoths, and others, was to play a significant role in the final overrunning of the Western Roman Empire.

When the Romans and the Goths first came into contact, however, Roman force of arms held them at bay beyond the eastern European continental borders of the empire. The Goths and their racial cousins, the Germanic tribes, kept up a continuous localized war with the Romans for many years, and would have doubtless continued to do so for even longer had a powerful racial foe not emerged which threatened to destroy them all. Into the midst of the struggles between the Germans, the Goths, and the Romans was to come the very first open race war in Europe—the invasion of the Asiatic tribe of the Huns.



The Empire of Attila in Europe stretched from the Caspian to the Rhine and Danube Rivers.

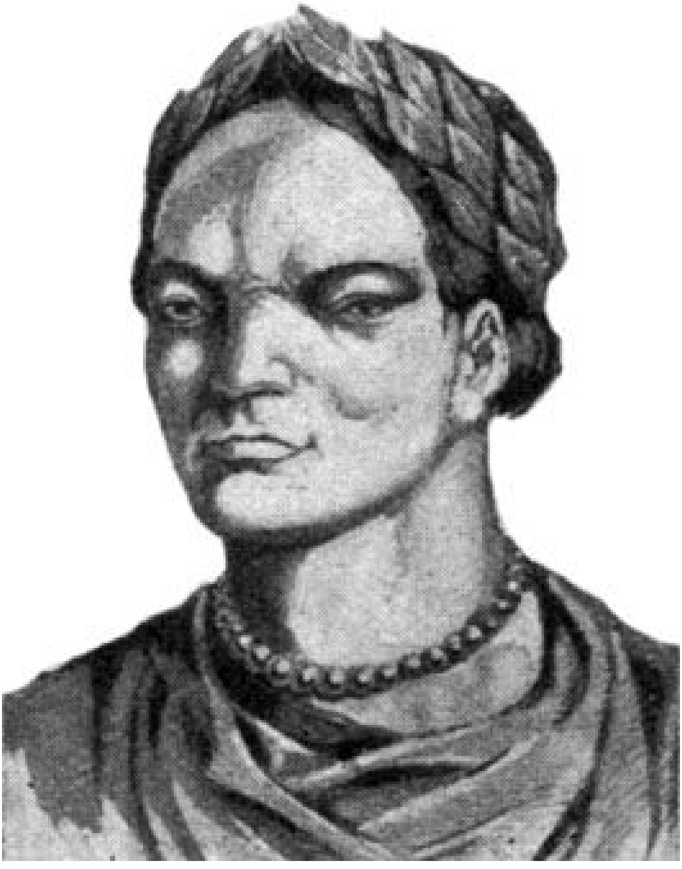
Asiatic Nomads of Mixed Race

The Huns, described by Roman sources as “short, brown skinned and slant eyed," were a Mongoloid-based racial group who originated from the Asiatic Steppes. They were a wild aggressive group who lived by force of arms. Although they shared some genetic commonality with the Chinese, they waged war on those people as well.

The Huns were continuously marching outward seeking new victims to plunder, and in a feat remarkable for the times, headed out west from the Steppes in a series of waves beginning from around 100 AD. They reached the Caspian Sea by around 158 AD, and by 360 AD had crossed the Volga River into present-day Russia.

Soon they were all over the Black Sea basin, the original Indo-European homeland, and it was there that they first came into contact with a European tribe—the Alans.

ATTILA—THE SCOURGE OF EUROPE

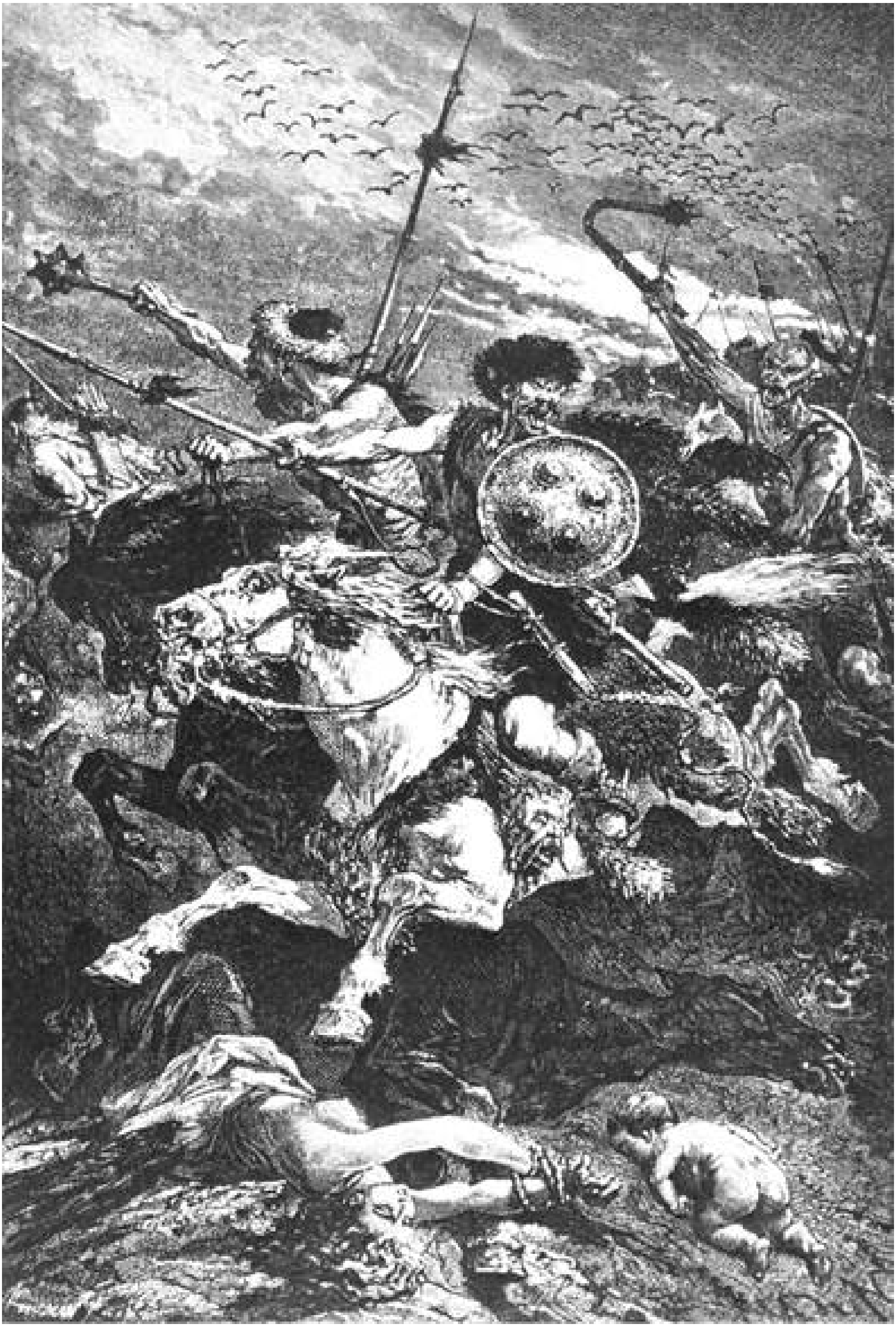


Attila the Hun after a Roman depiction. Leader of an Asiatic terror which swept across Europe with such fury and cruelty that his name has remained to this day a byword for tyranny. Defeated in central France in 451 AD, *the Huns attacked Italy in 452, the invasion being held up by an appeal from the pope. The Hunnish threat only faded after Attila died in 453 AD.*

Alans Become the First Victims 372 AD

The unsuspecting Alans were attacked by the Huns in 372 BC. Using their finely developed cavalry skills, the Huns easily crushed the Alans in a short series of encounters. Remnants of the Alans fled south and west, seeking refuge with the Gothic tribes, bringing with them the first news of the Asiatic terror.

HUNNISH TERROR SWEEPS ACROSS EUROPE 450 AD



The Asiatic terror swept across Europe, resulting in the death of countless thousands of whites. The most important legacy left by the Huns was not, as this nineteenth century woodcut suggests, the huge toll in white lives lost as a result of their invasion, but rather in the admixture of their genes into a minority of the far eastern Slavic peoples, helping to create what is today incorrectly regarded as the "Slavic" look. In fact, huge numbers of Slavs *have retained their European gene pool intact, and it is a common error to attribute the so-called "Slavic look" to the entire population in the region occupied by the Huns.*

Ostrogoths Fall before the Hun Invasion

If the Ostrogoths wondered what had befallen the Alans, they did not have to wait long to find out. The Huns swept further west and invaded the Ostrogothic lands (in present-day western Russia). The Ostrogothic king, Hermanric, committed suicide when the scale of the invasion and defeat became apparent. His successor, Vitimer, was killed in a follow-up battle against another Hunnish attack.

The Ostrogothic kingdom in western Russia disintegrated, and its survivors streamed further westward, into the lands of the Visigoths and Slavs. Athanaric, king of the Visigoths, engaged the Huns at the Dniester River in present-day Bulgaria, but was defeated. After this setback, the Visigoths were forced to fall back and beg the Romans for permission to settle inside the empire's territory, which would in theory be safer from the ravages of the Asiatic army.

This appeal was made all the more remarkable when it is borne in mind that the Romans and Visigoths had been at war almost constantly for nearly two centuries. As a result, when the Romans finally gave permission to the Visigoths to move into their territory, it was at a terrible price. The Visigoths had to surrender all their weapons and hand over large numbers of their women and children as hostages.

The Visigoths crossed the Danube River into Roman territory in 376 BC and settled in present-day Bulgaria. There they managed to gain a temporary reprieve from the ravages of the Huns, but the conditions under which the Romans forced them to stay were such that it was not long before Visigothic resentment boiled over into open rebellion.

Visigoth Rebellion—Battle of Adrianople

The Visigoths secretly rearmed themselves and launched a campaign against the Roman strongholds of Thrace and Macedonia in northern Greece. After an extended conflict, a Visigothic army defeated the Romans at the Battle of Adrianople in 378 AD. The Roman army was under the personal command of the emperor Valen, who had imposed the harsh conditions of refuge upon the Visigoths. Valen himself was killed in this battle. The defeat was all the more ironic as a large number of the Roman army's soldiers were Gothic mercenaries.

The political result of the defeat was that the Eastern Roman Empire then accepted the presence of the Visigoths in central Europe, and many of the restrictions placed upon them by Valen were lifted.

While the Goths and the Romans were grappling with one another, the former Visigothic lands were being seized by the Huns. By the time of the Battle of Adrianople, the Huns had occupied most of Dacia, the land originally seized by the Visigoths from the Romans (and which corresponds to the present-day country of Romania).

Europe Invaded

At this stage the racial balance of Europe could have swung decisively in favor of the Asiatic Mongoloids. All the original Indo-European ancestral homelands in the Black Sea basin had been either destroyed or occupied by the Huns. In addition, the Huns also occupied large parts of western Russia and portions of central and eastern Europe. Parts of modern central Germany, Hungary, and Romania were also occupied.

Not content with these conquests, the Asiatic Huns pushed further westward, moving entire nations and destroying everything in their path. In this way the remnants of the Alans, and many other minor tribes were forced westward, in turn displacing other already settled peoples. It was this displacement which led to further migrations of assorted Germanic tribes into Spain and even across the Mediterranean Sea into North Africa. By 432 AD, during the reign of Roman Emperor Theodosius I, the Huns had increased their stranglehold on eastern Europe and parts of central Europe to the point where they collected a large annual tribute from Rome.

Attila the Hun—Brutal Leader

In 433 AD, the Huns gained a new king, whose name would become a byword for the Asiatic terror: Attila. The new king established his headquarters at the village of Buda on the Danube River in 445 AD. Buda would later combine with another village on the other side of the river, Pest, to become Budapest, the modern capital of Hungary.

By this time, the Hunnish Empire stretched from the Caspian Sea in the east right up to the North Sea. In all of the area the Huns carried out a vicious racial war of extermination against the whites who were generally too weak to resist. Countless white settlements were wiped out, with the women routinely being carried off into captivity. In 452 AD, Attila began moving west again, with the intention of seizing France and finishing off all of Europe.

Hunnish Blood Enters Eastern Europe

By this stage a small number of Huns had physically integrated with some of the peoples they had conquered, an inevitable result of such migratory warfare. Traces of the Mongoloid influence can still be seen among some peoples in eastern Europe. This has given rise to what the ill-informed have falsely claimed is the “Slavic look.” This is not “Slavic” at all (true Slavs are very European), but is a reference to the minority of people who show a slight Mongoloid/Slavic ancestry. As a result of this limited integration process, the Huns managed to recruit some locals into their army. This was the cause of some unscrupulous soldiers from various eastern European tribes being present in the Hunnish army which finally invaded France. If captured, these whites were dealt with in an extremely harsh manner by their racial cousins.

The Hunnish armies penetrated right into western Europe, and stood poised to push through to the Atlantic Ocean. Europe stood on the very brink of extermination.

Battle of Troyes—United Whites Defeat Huns

The threat posed by the Hunnish army forced the ever squabbling Romans and Visigoths into a united front. A Roman army, under the last of the Western Empire’s properly Roman generals, Aetius, joined up with a Visigoth army under their king, Theodoric I. Together they met the Hunnish army in central France near the present-day city of Troyes in 451 AD. In a daylong battle, both sides inflicted heavy casualties on the other. The Visigoth king, Theodoric, was killed in the fighting, but by nightfall the combined white army had gained the upper hand over the invading Asians.

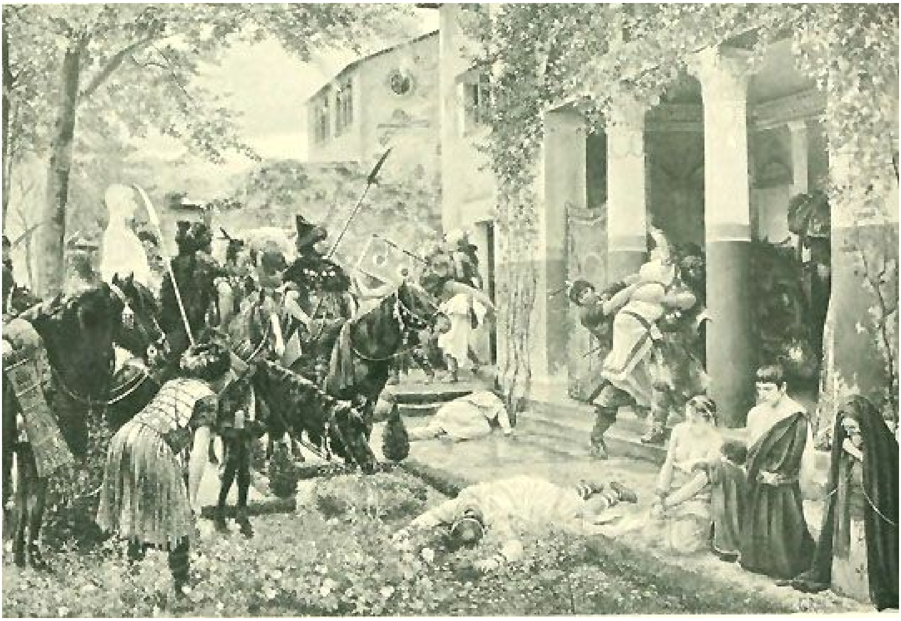
They were driven from the battlefield, their first major defeat in all of Europe. Attila was forced to retreat all the way from France to his base in Hungary. The Huns exacted a terrible revenge by slaughtering and looting those Europeans unfortunate enough to be in the path of their retreat.

Attila Slaughters Whites in Northern Italy

Defeated in western Europe, Attila launched one more invasion, this time turning south. In 452, his armies penetrated northern Italy, razed the city of Aquileia, and massacred the inhabitants. The survivors fled into the nearby marshes, where it is traditionally claimed they founded the city that became Venice.

The next year, 453 AD, the sixty-year-old Attila died allegedly of a burst blood vessel incurred during his wedding night exertions following his marriage to a local German princess. It is a matter of debate as to how much of that story is true but what is certain is that Attila suddenly died, and that he did indeed take a blonde German girl, named Hildico, as his wife. In this he followed the example set by many of his fellow Mongoloid warriors, whose genetic footprint can be seen on some faces in eastern Europe and Russia to this day.

HUNS SACK AND PILLAGE ROMAN VILLA 440 AD



Asiatics, known as Huns, attacked the easternmost white tribes, the Alans, in 372 AD. Quickly annihilating them, they marched east, forcing the squabbling Romans, Germans, and Goths to unite and face the communal racial threat. An overt race war, fought across Europe, then followed, with the Huns being defeated at Troyes in central France and at Nedao in central Europe. White Europe was nearly extinguished by this threat. Above is a depiction of a scene which befell hundreds of thousands of whites—a non-white raiding party attacking a Roman villa and carrying off booty.

Germanics Crush Huns and Save White Europe

Attila’s death was the signal for revolt by the Europeans who had been subjugated by the Huns. In 454 AD, the Goths, Slavs, and others who had managed to survive the nearly seventy years of cruel Asiatic rule, rose up. At the Battle of Nedao in that year, the combined Germanics finally defeated the Huns, destroying their power forever.

The Battle of Nedao became one of the most significant battles in white history. Without it, Europe would most likely have been completely overrun by Asiatics before 500 AD. The Germans, as victors over the Huns, became famous among their racial cousins, with the Icelandic word for German to this day still translating literally as “peoples’ defender.”

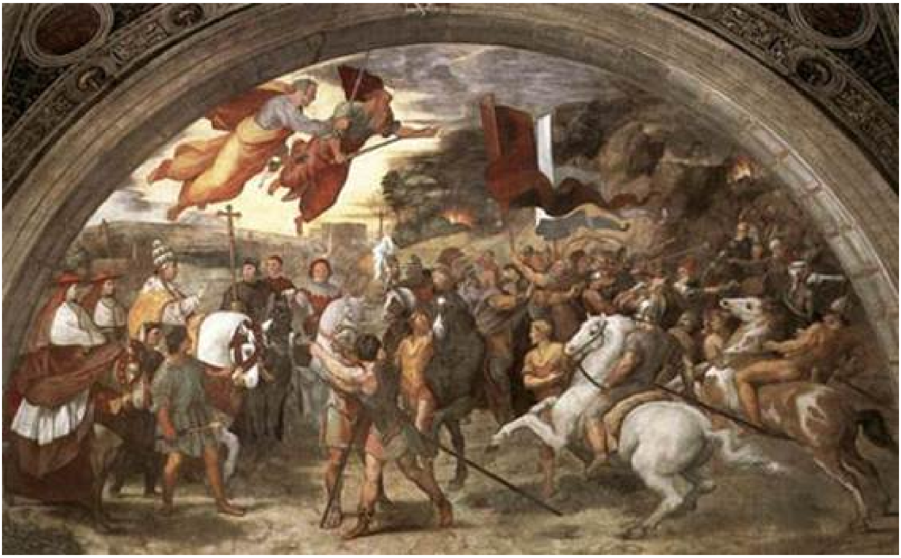
Suffering total defeat at the hands of the Germans, the surviving Huns then fled back into the Far East. They only stopped when they reached the Sea of Azov in southern Russia, possibly because they felt that was far enough from Europe to avoid retribution for their invasions.

The Hunnish Legacy

Although they had been driven out of Europe, the Huns left two significant legacies. Firstly, they gave their name to the territory which had served as their European base, the land today called Hungary; and secondly, some admixture of Mongoloid genes occurred among the Slavic tribes which had been under the Asiatic Hunnish occupation for nearly eighty years.

For their part, the Slavs expanded eastward into the regions of Russia which had previously been overrun by the Huns, once again mixing with scattered remnants of the partly Hunnish, partly Slavic peoples in those areas. This continual back-and-forth genetic movement further added to the racial mix of what became the southernmost reaches of Russia. Today this region is divided between Russia proper and the independent Islamic states which emerged after the breakup of the Soviet Union.

POPE LEO I MEETS ATTILA 452 AD



Pope Leo I meets Attila personally to try and halt the Mongol's attack on Rome. Having devastated Padua, Milan, Verona, and many other towns, Attila's army faltered after the famous meeting with the pope, mainly due to exhaustion and lack of provisions. Attila died the next year, in 453 AD.

Invasion Route Established into Europe

For the next thousand years, the territory between the Black and Caspian seas became an invasion route for waves of nonwhite hordes from Asia: the Avars, then the Turks (who were finally driven from the European mainland after the First World War in 1918), the Magyars (who occupied Hungary), and other Asiatics, some descendants of whom eventually became the Gypsies still found in Eastern Europe.

CHAPTER 18: The Triumph of the Slaves—the Fall of Rome

For centuries, scholars have debated how the Roman Empire, once so mighty and powerful, could have come to an end. Explanations have included a lack of morals, economic overexertion, or that the empire became too unwieldy to administer.

All of these explanations have ignored the real cause of the dissolution of Roman power, namely that the Romans themselves disappeared, submerged among a mass of foreigners. The driver for this submersion was the reality that Rome was a slave driven economy and society. At the time of Augustus, for example, fully one-third of the population of Rome and Italy were of slave extraction, some two million people out of a total population of six million. Simple demographics was the cause of the collapse of Rome.

The Dominate

From 193 AD, Roman emperors made no attempt to disguise the fact that they were absolute rulers. The Senate, previously the supreme power, served in an advisory capacity only, leading to this period of Roman history being called the “Dominate” for the obvious reason. By now, the empire had encompassed much of the known world, and the stress and strains of trying to run a polyglot nation began to take its toll. For the fifty year period between 235 and 285 AD, there were twenty-six different emperors. Only one of them died a natural death. During this period of anarchy, Rome was wracked by civil war, intrigue, and foreign invasion.

Diocletian Divides Empire

The emperor Diocletian took the throne in 285 AD. His reign, which lasted until 305 AD, was marked by a period of relative stability because he took the important decision to divide the empire into two parts. The division into Eastern and Western Empires took place in 286 AD.

The Western Empire retained Rome as its capital, while the Eastern Empire received the city of Nicomedia in Asia Minor (present-day Turkey) as its capital. There was an implicit racial implication to the division of the empire, although there is no evidence that this was Diocletian’s intention. Diocletian created a post of coemperor to rule the Western Empire, as he chose to rule the Eastern Empire. Each emperor was called an "Augustus" and each had an assistant, called a "Caesar." The Caesar was supposed to succeed the Augustus, thus attempting to solve the continual problem of secession.

DIOCLETIAN—STABILIZED EMPIRE

The emperor Diocletian was a military genius who became one of Rome's greatest later rulers. The increasing size of the empire and the inclusion of all sorts of nationalities was reflected in this man. Born of obscure origins in the Balkans, Diocletian became emperor in 285 AD. The fact that people born outside of Rome could settle in Rome and even become emperor meant that the original Romans themselves soon became outnumbered—by either non-Roman whites like Diocletian, or by non-Roman nonwhites from *the Middle East, which made up half the empire.*

Eastern Empire's Capital

Constantine's conversion to Christianity gave the Christians the upper hand in their battle against other religions in the empire. Constantine decided that what was needed was a new Christian capital, and in 326 AD he selected the site of the ancient city of Byzantium, situated on the Bosporus Strait connecting the Mediterranean with the Black Seas.

Constantine called the city New Rome, but it soon became known as Constantinople and is today known as Istanbul (so named after it was conquered by invading Muslim armies one thousand years later). The city took six years to build, and was consecrated in 330 AD.

Byzantium Slows Nonwhite Influx

The establishment of Constantinople and the Eastern Roman Empire, also called Byzantium, had an important by-product in that it contributed toward slowing down the masses of immigrants from the mixed-race Middle Eastern territories to Rome. Constantinople served as a destination for many who otherwise would have settled in Rome, although by this time, the latter city had already been almost completely overrun with foreigners.

The Goths Attack Rome

Even at the height of her power, Rome had never been able to penetrate north, and the appearance of the Goths saw even more ferocious raids take place from Germania and the eastern borders. The huge geographical distance between the various Gothic tribes led to a division into two main sections: the Visigoths, or West Goths, who settled the territory from the Danube River to the Dniester River, and the Ostrogoths, or East Goths, who settled in the region eastward from the Dniester River to the Volga River in present-day Russia.

The Visigoths pressed westward, encountering the Romans around 250 AD, when they invaded the Roman province of Dacia in southern central Europe near the Danube River. Roman reports mention the Goths to be the tallest of the German tribes, with their hair ranging from red to almost white.

After several initially inconclusive skirmishes, the Visigoths inflicted a massive defeat upon the Romans in 251 AD, wiping out an entire Roman army and killing the emperor, Decius. Soon thereafter, the Romans abandoned Dacia, a province which they had conquered and held for 150 years. From then on, the Danube River once again formed the border between the Germanics and Rome.

The Visigoths also captured and plundered Athens in 267 AD, a Roman outpost since the time of the Punic Wars. For another century, bands of Goths would wage incessant and uncoordinated warfare in the Balkans with the Romans.

Forty Thousand Visigothic Mercenaries Recruited

As was by now usual for the Roman Empire, their enemies could also be their mercenaries. For approximately 150 years after the defeat of the Roman army in Dacia, an uneasy coexistence was established between the Romans and Goths. Short on their own soldiers, the Romans started recruiting individual Goths as mercenaries.

In this way, the Roman records show that during the reign of Constantine, some forty thousand Goths were recruited into the Eastern Empire's army. Indeed, they formed the bulwark of the Eastern Roman Empire against the huge masses of mixed-race invaders pushing against the eastern reaches of the empire.

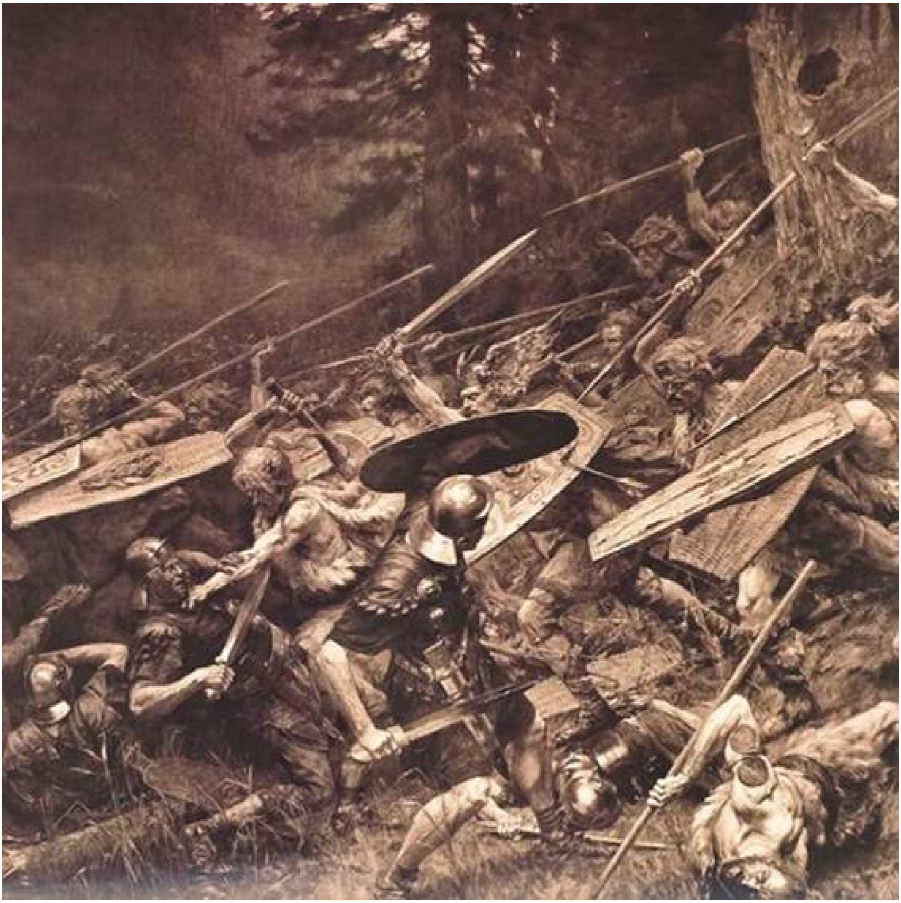
Visigoths Break Open Western Roman Empire at Battle of Adrianople

As detailed in the previous chapter, the unstable but fairly static border between the Goths and the Roman Empire along the Danube River was broken after the Hunnish invasion from the east.

The Visigoth leaders, fearing that they were going to be destroyed, petitioned Rome for help and permission to enter Roman territory to seek safety inside the official borders of the empire. This permission was granted in 376 AD and the Visigoths formally crossed the Danube River south into Roman territory.

The arrangement did not last long. The long-standing enmity between the Romans and their Germanic foes soon broke out into war. A Roman army sent to subdue the Visigoths was defeated at the battle of Adrianople in 378 AD. This Gothic victory was important psychologically, for it shattered the belief in Western Roman invincibility. Soon, other Gothic tribes began to penetrate the empire's frontiers at will.

GOTHS AMBUSH ROMAN COLUMN ALONG THE DANUBE CIRCA 400 AD



A Roman army unit is ambushed along the Danube River by a ferocious Gothic assault in this painting which accurately captures the dress, weapons, and racial types of the two armies. Many of the Roman soldiers were, in fact, German mercenaries.

Roman Armies Leave Britain

As the military pressures increased on the remnants of the Western Empire, the decision was made to withdraw all Roman armies from Britain in 407 AD. Only those who had already assimilated into the local population were left behind, and the Britons were formally advised that they now had to look to themselves for protection against the Germanics.

It took less than fifty years after the Roman withdrawal for the first Germanic tribes to invade that island. Among the invaders were the Angles and Saxons, from whom the modern term Anglo-Saxon originated. The Angles and the Saxons dominated the Britons by force, although some British tribes, notably the Bretons, fled across the channel to France, where their name still exists as a geographical term (Brittany) and people from this region are still called Bretons.

The invasions of Gaul and Britain demonstrate how the Western Roman Empire was broken up, piece by piece, under waves of invading Germanics. The Roman failure to occupy and suppress Germania came back to haunt the empire, weakened as it was by demographic replacement.

ROMAN EMPRESS WHO USED BLONDE WIGS

Valeria Messalina was the third wife of Emperor Claudius. She was famous for her sexual appetite and her blonde wig, which, according to many records, allowed her to work in a brothel in secret. The Roman use of blond wigs, derived from the inhabitants of Germania, became very widespread. Many emperors, including Caracalla, were famous for the habit.

Roman Upper Classes Buy Blond Wigs

By 400 AD—around four hundred years after the time of Julius Caesar—the inhabitants of Rome were a pale shadow of the race who originally created the empire. Immigrants from all over the Middle

East and North Africa had turned it into a melting pot made up of a mixture of Middle Easterners (Semites, mixed-race Egyptians, Syrians, and Africans) and original remnant Romans, with no national sense of identity or common purpose.

This integration process had reached such levels that the Roman writer Juvenal recorded the habit of many wealthy Romans buying blond wigs to cover their dark hair. The blond hair was purchased from Germany and transported south to Rome to be made into wigs.

The following extract from Juvenal's Satire 6, exc. L, Book 4 of his *De Rerum Natura,* vi. 120, tells how the emperor's wife, Messalina, put on a blonde wig to disguise herself to visit houses of ill repute:

"Do you care about a private citizen's house, about Eppia's doings? Turn your eyes to the gods' rivals. Hear what the emperor Claudius had to put up with. As soon as his wife thought that he was asleep, this imperial whore put on the hood she wore at night, determined to prefer a cheap pad to the royal bed, and left the house with one female slave only. No, hiding her black hair in a yellow wig she entered the brothel, warm with its old patchwork quilts and her empty cell, her very own."

The 1911 *Encyclopedia Britannica* adds the following: "The fashionable ladies of Rome were much addicted to false hair, and we learn from Ovid, Amores, i. 14. 45) and Martial (v. 68) that the golden hair imported from Germany was most favoured. Juvenal (vi. 120) shows us Messalina assuming a yellow wig for her visits to places of ill-fame, and the scholiast on the passage says that the yellow wig was characteristic of courtesans."

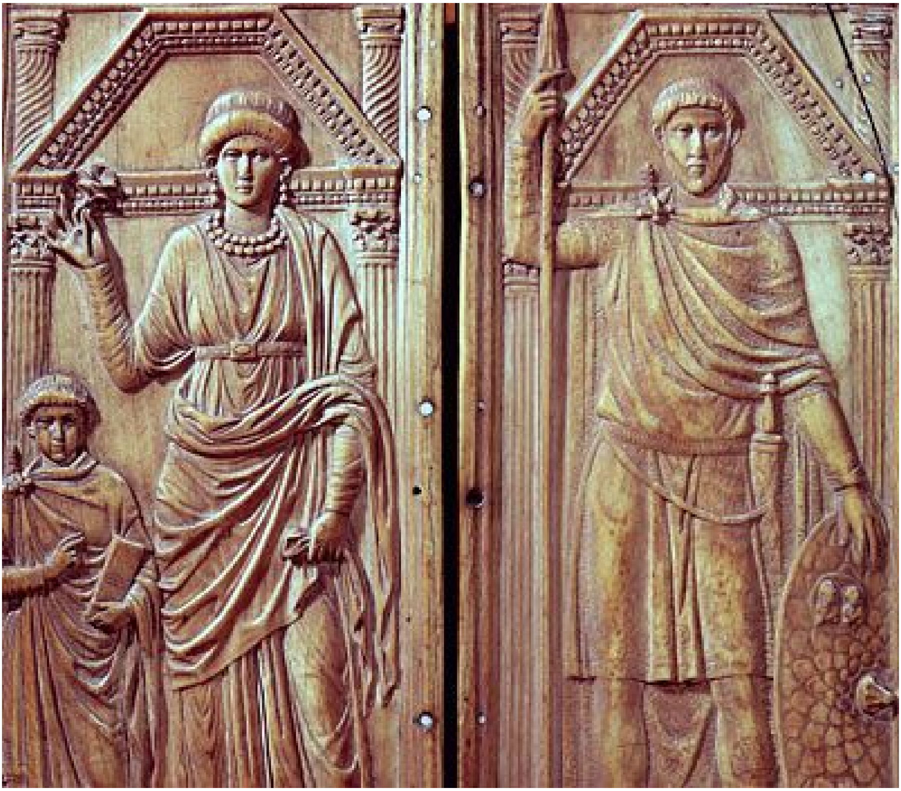
Ovid also mentions the custom of blond wigs and Pliny went so far as to give details of the different methods of dying hair blond. The inhabitants of Rome also used sapa, or lead acetate, as a skin lightener to make their complexions pale and paid a heavy price by unwittingly poisoning themselves at the same time. The emperor Caracalla, whose father was a Roman official stationed in Africa, and whose mother was a Persian, was famous for wearing a blond wig.

Roman Army Relies on Foreign Mercenaries

In what is fairly typical for such mixed societies, Rome at this time was divided into two economic classes: a very wealthy minority and a desperately poor majority. The wealthy minority, many of whom had made their money out of the flourishing slave trade, lived in relative luxury, while the masses lived in frightful urban squalor.

From this population the Roman army was unable to raise the enthusiasm or quality needed to man the frontiers, so the wealthy ruling classes of Rome paid huge amounts in bribes and mercenary fees to keep the armies up to strength. Rome precariously survived on money rather than physical strength. Germanics threatened Rome’s borders, and also made up the armies defending those same borders.

GERMAN STILICHO DEFENDS ROME



Stilicho, with his wife Serena and son Eucharius, last general of the Western Empire, was actually a German. In this way the “Roman” army was, by the year 400 AD, composed of anything but Romans.

This tactic was employed by both Western and Eastern Roman Empires, with the Western Empire using Germans, and the Eastern Empire using Goths. In what was ironic but nonetheless predictable, the last battles in Italy fought under Roman banners were between armies of Germanic-manned “Roman” armies and Germanic foes.

Eastern Roman Empire Sends Army to Defeat Frankish Puppet Emperor

The replacement of the original Roman armies with non-Roman mercenaries came to a head with the invasion of the Western Roman Empire by an army sent by the Eastern Roman emperor in 394 AD.

The background to this astonishing event lay in the fact that a Frankish Roman army general, Arbogast, had, with the support of the Roman Senate, ensured that Eugenius was elected Western emperor in 394 AD. Arbogast's power base lay in his Frankish army which he brought with him into Italy, and it was obvious that Eugenius was little more than Arbogast's puppet.

The Eastern Roman emperor, Theodosius, unhappy with the blatant manipulation of the Western emperor by Arbogast, sent an army (ironically comprised of Germanic Goths and Vandals and under the leadership of two non-Romans, the Gothic prince, Alaric, and the Vandal, Stilicho) to remove Arbogast from power.

So it was that the bizarre situation was reached that competing "Roman" armies clashed with each other for power in Rome—when in reality, none of the combatants were actually Roman. The two armies met at the Battle of the Frigidus in September 394 AD. After two days of fighting, Arbogast's army was defeated, and he committed suicide. Eugenius was killed the same day, effectively ending hostilities. (A by-product of this clash was that it ended the last pagan Roman senatorial opposition to the Christianization of the Roman Empire.)

After the battle, in accordance with Theodosius's instructions, Stilicho became effective master of the Western Empire. Alaric was in the interim chosen king of the Visigoths by his tribe.

Massacre of the German Women and Children—the Revenge of 408 AD

The inhabitants of Rome resented both Visigoths and Vandals alike, and in 408 AD, Stilicho was assassinated. This was immediately followed by a massacre of thousands of the wives and children of the German soldiers in Italy (it was easy to pick out the Germans, as their light coloring and hair stood in marked contrast to the vast majority of the inhabitants of most of Italy). This foolish act drove the Germanic tribes into reprisals.

For two years, Alaric led an embittered army consisting of his men, Stilicho's soldiers, and remnants of the defeated Frankish army, up and down the Italian peninsula, exacting a terrible revenge for the massacre of the Germanic women and children. During this time the marauding Germans took a heavy toll of the local population. Countless numbers were killed, considerably thinning out the largely mixed-race population.

In addition, Alaric demanded a huge ransom from the inhabitants of Rome and forced their slave traders to release some forty thousand German slaves from captivity.

GOTHS CONQUER ROME IN 410 AD BY SEVERING WATER SUPPLY

The immense aqueducts known as the Aqua Claudia, built in 38 AD, carried water for nearly 370 years to the city of Rome across the Campagna plains outside the Roman capital. In 410 AD, attacking Goths realized that this was Rome's Achilles' Heel, and set about destroying several arches in the great waterway, thereby cutting off the city's water supply. The ruins of the aqueducts still stand to this day.

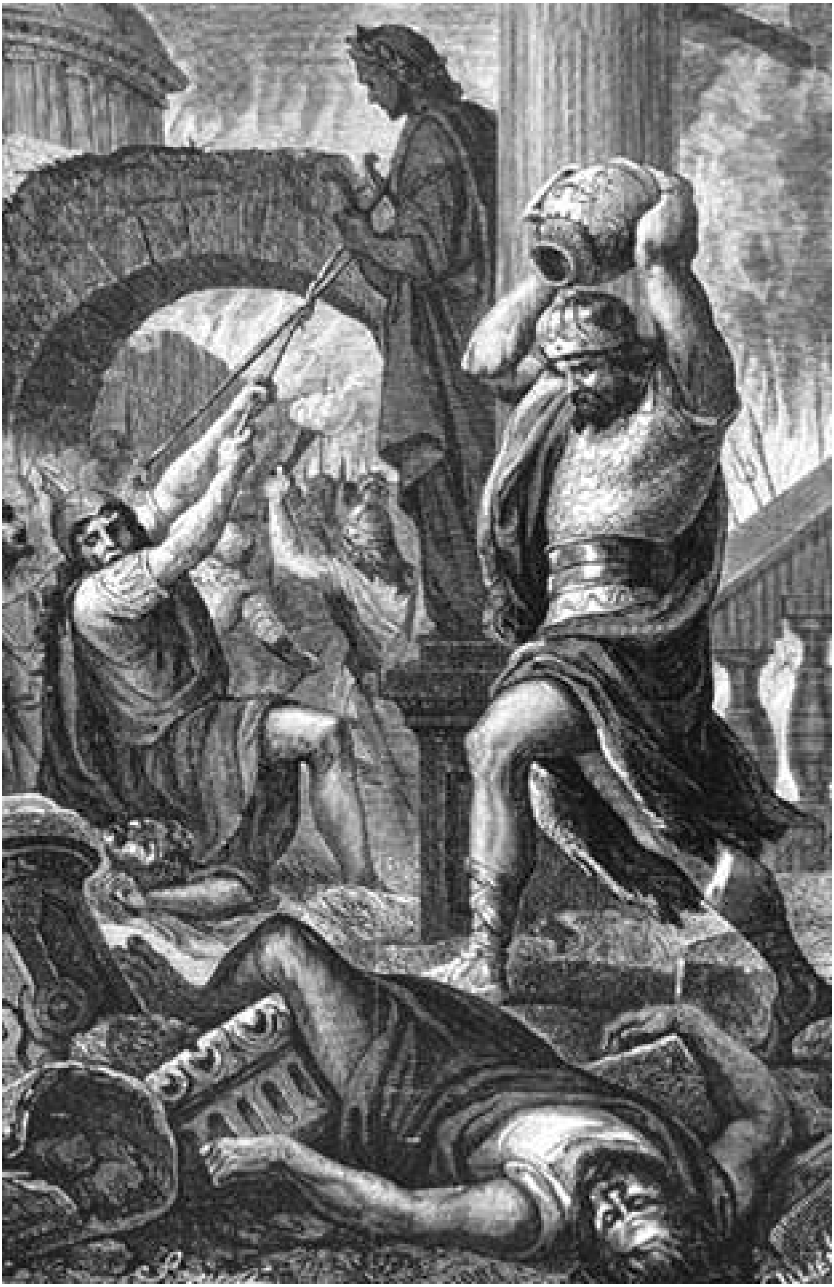
Goths Sack Rome—Official End of Western Empire 410 AD

Alaric's avenging army finally sacked the city of Rome on August 24, 410 AD. That date is marked as the official end of the Roman Empire in the West, although, of course, the last true Romans had long since vanished.

After this last great sacking of Rome, a semblance of an imperial line of rulers was reinstituted in the city. They were nothing more than a series of puppets for the invading Germanics. Finally in 475 AD, all pretenses were dropped. In that year, the first formal Germanic emperor was elected, when a German-born general, Orestes, forced the Roman senate to elect his son. The next year, another German general, Odovacar, killed Orestes and, seeing no reason to continue the appearance of an imperial secession, simply declared himself head of state.

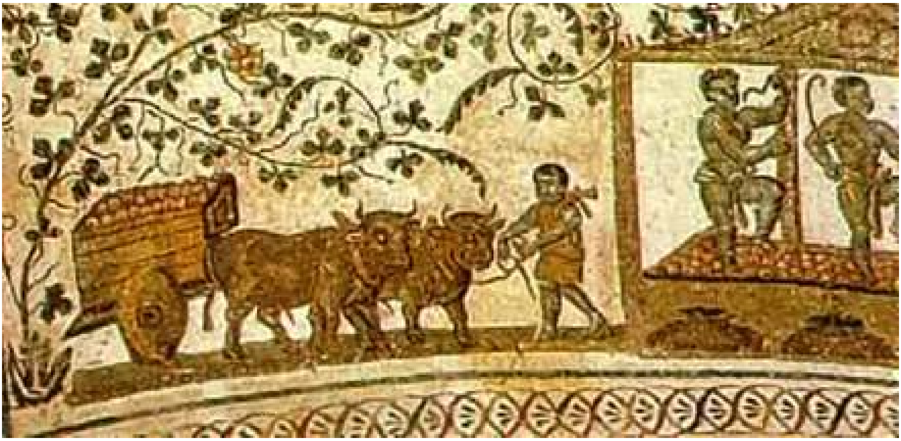
This first Germanic emperor of Rome who was not elected by the senate is regarded by some historians as another formal end date of the Roman Empire in the West. As shown above, this is incorrect, as by that time the Western Empire had long before ceased to exist.

GOTHS SACK ROME 410 AD



The sacking of Rome by Alaric's Goths, 410 AD. Historians date the fall of Rome from 410, but the Romans had long since vanished, submerged among the peoples and races they had conquered.

BLACK SLAVES—ROME 400 AD



Black slaves in Rome picking grapes. A mosaic in the Church of Santa Costanza, Rome, fourth century AD.

The Vandals Sack Rome from the Sea—455 AD

One of the invading Germanic tribes, called the Vandals, marched right through Gaul into Spain in 409 AD. They were followed by Visigoths about ten years later, sparking off disputes between these two tribes over territory. The Vandals then sailed across the Straits of Gibraltar and conquered the Western Roman Empire's provinces in North Africa.

Under their able leader, Gaiseric, the Vandals established themselves as a major power. In June 455 AD, a naval-borne Vandal army invaded Italy and sacked Rome. The ease with which this was accomplished serves as an excellent indicator of how the power of Rome had declined along with its original population. The city, populated by large numbers of mixed-race and Middle Eastern types thrown in among the remnants of the original Roman people, was either unwilling or simply unable to put up a defense in the tradition of the past glories of Rome. The city of Caesar became a stamping ground for anyone who wanted to loot whatever remained.

Gaiseric and the Vandals managed to repulse a few attempts by the Eastern Roman Empire to exact revenge for the raid on Rome, and ensured that their kingdom lasted until 534 AD. In that year, a surprise attack by an Eastern Empire army defeated the Vandals, and thereafter they collapsed into obscurity in North Africa. Having settled in what is today Algeria, the Vandals were quick to mirror Rome's decline. Within two hundred years, the Vandals were absorbed into the already mixed-race inhabitants of North Africa, once again contributing to the maelstrom of genes which today makes up the

North African Mediterranean basin.

The Burgundians and the Franks Enter France

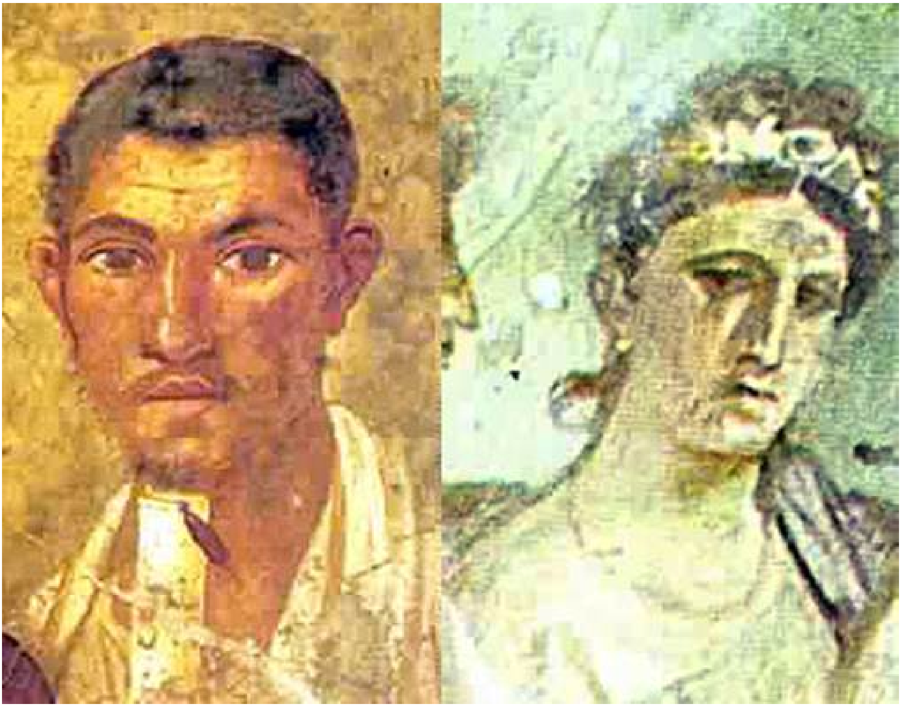
Yet another Germanic tribe, the Burgundians, moved across the Rhine River into France and settled in the Rhone River valley. They were followed by the Franks, who fanned out across northern Gaul, assimilating the local population as they went.

The Germanic Lombards Invade Italy

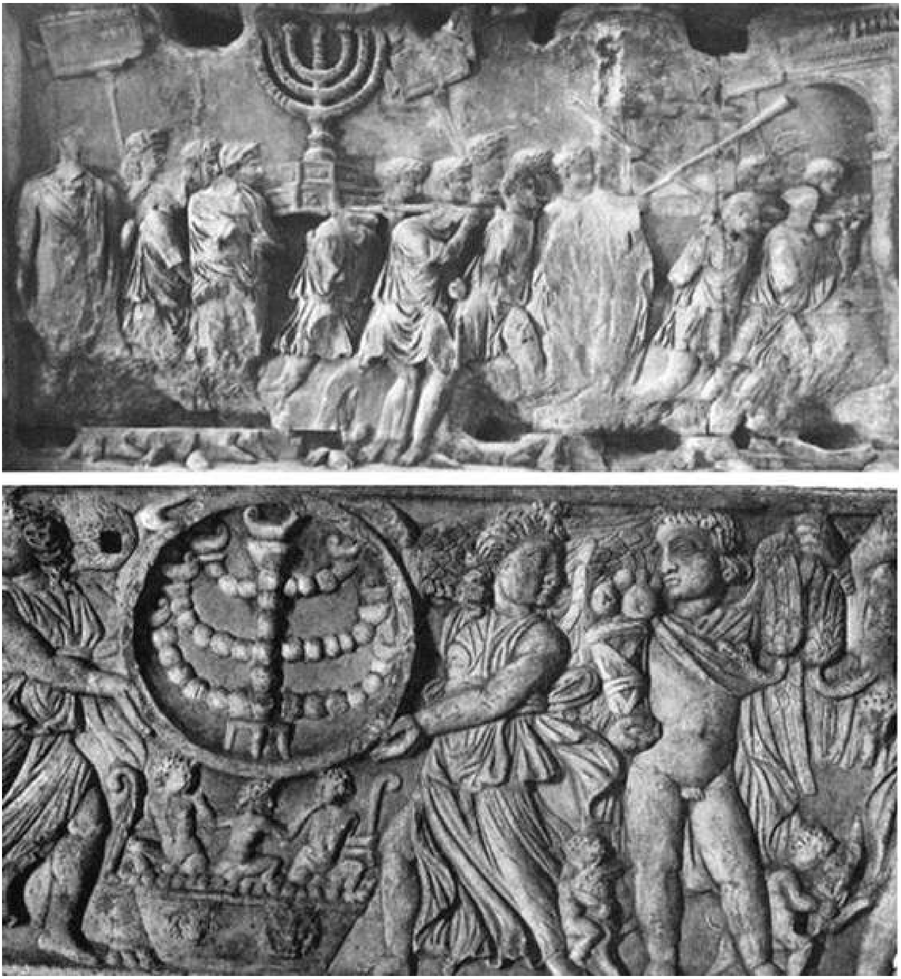
In 568 AD, the third most significant population shift in Italian history occurred. Another Germanic tribe, the Lombards, poured over the Alps into Italy, and established a new kingdom, which largely replenished the Nordic racial stock in northern and central Italy. It was the Lombards who provided the impetus for the later north Italian-based Renaissance.

Thus, in less than a century after the Germanic tribes had first crossed the Roman Empire's borders in 406 AD, the mixed-race remnants of the Western Roman Empire in northern Italy had largely been swept south by new Germanic blood. One thousand years of Roman multiculturalism was at an end.

THE REAL CAUSE OF THE FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE—THE RACIAL CHANGE IN THE POPULATION MAKEUP



The absorption of nonwhites into the Roman population and the effects of racial mixing are evident in the face of this baker (left) from Pompeii, Italy. The fashion at the time was to have one's portrait painted on the walls of one's house. The eruption of the volcano Vesuvius preserved a great number of the houses in Pompeii, including both these portraits which date from circa 50 AD. Compare the clearly mixed-race features of this baker to one of his neighbors, a Nordic woman (right) whose house portrait was similarly saved. Eventually, the "baker" types were to dominate Roman society. This change in racial makeup of Roman society was the reason why the Roman Empire vanished—the original Romans were submerged.



These images show how the racial makeup of Rome changed in less than four hundred years. Top right: From defeated foe to citizen. Roman soldiers carry Jewish treasures seized during the Roman-Jewish War of 68–73 AD. The scene is from the Arch of Titus, erected by the emperor of the same name to commemorate his victory over the Jews. Right: A sarcophagus from 300 AD in the city of Rome showing the very same symbol—the Jewish menorah—combined with classical Roman scenes. This illustrates well the extent of how assimilated the various peoples of the world became in that city. Within 350 years the Jews had moved from a defeated and hated enemy of Rome, into being wealthy citizens.

Romans Minority of Rome's Population

The reality behind the collapse of the Roman Empire is apparent from the historical sequence of events. The people who created the empire, the original Romans, vanished. They were absorbed into the peoples they conquered, who they freely allowed to enter Rome.

Once the founding Roman population had been diluted through the mass importation of slaves and uncontrolled immigration, the nature of Roman society changed to reflect the changed population. In the West, the Romans were absorbed by the racially similar and numerically superior Celts, Gauls, and Germans. In the East the Romans were absorbed by the racially dissimilar nonwhite mixed-race Middle Easterners and North Africans, who also immigrated in massive numbers to Rome.

The noted British historian, Edward Gibbon, in his monumental work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire,* estimated the number of people within the borders of the empire during the time of the emperor Claudius (43 AD) as some 120 million people. Of this amount, Gibbon says, only some 6,945,000 were proper Roman citizens. The effect of the opening of citizenship to all in the empire and the toleration of unrestricted immigration into the city of Rome meant that the less than seven million original Romans were quickly overrun by the 113 million non-Romans, both white and nonwhite alike. The Roman Empire collapsed because the Romans disappeared. The final explanation is as simple as that.

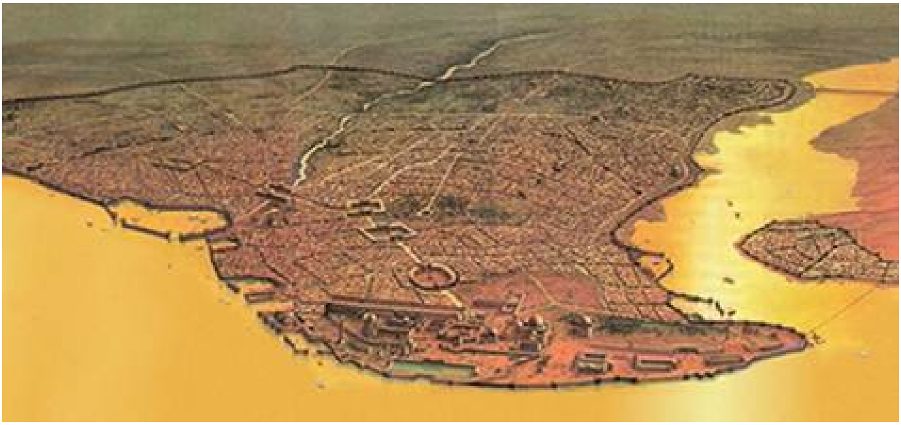
CHAPTER 19: Eastern Bulwark—Byzantine

The site of an ancient city known as Byzantium, situated at the mouth of the Black Sea, was chosen by the Emperor Constantine to be a new Christian capital city.

Once rebuilt, Byzantium became known as Constantinople, although it was often referred to by its original name. This caused the Eastern Roman Empire to become known as the Byzantine Empire.

The Eastern Roman emperor's official seat of power was located in Constantinople, making it the premier city in the entire Middle East. The wide diversity of the population it ruled was reflected in the long list of official languages of the Byzantine Empire: Greek, Coptic, Syriac, and Armenian, with only a very few Christian priests still speaking Latin.

EASTERN EMPIRE'S CAPITAL CONSTANTINOPLE 900 AD



The great city of Constantinople, capital of the Eastern Roman Empire, as it would have looked circa 900. The Hagia Sophia church, a superb example of Roman engineering, is visible in the top right of the picture. The walls of Constantinople withstood attempted invasions for centuries, only being breached twice—once by errant Crusaders and once by the nonwhite Ottoman Turks. When the Turks occupied the city in 1453, the Hagia Sophia was turned into a mosque.

The Domino Effect of the Fall of Rome

The sacking of Rome by the Visigoths and Vandals, and then the de facto collapse of Roman power in the West, was felt throughout the Eastern Roman Empire like an earthquake. The impossible had happened—the power which had held sway in the known world had vanished.

Due to the immense symbolism of Rome, Eastern Roman emperors made two attempts to recapture the West, once ironically using Romanized Germans. This use of Germanic tribes such as the Goths and eventually even Vikings (in the Varangian Guard in Constantinople) was the major reason why the Eastern Empire lasted as long as it did.

Surrounded by huge walls, defenses erected by the Romans at the height of their power, and defended by armies of Germanic mercenaries, Constantinople was a besieged city for the greater part of its life. Its territories were eventually restricted to the direct area of the city.

FOUNDER OF CONSTANTINOPLE

Constantine, who brought Christianity to the Roman Empire, and therefore also to Europe. The city he founded, Constantinople, lasted until 1453, when it was overrun by the nonwhite Muslims.

Theodoric the Ostrogoth Seizes the Western Empire in 488

The Eastern Empire's first attempt to reestablish the Western Empire came with the invasion of Italy by the Romanized king of another Gothic tribe, Theodoric of the Ostrogoths, soon after the sacking of Rome. Having been educated in Constantinople, Theodoric saw it as his mission to restore the Western Empire.

After much heavy fighting between the Ostrogoths and their racial cousins who had moved into Rome with Odovacar, the two sides reached a stalemate and negotiations were started. However, Odovacar was assassinated and Theodoric seized his chance. Taking advantage of the confusion which followed the assassination, he established the Ostrogothic kingdom in Italy, making the northern Italian city of Ravenna the capital of his revived Western Empire rather than Rome.

Theodoric did his best to restore the outer trappings of classical Rome, even adopting Latin as the language of his court. However, when he died in 526, the temporary order imposed upon Rome and southern Italy once again collapsed, descending into anarchy until the second attempt to restore the Western Empire, made by the famous Eastern Roman Emperor, Justinian, in 554.

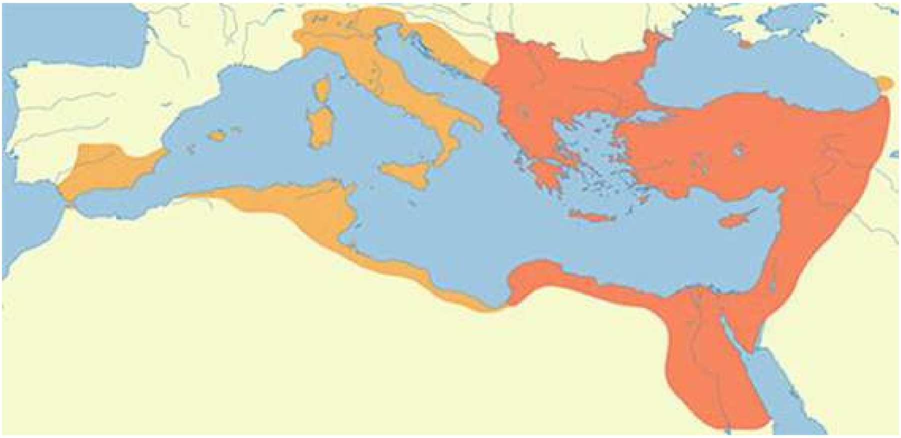
Justinian—Last Emperor to Unite the Empire

Justinian, who reigned from 527 to 565, had been able to seize a large slice of North Africa from the remnants of the Vandals in 533, and thus had a good base for an invasion of Italy. After many years he was able to capture not only Italy, but also Spain and the Aegean coast, for a while almost reestablishing the Roman Empire’s borders before it had moved north of the Alps. It is of significance that the army which Justinian sent to conquer these lands was under the leadership of a General Belisarius, who was a Romanized Slav (and thus an original Indo-European).

In 528 Justinian appointed a commission of scholars to gather, classify, and summarize the huge mass of laws created by centuries of Roman government. The result was a massive large work known as the Justinian Code and formally titled the *Corpus Juris Civilis.*

Justinian also ordered the building of a church called the Hagia Sophia. It was completed in 537 and became the spiritual capital of orthodox Christendom (until the city was attacked and conquered by nonwhite Muslims in 1453, when it was converted into a mosque). With Justinian’s death in 565, his successors were confronted with a renewed military threat from the ever adventurous Persians (who by this stage showed only very slight traces of their original Indo-European ancestry). The Persians were only defeated in 628.

BELISARIUS RECONQUERS WESTERN EMPIRE



Belisarius, the Romanized Slav who served the Eastern Roman Empire, was sent by the emperor, Justinian, to reconquer the lands of the Western Empire from the Germanics, the Slavic general managed to capture almost all of the former Western Empire territories, including much of Italy, Spain, and the North African coast. Belisarius's most astounding feats were the forty successive victories he obtained against the Persians and the Vandals over a thirty year period. In all but a few of these battles, Belisarius's army was hopelessly outnumbered, and he won the day by ingenuity rather than weight of numbers. The map above shows, to the right, the extent of the Eastern Empire, and to the left, the extent of Belisarius's conquests.

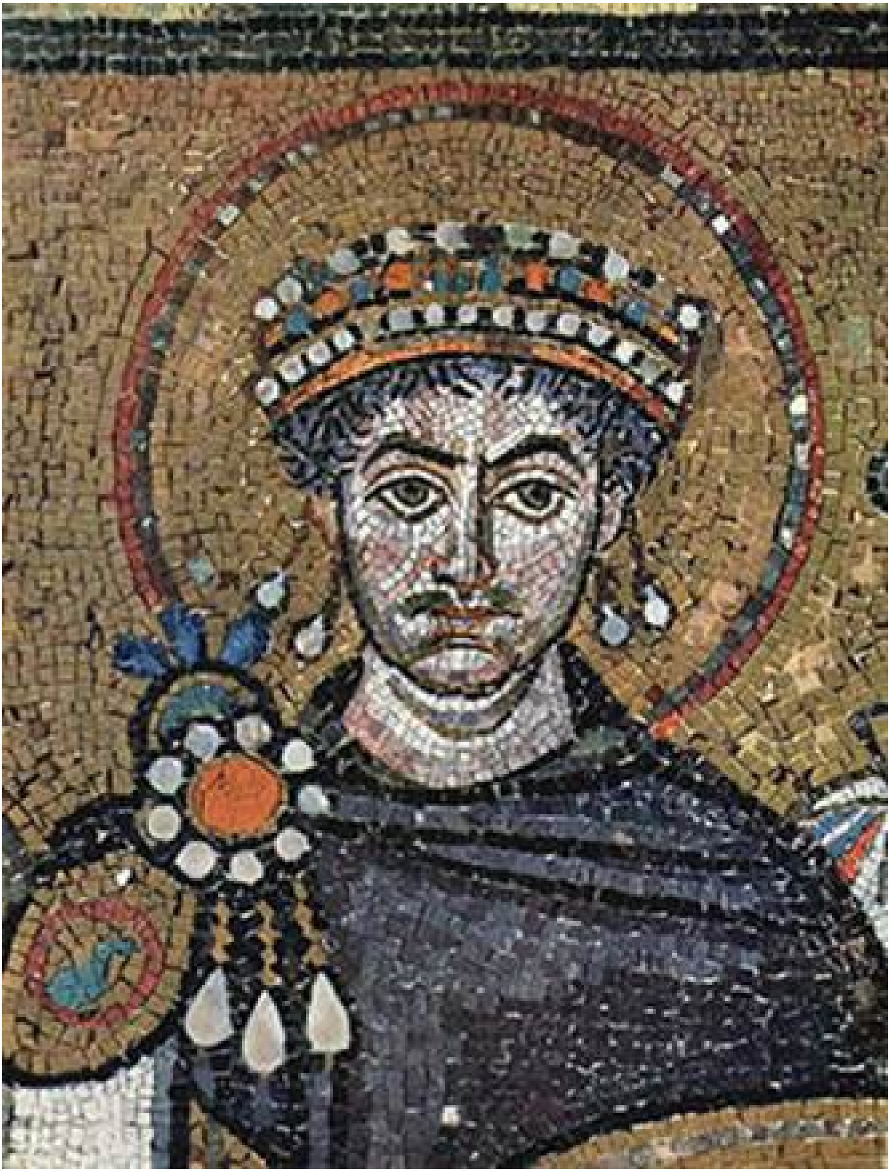
The Lombards Invade Italy and Drive Byzantines South

In the west, Germanic tribes were once again on the offensive, and soon after Justinian's death, they recaptured most of the territory which had been retaken under the Eastern Roman emperor.

What must have seemed like an endless wave of warlike Germans came down from the north, sweeping masses of mixed-race Romans into the south of the country, helping to create the distinctive "olive" skin tones which are visible to this day in southern Italy. In 568, the most significant event in post Roman Italian history occurred: a new Germanic tribe, the Lombards, invaded the peninsula in such numbers that only Sicily and parts of southern Italy were left under Eastern Roman rule.

This large infusion of Nordic blood into the Italian population, strengthened by the absorption of the original European remnants in northern Italy, created the present-day racial makeup of Italy—the further north, the "lighter" the population, while the further south, the "darker."

ROMAN LAW CODIFIED



Emperor Justinian’s codification of Roman laws laid the basis for many of the world’s legal systems. This mosaic is a detail from the Church of San Vitale, which Justinian had built at Ravenna in Italy after his armies had reconquered Italy. By the time of the fall of Constantinople in 1453, the territory which the Byzantine Empire controlled had been reduced to that of the city and its immediate surrounding area. Below, a coin with Justinian’s likeness.

Constantinople Threatened

Around this time the first waves of nonwhite Islamic armies came sweeping out of the Saudi Arabian peninsula, fired up by a new powerful religion which urged its supporters to convert the “kafirs”—or non-Muslim infidels—by force, if necessary, through the “Jihad” or Holy War. The Eastern Empire soon began losing its easternmost territories before the Islamic armies, most being impossible to defend with the limited resources available to Constantinople. This nonwhite racial invasion would be the spark for the Second Great Race War—the Crusades.

Eastern Empire Compressed by Slavic Invasions

Slavic tribes also invaded the Balkans at this time, stripping away these western territories from the Eastern Roman Empire, even threatening Constantinople.

Byzantium barely survived the main Slavic invasions, when a new Asiatic invasion by a tribe called the Avars took place during the sixth century. (The Avar invasion is considered in greater depth in a following chapter.) This invasion was also beaten off, with uncoordinated help being given by the Slavic tribes.

However, it quickly became impossible to hold on to all of the former Roman provinces—apart from the loss of northern Italy to the Lombards, the Byzantines were also forced to concede much of the Balkans to the nonwhite armies of Islam.

The now thoroughly mixed-race Persians then launched an attack of the easternmost reaches of the Byzantine Empire—only with a superhuman effort were the Persians beaten in 628, leading to the recapture of Syria, Palestine, and Egypt.

Despite this victory, the writing was on the wall for the Eastern Empire. With a rapidly growing mixed-race population, a small white minority, and threatened from the west by the Slavs, and from the east by the Turks and Persians, there seemed to be no way out.

Between 634 and 642, the Islamic armies invaded Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Egypt, besieging the city of Constantinople three times: in 670, 717, and 718. The Islamic armies then launched new invasions nearly every year.

New White Armies—Paid with Land

In a desperate attempt to shore up its collapsing frontiers, the Byzantines launched a massive recruiting drive among the Germanic tribes, offering not pay this time, but land in areas marked for reconquest from the Muslims, at the same time reorganizing the structure of their army dramatically.

A new wave of European soldiers then took up the offer. Although heavily outnumbered, they launched a major campaign against the Muslims during the ninth century. This had the effect of holding off the Islamic threat until the beginning of the twelfth century.

Bulgaria was reconquered in a campaign lasting much of the decade following 970, a victory which was followed up by the reclaiming of parts of northern Mesopotamia and northern Syria. However, by the end of the eleventh century, the continual wars had once again sapped the Byzantine army’s strength. As the chances of being rewarded with land decreased, so did the number of Germanic volunteers.

A new Muslim power, the Seljuk Turks, launched a series of murderous raids into Byzantine territory in the early part of the new millennium, and then defeated a Byzantine army at the Battle of Manzikert in 1071, occupying most of Turkey (Asia Minor) as a result.

At the same time as the Battle of Manzikert, the Byzantines lost their last foothold in Italy and further split from the Christian West by a division in Christianity in 1054—a split which led to the creation of the Eastern Orthodox Church.

The Eastern Empire Appeals for European Help

On all fronts the Byzantines were once again in retreat. As the Muslim armies prepared for a final assault on the city of Constantinople, the Eastern emperor, Alexius I, appealed to the pope in Rome for aid against the Turks. This appeal was acceded to: the result was the start of one of the longest running race wars in history, between the whites in Western Europe and the mixed-race Arabic/ black armies of Islam.

The battle raged around Constantinople—that city's Christian status in the face of Islam led generations of white Christians in Europe to physically prop up the city, artificially prolonging its life span by centuries.

This race war was fought under the guise of a religious battle known as the Crusades, and it lasted 275 years, from 1095 to 1270. The full extent and nature of this war is recounted in a later chapter in this book; suffice to say here that numerous Christian kings and knights answered the call to try and save Christendom in Asia Minor.

Crusader Race War Ultimately Fails

Although Byzantium initially benefited from the Crusades, recovering some land in Asia Minor, the Crusader race war ended ultimately in defeat for the whites. By 1354, the Turks had occupied much of the Balkans, cutting off Constantinople from the West.

The city finally fell to the Muslim armies in 1453—the date which formally marks the end of the Eastern Roman Empire. By the time of its fall, it was Roman in name only. The original Romans who had established the city had also long since disappeared, and it was only through repeated white armies rushing to the city's aid because of its Christian status that it was not overrun centuries before its final collapse.

The Byzantine Legacy—Cyrillic Alphabet

The early Byzantines left a rich cultural legacy, many aspects of which were absorbed into European culture. They developed the Cyrillic script, still used by many Eastern European countries, and played a crucial role in preserving many ancient Greek works which later were used in the West to aid the return to classical values known as the Renaissance. The tradition of Eastern Orthodox Christianity came to dominate much of Eastern Europe, leading to the establishment of the two largest such church groups: the Greek Orthodox and the Russian Orthodox.

CHAPTER 20: The Second Great Race War—the Crusades 1095–1270

The rise of Islam from a tiny cult in Saudi Arabia to the status of a major world power is a factor which has dominated much of white history from around 800 right through to the present-day. Indeed, many of the growing conflicts in the contemporary world can be ascribed to this militant and fierce religion.

Although Islam, like Christianity, originated in the Semitic world, and is thus formally outside the scope of this book, it is vital to understand this religion as it has played, and continues to play, an important role in affecting European history.

Started by an Arab, Mohammed (570–632), in the Arabian peninsula (today's Saudi Arabia) around the year 590, Islam is essentially a reworking of Judaism and Christianity (the Muslim god, Allah, is identified in the Muslim holy book, the Koran, as the same one in Judaism and Christianity), and all three religions share many of the same Old Testament characters such as Jacob, etc. The Koran even features Jesus Christ, only differing with Christianity by saying that Christ was not the son of God but just another prophet like the others mentioned in the Old Testament. It is presumed, but unproven, that Mohammed gained his knowledge of Judaism and Christianity from his Jewish wife.

Mohammed was by all accounts a dynamic person. Claiming to be God's final and true prophet, he persuaded large masses of people that he was right. Pulling together the scattered strands of Judaism and Christianity and then mixing them with some original Arabic customs, he created a powerful religious message which encouraged its supporters to convert others on pain of death.

The tomb of a Crusader knight in Dorchester Abbey, England. The knight has been captured at the moment of death, his face in a grimace as he tries to pull his sword from its scabbard. The name of the knight is unknown, but that he was a Crusader is unquestioned—all Crusader tombs of this nature had the convention of crossed legs as their identifying marker.

Islam Expands by Force

Swiftly the followers of his religion subdued the Arabian Peninsula. They then turned their attention to the neighboring territories (then still formally part of the Eastern Roman Empire) and in quick succession occupied Syria, Iraq, Persia, and a large slice of Turkey. In 640, Egypt, then still part of the Eastern Roman Empire, was overrun by the Islamic armies. Expanding westward along the North African coast, the Muslims crossed the Strait of Gibraltar and entered Spain, penetrating into southern France, where they were eventually turned back in 732 at the Battle of Tours.

Assault on Byzantine

The Eastern Roman Empire viewed the rise of Islam with alarm. Faced with the reality that a blatant racial war was brewing between the nonwhite Muslims and white Europe, the Eastern Romans immediately tried to prevent the spread of the new religion. The Eastern Roman army, which by then was not even a pale shadow of the armies of Imperial Rome, found itself confronted with fanatical

Muslim warriors engaged in a Jihad, or Holy War.

By 1071, the Byzantine armies were defeated at the Battle of Manzikert, and all of Turkey fell to Islam and the Seljuk Turks. Only Constantinople, at the very western part of that country, was left as a small Christian citadel defying the Islamic giant in the East. Simultaneously the Bulgars, Asiatic invaders from the East, had been pressing Constantinople from the Balkans. Although they were temporarily turned back by the emperor Basil II (known as "the Bulgar-slayer"—he once blinded 1500 captured Bulgars and sent them marching back to the enemy camp with only a few one eyed guides), they kept up a continual pressure.

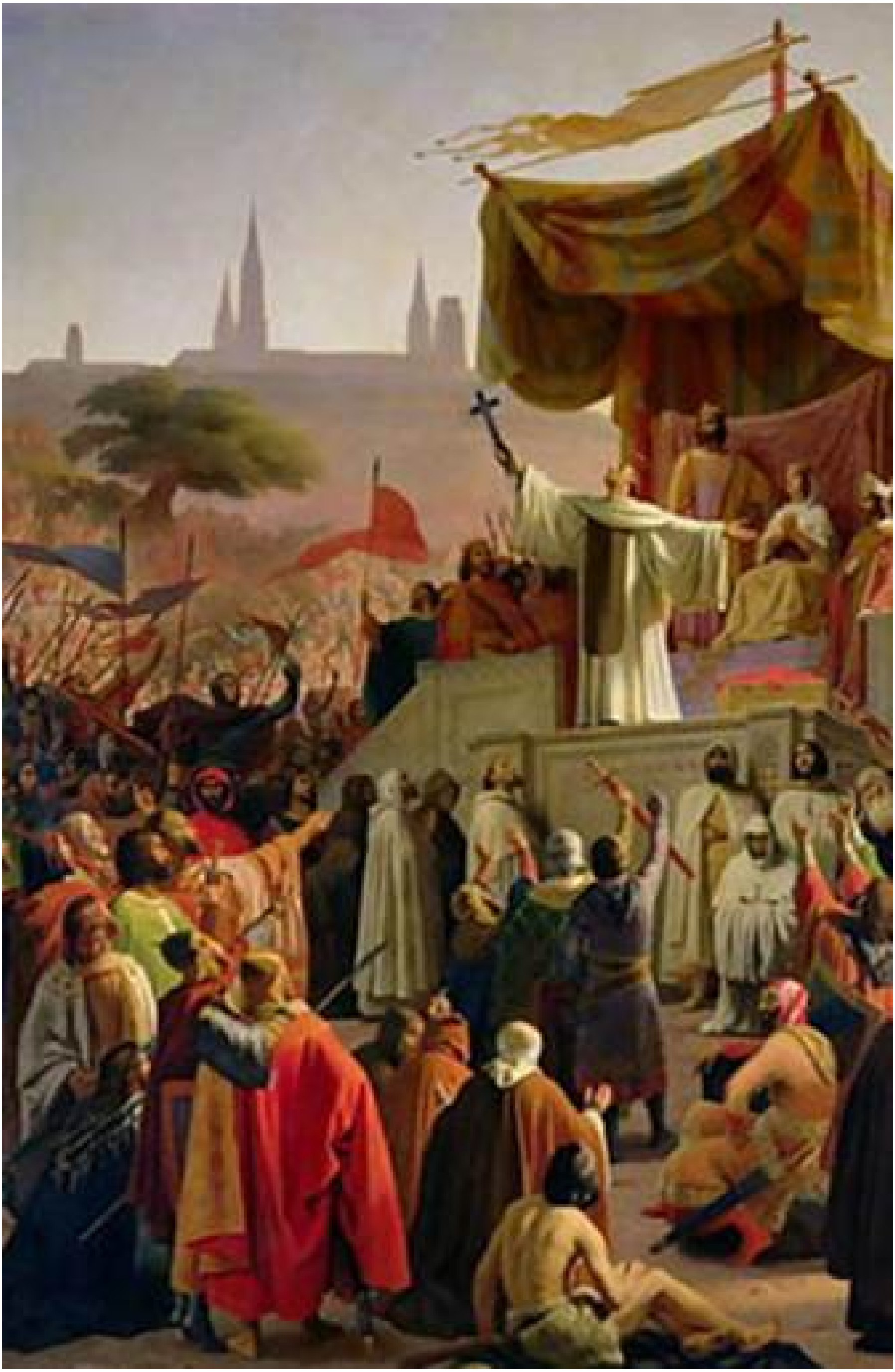
By the end of the first millennium, successive military defeats at the hands of the invading Muslims had reduced the Eastern Roman Empire, or Byzantium, to the territory immediately around its capital, Constantinople.

Eastern Roman Empire Falls to Muslims 1453

By 1250, a new wave of Islamic soldiers, the Ottoman Turks, had emerged from Asia Minor. They crashed through the Christian defenses and finally, in 1453, Constantinople fell to Islam.

The Eastern Roman Empire formally came to an end. Like Rome, however, the last true Romans had vanished many hundreds of years earlier. The Islamic armies were only held off as long as they were by the use of large numbers of European mercenaries and volunteers. Constantinople was largely inhabited by people who were for the greatest part racially mixed—just like their Islamic adversaries.

CRUSADES FOUGHT UNDER GUISE OF CROSS



Although fought under the guise of Christianity, the Crusades were an overt race war. White armies set off from all over Europe to drive the nonwhites out of the Middle East. Here St. Bernard preaches the Second Crusade—there were varying degrees of response, but possibly one of the most interesting by-products of the Crusades was a flare-up in anti-Jewish *sentiment in Europe, as Jews were associated with the Muslims in Palestine. Indeed, when Jerusalem was finally conquered by the white Crusaders, they proceeded to massacre all the Muslims and Jews.*

Two Hundred Year Race War

In the period leading up to the fall of Constantinople, the second major race war between the white race and the Middle Eastern mixed-races broke out. This took the form of a series of European armies launching counterattacks on the territories which Islam had seized.

These counterattacks took place for nearly two hundred years from 1095 to the middle of the thirteenth century. Originally the term crusade was applied only to the white Christian efforts to capture the city of Jerusalem in Palestine from the Muslims, but very soon it came to refer to any military effort by the whites against the darker races of the Middle East. The Crusaders created a series of short-lived feudal states in the Middle East, the first European colonies outside the European mainland. In Europe, some Crusaders seized the opportunity to attack Jews on that continent, associating them with the Muslims in Palestine and linking the Jewish population to Islamic Moorish-occupied Spain.

Catholic Church Provided Political Unity

The unusual European political unity required for the Crusades was provided by the power of the Catholic Church, which had grown considerably in the intervening years. It was the reverence for the pope as the leader of Christianity which played the decisive role in persuading the Christian kings of Western Europe to take up arms against the Islamic invaders.

So it was that a religious motivation was the prime driver of the initial Crusades. There was, however, a very clear racial undercurrent which ran through the two centuries of warfare.

It is important to appreciate that the hostilities between the white Christians and the mixed-race Muslims was initiated by the nonwhites. It was the Muslim world which had attacked Europe first, and the Crusades were merely a counterreaction to this unprovoked aggression—a fact all too often overlooked.

By the year 700, Islamic armies had occupied North Africa and destroyed what remained of the Gothic Vandal state. Within three hundred years of that date, Islamic armies had overrun Spain and the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. In addition, Islamic armies established bases in Italy and were closing in on Constantinople. The Muslim hordes were attacking from three fronts: east, west, and south. It was against this background that the Crusades were initiated.

Appeal from Pope Urban II

The idea of the Crusades started with a speech given by Pope Urban II at Clermont in France in November 1095. The pope spoke about the advance of Islam and called for a great Christian expedition to free Jerusalem from the Muslim invaders. That city had most recently been seized by a new Muslim tribe from Asia Minor, called the Seljuk Turks. These same Turks were also then threatening Constantinople, causing the Byzantine emperor, Alexius I, to call on Western Christendom for help. In addition, Pope Urban said, these same Muslims were attacking Christian pilgrims traveling to Palestine.

Pope Urban's call for a holy quest to ward off the Islamic invasion proved to be highly popular, and almost immediately a number of white Christian kings began preparations for their participation in the crusade. Little did they know the wars would be part of a racial conflict which would last nearly three hundred years, two hundred of which would see a white Christian outpost being maintained in Palestine.

The First Crusade 1095–1099

The First Crusade had as its aim the capture of the city of Jerusalem. In this endeavour it was successful. Most of the Crusaders who took part in this first counterattack were middle class French speakers, which was why whites in Palestine were referred to as Franks.

The First Crusade suffered from serious internal organizational problems. It had no leader and no formal arrangement with Constantinople, a city which was supposed to be the starting point.

Finally, various groups of Crusaders used different routes to get to Constantinople, the supposed starting point. Some went by sea, others by land. As the latter groups marched east, they attracted supporters along the way. Those Crusaders who marched overland from France also took the opportunity to wage a pogrom at groups of Jews who had settled along the Rhine River. They associated these Jews in France and Germania with the Semites against whom they were marching in the Middle East.

By the time the Crusaders got to Constantinople, they must have wondered what they had got themselves into. The Byzantines were similar to the Muslims in racial appearance; they spoke Greek instead of Latin, had distinctly Middle Eastern art and architectural forms, and to make matters worse, they did not recognize the leadership of the pope.

Eventually, the disparate groups of Crusaders congregated in Constantinople. When it appeared that most had arrived, they marched by foot across present-day Turkey in the direction of Jerusalem, an army of what was estimated to be between twenty-five thousand and thirty thousand strong.

The Siege of Antioch 1099

The city of Antioch (now known as Antakya in Turkey) had been founded in 300 BC by Seleucus I, Alexander the Great's famous general who had also established the Seleucid Kingdom of Syria. Under Eastern Roman Empire rule, Antioch became the third most important city in the world, after Rome and Constantinople. The city fell as a result of an Islamic attack in the year 1085. Antioch lay on the path to Palestine and the Crusaders could not hope to take possession of Jerusalem without first taking the fortress city. As such it became the earliest major target for the white army.

As the Crusaders approached Antioch, the Muslim defenders under Yaghi-Siyan started killing all the remaining whites in the city, along with any nonwhite Christians who had the misfortune to be present. This set the scene for the Siege of Antioch which saw the Crusaders repay the nonwhite Muslims in kind—when they had the opportunity.

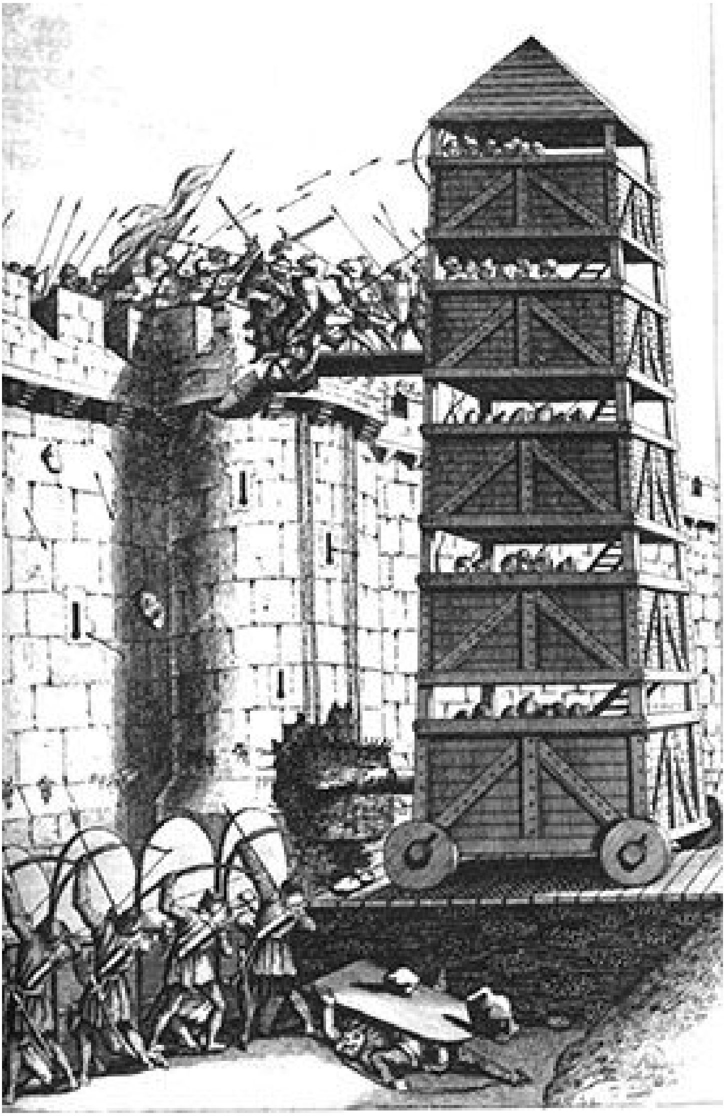
Antioch was a purpose-built military fortress city. The defenses had been built by the Roman Emperor Justinian and had been maintained by the Byzantines. The walls were immense, with four hundred towers spaced so that every part of the wall was within bow shot. The final fortification was the citadel which rose one thousand feet above the city, a masterpiece of late Roman engineering.

Suffering deprivations caused by lack of food and the inhospitable terrain, the army settled down to a fifteen month siege of the city. Fighting off two Muslim relief attempts, the Crusaders managed to obtain supplies to build two forts which they used to cut off all supply routes.

Even so they could not break the city walls. Entrance was only gained thanks to the treachery of one of the tower guards, an Armenian who had recently converted to Islam. The Armenian let an advance party of Crusaders into the city who then opened the main gates for the rest of the army.

By nightfall of June 3, 1099, the city was in white hands and every nonwhite who had remained behind was dead. The first great victory of the Crusade had been won. The Crusaders then drew up their forces for the assault on Jerusalem.

WALLS OF JERUSALEM STORMED 1099



White knights laying siege to the city of Jerusalem during the First Crusade.

After scavenging wood from the surrounding countryside, they built three siege towers, out of sight of the city's defenders, and used them in a night attack on the huge walls. The Muslims were astounded to see the siege towers, built as they were out of very basic materials which the Crusaders had managed to scrounge from the surrounding area.

Jerusalem Captured after Fierce Battle

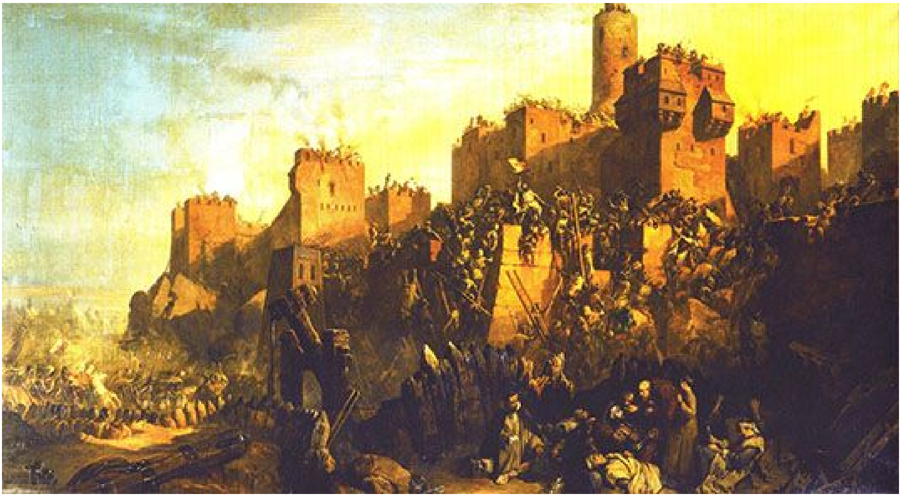
The city walls of Jerusalem had originally been built by the Roman Emperor Hadrian and, like Antioch, had been improved upon and repaired by the Byzantines. In addition, the new Muslim occupiers of the city had also added to the fortifications.

The Muslim governor of Jerusalem, Iftikhar ad-Duala, was confident he could hold off the Crusaders until a relief army arrived from Islamic-held Egypt. He had Arab and Sudanese troops defending the immense walls and he had taken the precaution of poisoning all but one of the water wells outside the city walls before the white army arrived. That one well was in an exposed position in clear shot of the city walls. Many Crusaders were killed trying to draw water, as the Muslims had planned. In addition, ad-Duala had ejected all the Christians, white or nonwhite, from the city, only allowing the Jews to stay.

The Crusaders started their siege of Jerusalem on June 7, 1099. Suffering shortages of food, water, and supplies, they kept up their assaults on the city, gradually wearing down the defenders despite the latter's stronger position. After several attempts to breach the walls with brute force and ladders, the Crusaders were supplied with building material and wood which was scavenged from the surrounding sparsely vegetated countryside.

Three Crusader siege towers were built out of sight of the nonwhite garrison and wheeled into place on the night of July 13, to the recorded great astonishment of the city's defenders. Using the siege towers to reach the walls, some thirteen thousand white soldiers took part in the assault. After suffering heavy losses and after sixteen hours of nonstop fighting, a part of the wall was taken at midday on July 14. With a breach in the wall secured, ordinary ladders could then be used to bring up reinforcements, and the Crusaders finally broke into the city streets.

SEIZURE OF JERUSALEM MARKS HIGHPOINT OF CRUSADES



The capture of the city of Jerusalem in 1099 by Crusaders marked the highpoint of the Crusades.

Muslims and Jews Massacred in Jerusalem

Seeing their defenses collapse, the Muslims retreated into the citadel. There, a small group of survivors negotiated the terms for their surrender which included safe passage out of the city. They were the only Muslims to survive the fall of Jerusalem. The Crusaders, overjoyed and enraged at the same time for having at last won the city after so much suffering, proceeded to slaughter every Muslim they could find.

According to the account of one Crusader, Raymond of Aguilers, the next morning when he went to visit the Temple area, he had to work his way through corpses and blood that reached his knees. The Jews had in the interim fled to their main synagogue. Accusing them of aiding the nonwhite Muslims—an accusation that was not without substance—the Crusaders showed the Jews no mercy. The synagogue was burnt down and every Jew in Jerusalem died in the inferno.

Godfrey of Bouillon, King of Jerusalem 1099

The Latin Kingdom of Jerusalem was then established under two Frankish nobles, Godfrey of Bouillon, and his brother Baldwin. In addition, three other states were founded: the County of Tripoli, in modern Lebanon; the Principality of Antioch, in modern Syria; and the County of Edessa, in present-day northern Syria and southern Turkey.

However, the Crusader states did not try to change the population makeup of the region by enforced migration or expulsion. Nor did they try to convert the natives. So it was that the first European colonies were created, ironically in the areas where their now very distant racial cousins had once walked.

The Second Crusade 1147–1148

The First Crusade's success stunned the Muslims, built as it was on a combination of zeal and luck. Maintaining the Crusader states was more difficult. The foremost problem facing the white colonists was that they were completely dependent on European recruits to man the forts and emplacements, surrounded as they were in a sea of dark Muslim faces.

A Muslim offensive was not long in the coming. In 1144, Islamic armies stormed a major city, Edessa, on the Euphrates River. The Muslim world had announced its counterattack, and the Second Crusade was called by Pope Eugenius III. This time a large number of Christian sovereigns joined the crusade, notably the German Holy Roman Emperor Conrad III and France's King Louis VII. Conrad made the mistake of choosing the land route from Constantinople to Palestine, and a Muslim attack in Turkey destroyed his army. Louis's army was also the victim of numerous Muslim attacks, and although depleted, was the only major force to reach Jerusalem in 1148. An attempt to attack the city of Damascus was made and failed. Dispirited, the French army gave up and returned home.

Following the failure of the Second Crusade, the Muslim armies launched a renewed assault on Jerusalem, recapturing the city in 1187. The Second Crusade had ended with heavy white casualties and military failure. However, in what was later to become a pattern, the English Crusader army, which never made it to the Middle East, stopped in Portugal and attacked the Muslim-occupied city of Lisbon, helping to drive out the Moors from northern Portugal.

This was significant as it showed that the Crusades were now a war against nonwhite Islamics anywhere they could be found and not specifically against Muslims in Jerusalem. The Second Crusade was also notable for the first formation of holy orders of knights. The most famous included the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, called Hospitalers, and the Poor Knights of Christ and of the Temple of Solomon, called Templars.

The Third Crusade 1189–1192

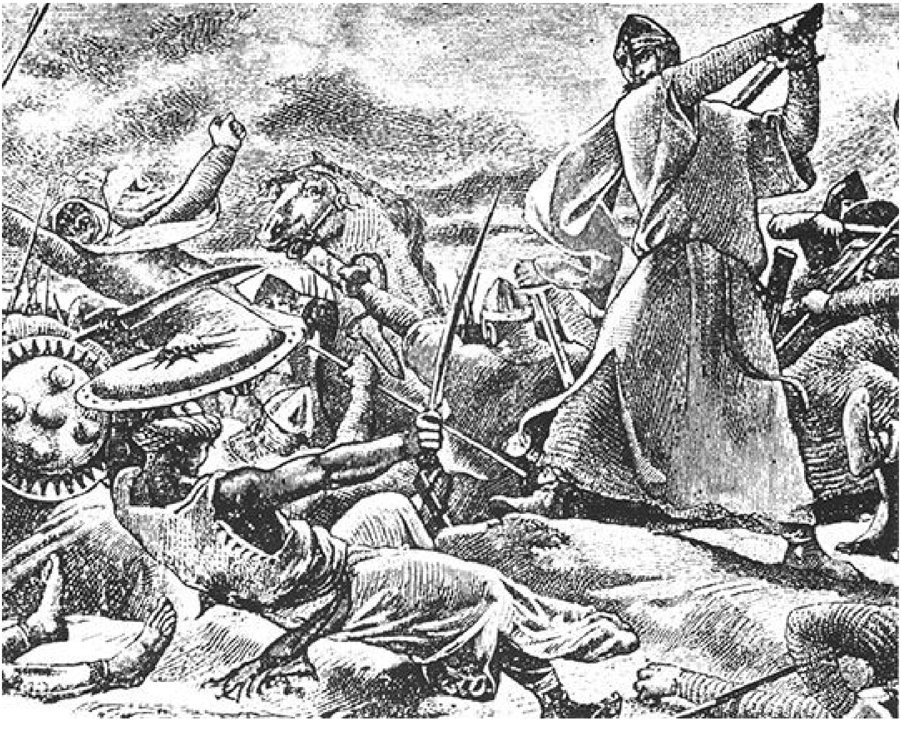
The failure of the Second Crusade provoked Christian

Europeans into planning yet another attempt at expelling the Muslim invaders from Palestine. Three kings announced their personal intentions of joining the fray: Richard I, the Lionheart of England; Philip II of France; and Frederick I, called Frederick Barbarossa, the Holy Roman Emperor.

Frederick Barbarossa, then already old and famous, died in 1189 while on the way to Palestine. Most of his army returned to Germany following his death. Philip II and his army reached Palestine, but failed to achieve any major military success, and returned home in 1191. Only the English king Richard remained to do battle with the nonwhites.

The Third Crusade did not succeed in capturing Jerusalem, but was not a complete military failure. By the time Richard left in 1192, a large part of Palestine, including several important coastal cities, had been seized from the Muslims.

SUPERIOR WEAPONRY GIVES CRUSADERS THE EDGE



The white knight slays his Muslim foes. Despite almost always being numerically inferior to the nonwhite forces, the superior weaponry of the Crusaders very often gave them victory in battle. The Europeans were also physically larger than their opponents which gave them the advantage in *hand-to-hand combat.*

The Fourth Crusade Collapses in Anarchy 1199–1204

The failure to take Jerusalem caused Pope Innocent III to call for a renewed military campaign in 1199. This Fourth Crusade turned into a fiasco from the start. The problems started when the ruler of Venice agreed to transport French and Flemish Crusaders to Palestine—for a fee. Unable to pay this amount, the Crusaders instead struck a deal with the Venetians. In terms of this deal, they would help the Venetians attack one of their major city-state rivals called Zara, a Hungarian trading port on the Adriatic Sea. The Crusaders would be given passage to Palestine as payment.

When Innocent III learned of the deal, he excommunicated the Crusaders. With nothing to lose, the combined Venetian/French/Flemish force captured Zara in 1202. Unleashed of obligation to serve Rome, the Fourth Crusade turned into a free-for-all with the participants finally reaching and attacking Constantinople.

Constantinople fell to these Crusaders-gone-berserk on April 13, 1204. The city was sacked for three days by the victorious soldiers, who established what they called the Latin Empire of Constantinople. This government lasted until the Byzantine emperor was able to recapture the city in 1261. During this period of “Fourth Crusader” rule, several new Crusader states were established in Greece and along the Black Sea coastline.

The Children’s Crusade 1212

Although not formally listed by historians as one of the seven crusades, the Children’s Crusade was nevertheless a pathetic attempt by approximately thirty thousand white children to conquer Palestine after the Fourth Crusade disaster. Believing that God would not abandon them, the youths Stephen of Vendrone (France) and Nicholas of Cologne (Germany) organized this crusade of children, all under the age of eighteen, to march on Palestine. They never reached further than the southern Mediterranean coast where most were captured and sold into slavery by Arab pirates.

The Fifth Crusade Sees Jerusalem Regained

The German Holy Roman Emperor, Frederick II, undertook to start a new Crusade in 1215. Pressing domestic issues only saw him set sail from Italy in 1227 and then he fell sick at sea, forcing his return to port after only a few days. The pope, enraged at the continual delays, then excommunicated Frederick as punishment. Despite this snub, Frederick sailed for Palestine once again in 1228. Once he had landed his impressive army, he entered into negotiations with the Muslims.

Clearly taken back at the strength of the German army, the Muslims agreed to sign a treaty in terms of which Jerusalem was handed over to the Christians and a ten year ceasefire was enforced. Frederick had achieved the ultimate goal through diplomacy backed by a powerful show of force.

CRUSADER CASTLE IN PRESENT-DAY SYRIA SURVIVES NINE CENTURIES

A Crusader built castle—Krak des Chevaliers in Syria, mid-twelfth century. The Crusaders' failure to majority populate the areas they conquered with their own racial kind led to their disappearance in a very short while. Now only their vast empty buildings stand as monuments to the spirit and heroism of the times.

The Sixth Crusade 1248–1254

In 1248 King Louis IX of France personally launched what would be a six year long crusade. The center of Muslim power had by now shifted to Egypt and Louis went straight there. Any Muslim settlement was now fair game. Louis landed in Egypt in 1249 and quickly captured a significant amount of territory.

In 1250, he launched an attack on Cairo but was defeated, not by force of arms, but by the Nile River irrigation system (first invented by the Egyptian king, Menes, thousands of years previously).

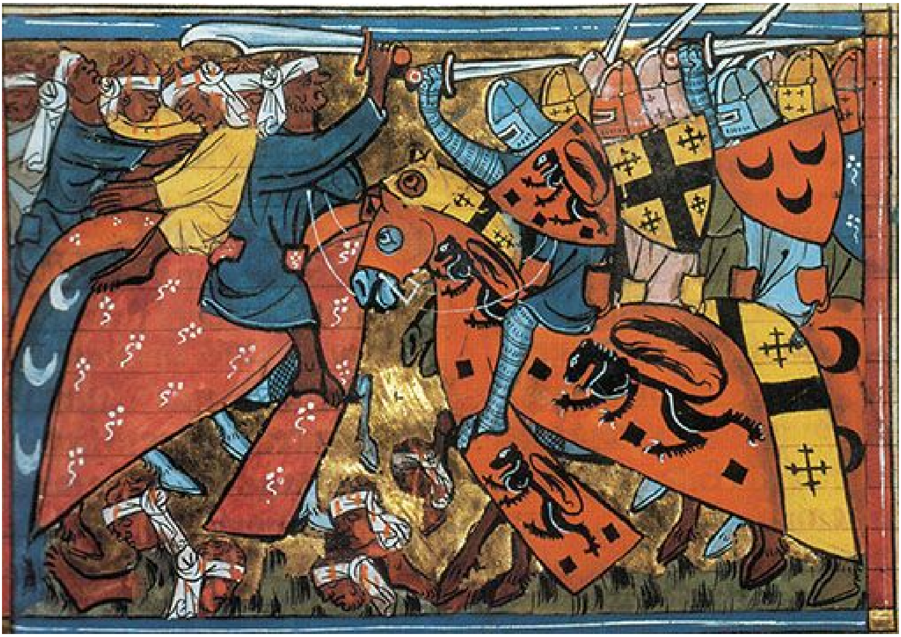
The Muslims waited until the French army was in a vulnerable position and then opened the sluice gates. This created an artificial flood which trapped Louis and his army, forcing him to surrender. The Muslims let Louis go free after he paid a huge ransom and surrendered his beachhead on the Egyptian coast. He went on to Palestine and for the next four years built and strengthened Christian fortifications before returning to France in 1254.

The Seventh Crusade 1270

Louis was unhappy with his disastrous expedition to Egypt, and in 1270 he organized what became the last Crusade. Raising a smaller army than before, he proceeded to attack the Muslim stronghold in Tunisia on the North African coast.

The Crusade was proceeding as planned when Louis died of natural causes. His army then lost the will to fight and returned to France.

RACIAL IMPERATIVE IGNORED



An illustration from a medieval manuscript showing a scene from the Crusades. The Crusaders were unable to maintain their new kingdoms because they failed to populate the conquered territories with their own kind. Never a majority, the white Christian soldiers were overrun, and within three hundred years almost all traces had vanished.

Aftereffects of the Crusades

The Crusader states established in the Middle East did not long survive the end of the Crusades. Hopelessly outnumbered in a sea of nonwhite foes, they were quickly reduced in size to a few major fortifications. Finally, the last major fort city, Acre, was overrun by Islamic armies in 1291.

On a military level the Crusades were a failure. They did not permanently dislodge the Muslims from anywhere except in northern Portugal. However, this is an unfair dismissal of the efforts of the white nations who took part in the wars. The obstacles they had to overcome were formidable. The vast distances involved, the reliance on volunteer soldiers, poor communications, and extended supply routes all combined to make it remarkable that they were able to launch expeditions of this nature at all.

The most significant aftereffect of the Crusades was that they added to the fervor to expel the Muslim nonwhite occupiers of Spain, something which was achieved less than 150 years after the last Crusade.

CHAPTER 21: Lessons in Decline—Spain and Portugal

Spain and Portugal are two countries in Western Europe which have been marked by phases of great wealth and power and then decline. Considering the lessons already manifest from the ancient civilizations, it is therefore easy to look for the population shifts which, as always, closely track the rise and fall of all civilizations.

As to be expected, in both Spain and Portugal, population changes are evident and directly linked to the leading—and then reduced—roles these nations have played in world history.

First Inhabitants Are Old European Types

The first inhabitants of the Iberian Peninsula were the Old European peoples who established a Neolithic, or farming culture. The next people to enter Iberia were the mixed Semitic/Indo-European/Old European people known as the Phoenicians. These people established trading posts on the southern coast of Spain prior to 1000 BC, working from Carthage, a city which they had founded in North Africa. The Spanish towns of Cadiz, Malaga, and Cordoba date from this time.

Around 600 BC, the Greeks established colonies in the northeastern part of Spain. They later expanded southward down into the present-day town of Valencia.

Celts Arrive from Central Europe Circa 500 BC

Around 500 BC, Indo-European origin Celts first crossed the Pyrenees Mountains and settled in the western and northern parts of Spain. Over subsequent years, other groups of Celts overran even larger areas of Spain. The new arrivals soon began intermarrying with the already settled population. Subsequently a number of these people—mixtures of Celts, Greeks, Old Europeans, and Phoenicians—moved into southern France, forming what is today known as Gascony.

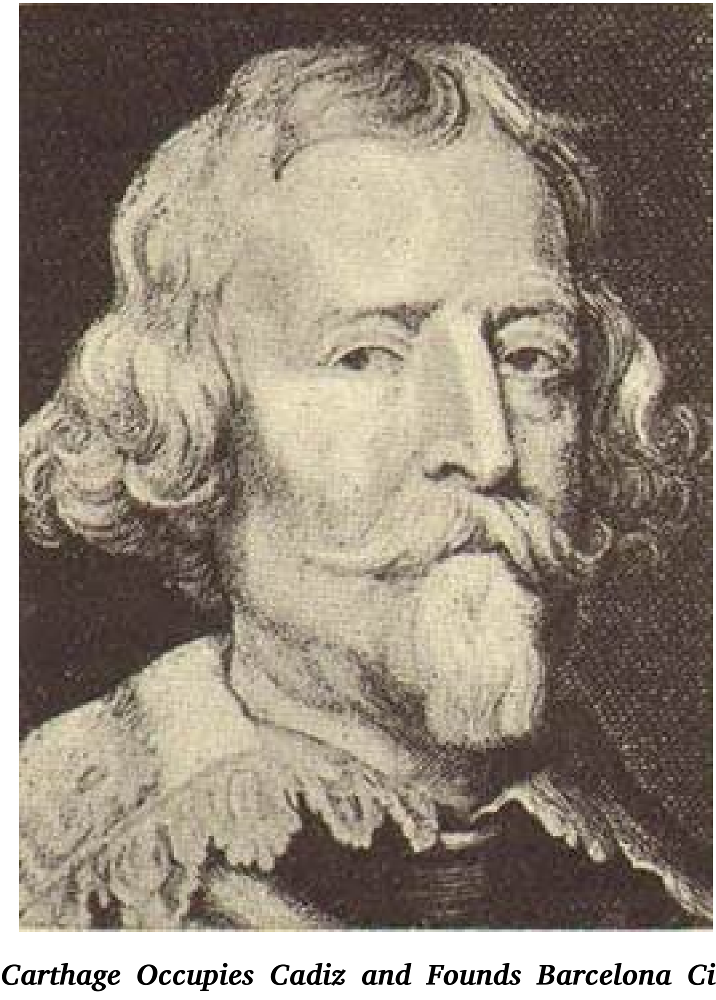
One of the original Old European peoples who remained largely unaffected by the racial comings-and-goings was the Basques, situated in a mountainous enclave in the north of Spain.

Their geographic isolation prevented them from being assimilated and their gene pool is today used by geneticists as a base definition for pre-Neolithic European populations. The Basque language is also one of the few surviving examples of the original Old European tongue. The Basques also retain to a certain degree the "dark" racial look of the Old European population.

NORDIC TYPES FROM SPAIN'S PAST

Evidence of Nordics in Spain: Above, a fine example of extreme Nordic racial type which made up the population of the Iberian Peninsula after the second great Indo-European invasion of that territory. The famous Lady of the Elche, *circa 400 BC, Madrid. The statue's origin is either Phoenician or Gothic Nordic.*

Below: Count Colonna, a Spanish general from the 1400s (engraving by Van Eyck, circa 1410).



Carthage Occupies Cadiz and Founds Barcelona Circa 230 BC

In 480 BC, an army from Carthage was sent to help put down a local uprising in the town of Cadiz. The Carthaginian army never left Cadiz, and went on to establish control over large parts of Spain.

After the First Punic War between Rome and Carthage in 237 BC, the Carthaginians strengthened their bases in Spain, founding the cities of Cartagena and Barcelona. The Carthaginian general, Hannibal, who invaded Italy during the Punic Wars, used Spain as a base for those attacks.

The defeat of Carthage at the end of the Punic Wars saw all the Carthaginian colonies in Spain surrendered to Roman rule, creating the Roman province of Hispania.

It took seventy-five years for the Romans to establish strict control over all the Iberians, but they then remained masters of Spain for the next five centuries. During this time the Romans created many of their long lasting architectural structures. The magnificent aqueduct at Segovia, which still carries water after 1800 years, is a prime example.

Sephardic Jews Arrive after Diaspora 70 AD

Spain, like many other areas in the Mediterranean Roman Empire, lay open to immigration from parts of the Middle East.

After the dispersion of the Jews by the Romans as a result of the Roman–Jewish war in 70 AD, many Jews fled along the North African coast and crossed the Strait of Gibraltar into Spain. There they quickly became an established significantly sized minority. These were the Sephardim, or Sephardic Jews.

New Germanic Invasions

Roman rule in Spain ended in 409 when bands of Germanics (the Alans, Vandals, Suebians, and others) crossed the Pyrenees and overthrew the Romanized Spaniards. The new invaders set up their own kingdoms.

They were followed in quick order by an invasion of Visigoths under their leader Adolf (brother-in-law of Alaric, the Goth who had sacked Rome in 410). The Visigoths routed all opposition to their rule and established an empire in Spain which included a portion of southern France as well.

The first Visigoth capital was established in the present-day French town of Toulouse. Although the Visigoths had subdued the Vandals and Suebians, relations between the latter two groups worsened over a number of domestic issues. A war between the two sides broke out in 420.

The Vandals then moved south, giving their name to the region known as Andalusia (from Vandalusia). Finally, in 429, an eighty thousand strong contingent of Vandals crossed the Strait of Gibraltar and seized the old Roman province of Africa (present-day Tunisia and parts of Algeria). There they established a Vandal state.

Spain—Visigoth Kingdom under King Euric

The departure of the Vandals allowed the Visigoths to reassert their dominance in Spain. Their numbers were swelled further by the arrival of the surviving Ostrogoths (who had been decimated by the advancing Huns). Together these Gothic tribes set up a formal Christian kingdom in Spain which lasted from 460 to 711. The first Spanish Gothic king was Euric, who was the son of one of Attila the Hun's great adversaries, Theodoric.

VISIGOTH KING EURIC EXTENDS REALM OVER IBERIA

EURICO.
Mº Aº DE 484.

Euric (415–484), king of the Visigoths, extended the Visigothic empire from present-day southern France into all of Iberia, replacing the ever-weakening Roman government. By 476 AD, Euric controlled nearly all of present-day Spain. His other equally famous contribution to Visigothic history was the Codex Euricianus, *a col-lection of laws which is one of the earliest examples of Germanic Law.*

Gothic Law Prohibits Mixed Marriages

One of the first laws which the Gothic kingdom in Spain established was a ban on all mixed marriages. Goths were only allowed to marry Goths, and punishment for violating this ban was burning at the stake. This overtly racial law kept the intermixing of Goths with all others to an absolute minimum. This was of particular importance due to the growing Jewish population.

Gothic Spain settled down into a period of relative peace and resultant prosperity, with the only discordant note being sounded by the large Jewish population. Ill-feeling between the Jews and Christians grew, caused by two major factors.

Firstly, the Christians, filled with zeal to convert all people to their faith, found the Jews particularly resistant—unlike the Europeans. This refusal to convert to Christianity bred considerable ill-feeling. Secondly, Jewish domination of the Spanish financial world, underlined by the exclusivity and separation which the Jewish religion gave to its adherents, caused great resentment between the two groups.

Eighty Thousand Conversos—Jews Baptised

In 620, the Spanish king Sisebut ordered eighty thousand Jews to be baptized as Christians in an attempt to break Judaism in Spain. This was the origin of the Conversos, Spanish Jews who publicly espoused Christianity but in secret kept their Jewish traditions. They were also known by the less complimentary name of Marranos, which means “pigs.”

Although the eighty thousand Jews baptized by Sisebut remained in Spain, about an equal number left the country for other parts of Europe to escape the growing anti-Semitic feeling in Iberia. Their departure was not a moment too soon—as some fifty-three years later, in 673, the Spanish king Wamba formally expelled all Jews who refused to convert to Christianity.

King Wamba’s immediate predecessor, King Recesvinto, had taken a step which was to have far reaching consequences.

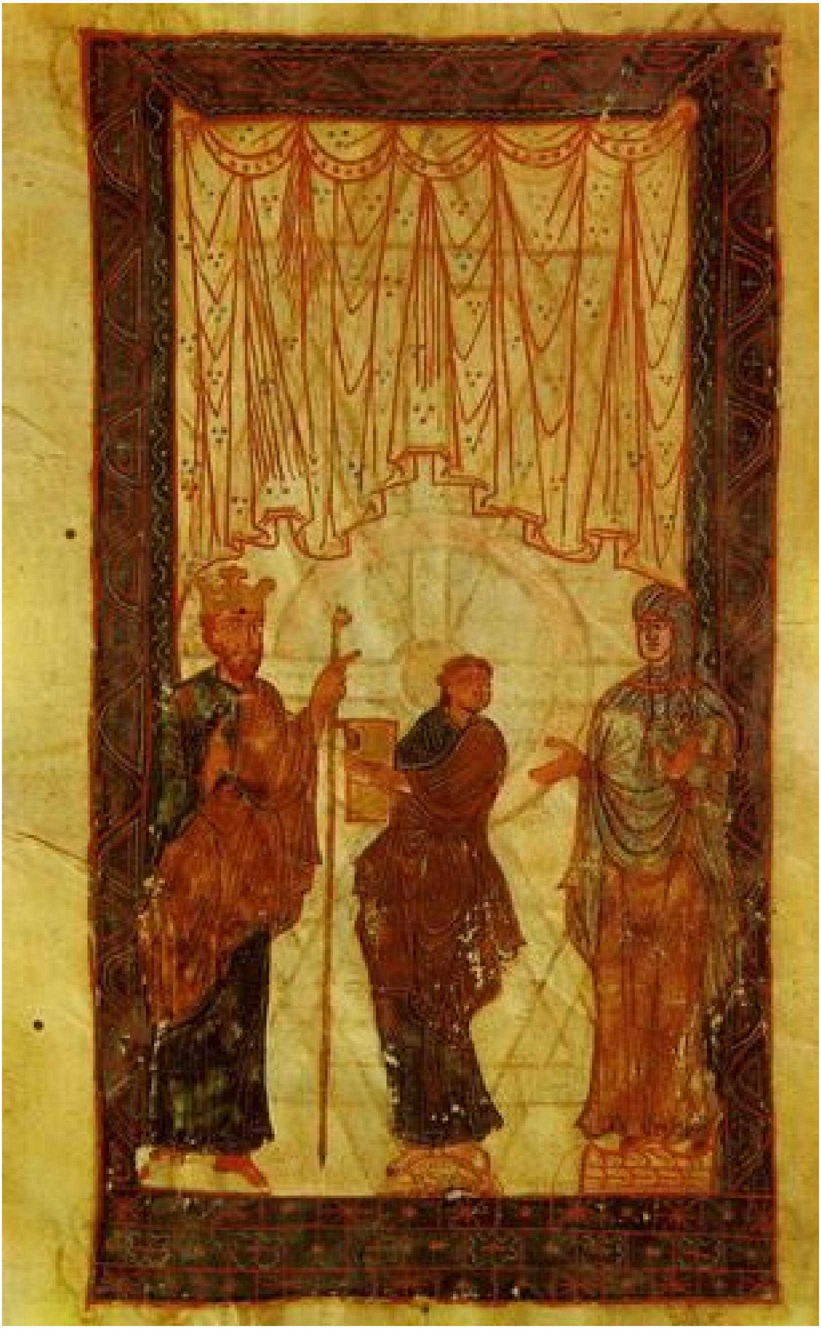
He abolished the long standing ban on mixed marriages, and replaced it with a law which stated that anyone of Christian beliefs could marry anyone else of similar beliefs. Henceforth the only ban on intermarriage was on religious grounds, not racial.

This step allowed any person of any racial origin, as long as they professed Christianity, to intermarry and mix with the Goths. In this way the first steps were taken which led toward the dissolution of the Gothic tribe in Spain.

Nonwhite Muslims Invade Spain 711

The nonwhite Muslim invasion finally reached Spain. The Islamic armies had swept out of the Saudi Arabian peninsula, conquered Egypt, Libya, Tunisia, and North Africa, and reached the Gibraltar Strait in 711. Launching a ferocious assault across the narrow sea, the Muslims defeated the Gothic kingdom and established their rule over large parts of Spain and Portugal. Only the very northern parts of those lands remained under Christian rule.

FERDINAND I—BEGINS RECONQUEST OF SPAIN



The great white king of Spain and Portugal, Ferdinand I (1005–1065), left, as portrayed on a contemporary manuscript. King of Castille and Leon, he became emperor of the part of Spain which was not under Muslim control in 1056. He started invading Muslim-held Spain in 1058, thereby inaugurating the period of white reconquest of Spain from the nonwhite Muslims.

White Reconquest—Seven Hundred Years Later

The period of reconquest of Spain by the Christian Europeans was the subject of yet another great race war in Europe. This duel ended in 1492, when the last Moorish citadel, Granada, surrendered to the white armies. (The full story and implications of this race war is told in the next chapter.)

The reconquest of Spain from the Moors was capped with yet another general expulsion of all Jews who had not converted to Catholicism. The prominent positions held by many Jews in the Moorish administration of occupied Spain and their record of collaboration with the Moors was a significant factor in inciting anti-Jewish feeling.

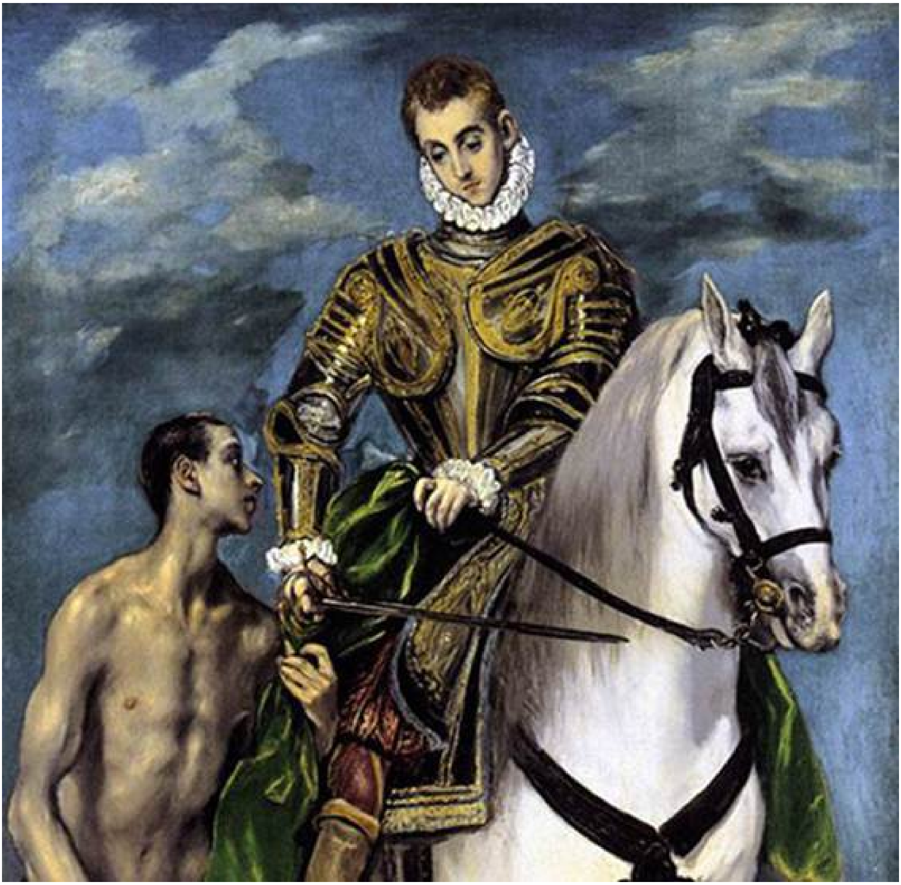
Expulsion of 250,000 Mixed-Race Peoples in 1609

The Moors occupied Spain for over seven hundred years. It was therefore inevitable that they mixed with the local population. In this way a not insignificant amount of Moorish—in reality mixed-race Arabic/black—blood entered Spain and Portugal, notably in the southernmost regions. The Spaniards recognized this as an issue, and in 1609, the Spanish king Philip III ordered the physical expulsion of some 250,000 “Moriscos” or Christianized Moors from the country.

This was done solely on the basis of their race, and not their religion—a marked difference to the earlier expulsions of the Jews, who, if genuinely converted to Catholicism, were allowed to stay.

The vast majority of these Christianized Moors were of mixed race—part Moorish, part white (hence their adherence to Christianity). This remarkable example of the expulsion on racial grounds was a major reason why the infusion of Moorish blood into Spain was not as significant as it could have been.

SPAIN—THE RACIAL DIVISIONS EMERGE



Spain: The racial divisions emerge. This famous painting by El Greco (1548–1614), Saint Martin and the Beggar, *is a vivid depiction of the emerging division of Spain between those who had mixed with the nonwhite Muslims and those who had not. Saint Martin is portrayed as completely white—the beggar is clearly of mixed race. Insets compare the faces of the two characters in this painting*

Spanish Inquisition and the Final Expulsion of the Jews

In 1478, the Spanish king and queen, Ferdinand and Isabella, launched what became famous throughout the world as the Spanish Inquisition. This was, in theory at least, an attempt to enforce religious uniformity. In reality it was a political tool through which the Spanish tried to drive out the last of the Conversos, making it into a primarily anti-Jewish campaign.

All manner of heretics—people who disputed the Catholic version of Christianity, were also persecuted. It is estimated that the Spanish Inquisition saw at least two thousand people, and possibly more, burned at the stake for crimes ranging from witchcraft to paganism. Finally in 1492, the Spanish expelled all the Jews from Spain who had still not converted to Christianity.

Spain's Golden Age—Ruled by "Blue Blood"

Despite the admixture of a certain number of Moors, the majority of Spanish society—particularly the ruling elite—had retained their original genetic makeup, absorbing only a number of Sephardic Jews who had truly converted to Catholicism.

The expression "blue blood" comes from Spain during this time. The ruling Visigoth nobles had such white skin that the blue arteries were visible on their faces, creating the expression "blue blood." Its link to nobility has lasted to this day. The Spanish word for gentleman, hidalgo, literally means "son of the Goth" and the great Spanish rulers Ferdinand and Isabella, who led the liberation from Moorish rule, were both of Gothic descent.

Huge Wealth from New World

In 1492, the Germanic Italian Christopher Columbus, who hailed from Lombardy, succeeded in persuading the Spanish royalty that the earth was indeed round and that he could sail to the newly discovered continent of India by traveling west instead of east. This would, he argued, be a shorter route than sailing south down Africa and then east, as the Portuguese and others had done. Financed by the Spanish court, Columbus sailed west, discovering by accident the continent later called America. He remained convinced that he had found India, resulting in the native peoples discovered in the Americas being called Indians—a name which has stuck to this day.

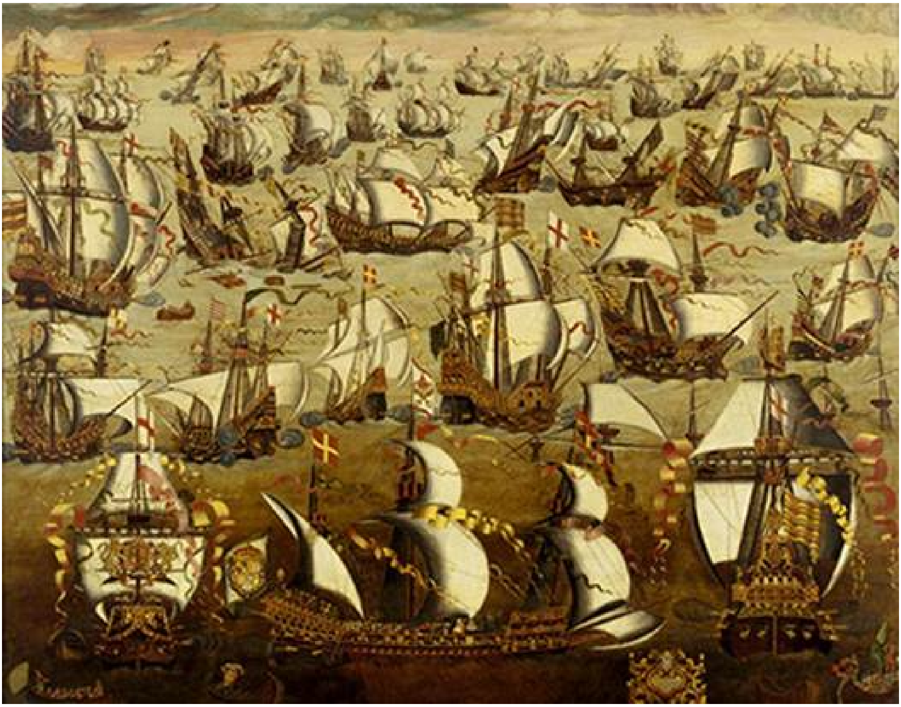
Columbus's voyages were followed by Spain's expansion into the Americas. By the 1550s, Spain controlled most of South America, Central America, Florida, Cuba, and the Philippine islands. This empire brought enormous wealth to Spain, and it became a major power in Europe.

Spanish Empire Grows

The Spanish empire also expanded in Europe. By 1516, through a series of royal family connections and outright conquest, Spain controlled southern Italy, the Netherlands, and Burgundy in France.

The Spanish king was elected "Holy Roman Emperor" by the pope as part of an attempt by the Catholic Church to cast itself as the successor to the classical Roman Empire. In 1580, the king of Portugal died and the Spanish and Portuguese thrones were united due to a family connection. Portuguese resentment to Spanish rule was placated by a number of self-rule concessions. Portugal's inclusion into Spain meant that along with the Portuguese colonial possessions came the vast number of black slaves in which that nation had traded and used, both at home and abroad. This was to have far reaching consequences.

SPANISH INVASION OF ENGLAND FAILS 1588



The Spanish Armada in combat off the English coast in 1588. The large invasion fleet was defeated by the English navy after an epic three day engagement.

European Wars—Catholic against Protestant

The spread of the Protestant rebellion among Christians in Spain allowed the fervently pro-Catholic state to persecute these new heretics. This, combined with the attempts to hold onto the now Protestant Netherlands, led directly to war with newly Protestant England. This in turn led to the infamous Thirty Years' War, which was followed by war with France in 1635. During the course of these conflicts, the Spanish sent a great fleet, known in history as the

Armada, to conquer the English. The Armada was defeated by a combination of superior British organization and bad weather.

Due to their colonial policy and the demographic shift in Spain, the once mighty Goths were not able to recover after this defeat.

Importation of Nonwhite Slaves

Spanish colonial policy was, with the exception of Portugal, different from colonial policies pursued by other European nations. Instead of colonizing their acquisitions with large numbers of their own people, the Spanish used their colonial possessions purely as economic resources. Spanish men who went to South America, the Caribbean, or even North America, did not take families or Spanish women with them. The result was widespread mixing with the local populations in their colonies, which produced an overwhelmingly mixed-race population still prevalent in Central and South America.

In addition, the Spaniards, like most other European nations, became users of black slaves in the colonies. In this way, millions of blacks were imported to South and Central America, adding a further dimension to the racial mix in those territories. However, also in common with Portugal, a large number of black slaves were imported into Spain. It is a matter of debate exactly how many of these slaves were absorbed into the Spanish population, and how much of this admixture has contributed to the mixed-race element found in Spain today.

Gypsies—Five Century Immigration Invasion

Spain's racial character has also been affected by a five century long immigration of Gypsies, dark wandering nomads who had their origin in India. The Gypsies spread throughout Europe from concentrated areas in Spain and Romania, where they numbered in the millions.

Gypsies have occupied large areas of Spain to the point where significant elements of what is considered to be Spanish culture—for example the "Flamenco" dance—is actually Gypsy in origin. It can be said with a fair degree of certainty that the Gypsy element in Spain's current mixed-race population is very high, possibly even a majority, given that the Spaniards expelled both Moors and other mixed-race elements during that country's history.

The official 1992 estimate of the number of Gypsies in Spain was around 600,000. Like all official figures, it is most likely an underestimation and does not include the vast number of mixed-race Spanish/Gypsy people who display the classic “dark” appearance so incorrectly associated with true Spaniards.

It would be incorrect to allege that all Spaniards are of mixed origin, and the European element remained strong there throughout all these trials and tribulations.

White Population Loss Due to Wars

The change in the racial makeup of Spain, combined with its disastrous European wars, brought about its decline as a great power. This was in accordance with the law that societies create cultures in the image of their populations.

Spain is a significant example of this principle, because, like Italy after the Germanic Lombard invasion, that country essentially became a biracial nation: white in the north, with a gradually darkening population to the south. By 1648, Spain had been so weakened that it conceded Dutch independence in that year. French provinces were handed back to France in 1659, and Portugal was granted independence in 1668.

Spain Loses Territory in New Wars

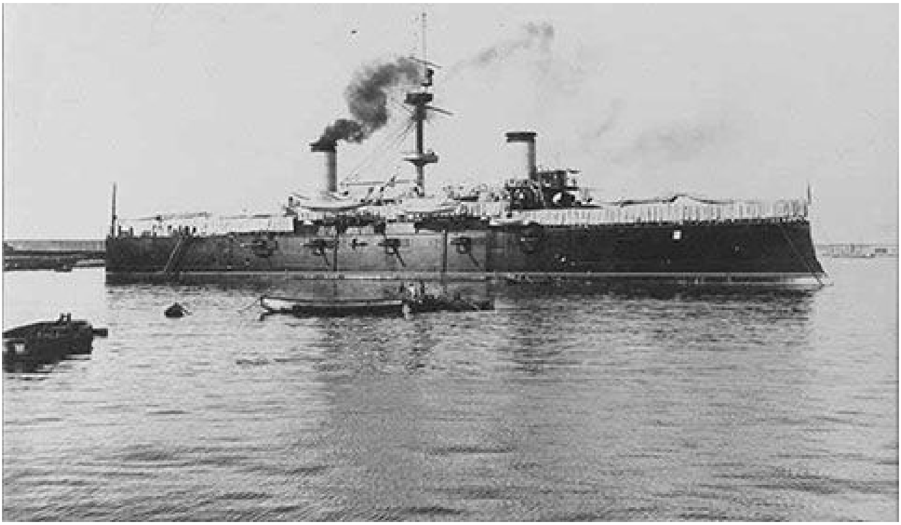
In 1701, the Austrian and French royal families, the Habsburgs and Bourbons, both claimed the Spanish throne, leading to the War of the Spanish Succession, which involved much of Europe until 1713.

The enfeebled Spanish Empire was divided up among the other European powers, with its European possessions going to Austria, and the Spanish throne and the majority of the overseas empire going to France.

The French Revolution of 1789 and inter-European upheavals led to Spain’s conquest by Napoleon Bonaparte. Installing his brother as Spanish king, Napoleon turned Spain into little more than a French province. Ruled by the French, and with its own population effectively divided into white and mixed race, Spain was unable to maintain its former position of dominance in world affairs. The South American colonies began to win their independence with only Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, and Guam remaining under nominal Spanish rule by the late 1800s.

EMPIRE LOST IN SPANISH–AMERICAN WAR

Spain lost the last of its colonial possessions during the Spanish–American War which was fought between April and August 1898, mainly over the liberation of Cuba. The war began after American demands for the resolution of the Cuban fight for independence were rejected by Spain. A revolution in Havana saw the American warship USS Maine *sent to Cuba, where it was destroyed in an explosion blamed on the Spanish (the claim was later shown to be false). American forces then moved against Spanish possessions in Cuba, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and Guam. The war ended with Spain conceding defeat at the Treaty of Paris which gave the United States control of those territories. The illustrations are early photographs showing Spanish prisoners captured by the Americans at the city of Santiago de Cuba, and the Spanish armored cruiser* Cristóbal Colón, *which was destroyed during the Battle of Santiago on July 3, 1898.*



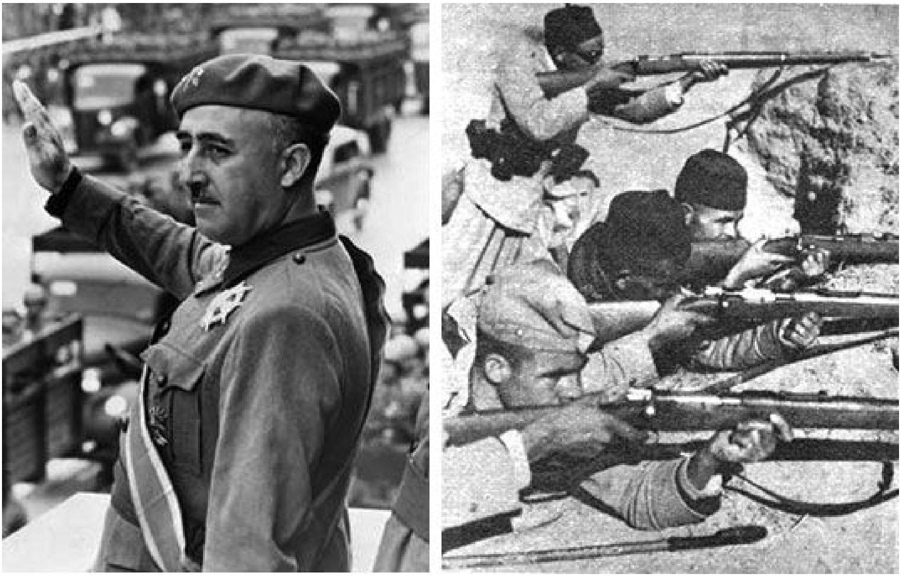
The First Republic 1868

The Spanish royal family reclaimed the throne upon Napoleon’s defeat in 1814. The country, however, remained in disarray. A civil war erupted which ended in 1868 when the first republic of Spain was declared and the royal family deposed. Anarchy followed and a counterrevolution by a group of generals restored the monarchy in 1874. Spain lost its last overseas possessions after a revolt in Cuba, which was supported by the United States of America, resulting in the Spanish–American War of 1898. Spain was easily routed in this conflict, and was forced to cede Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines to America.

The Second Republic

Spain remained neutral during the First World War (1914–1918) but suffered severe social, political, and economic chaos, with its mixed race population continually reproducing faster than the white Spanish, thereby exponentially increasing their proportion of the population. Continued political unrest led to the voluntary exile of the Spanish king in 1931 and the declaration of the second Spanish Republic in that year.

AUTOCRAT FRANCO USES NONWHITE TROOPS IN SPANISH CIVIL WAR



Left: General Francisco Franco, victor in the Spanish Civil War, albeit with significant German and Italian help. Although widely dismissed as a Fascist or a Nazi, he was in fact neither, and was merely an old style autocrat. He refused to join Hitler during the Second World War, and was not averse to using nonwhite troops if it suited him. His invasion of Spain, which started the Spanish Civil War, was launched from North Africa using Arab troops under his command. It was merely the anti-Communism of his political position and the possibility of a military exercise which persuaded Hitler and Mussolini to lend his forces assistance. Right: Nonwhite Moors serving in Franco's army, here pictured during the Civil War, 1936. Franco launched his invasion of Republican Spain from a Spanish colony in North Africa, initially only using Moorish troops such as these.

General Franco Uses Moorish Troops

The Second Republic was short-lived. A military revolt in 1936 developed into a full-scale civil war between supporters of the Republic—mostly Communists—and Spanish Nationalists. The Communists received material aid from the Communist International and from the Soviet Union.

In turn, the nationalists received material aid from the leading anti-Communist powers of the time, Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany. Finally, as a direct result of German military intervention in the Spanish Civil War, the Nationalists under General Francisco Franco overwhelmed the Communists.

Due to the assistance given to Franco by Nazi Germany and

Fascist Italy, Franco has long been classed as a Fascist. In fact he was neither a Fascist nor a Nazi. Allegedly part Jewish (this allegation has never been conclusively proven), Franco had initiated his attack on the Communist republic from across the Strait of Gibraltar with an army composed initially of black Spanish soldiers, an indication of not only the racially integrated nature of Spanish society, but also of Franco's antipathy toward any racial politics.

For these reasons Franco refused to enter the Second World War on Hitler's side as was widely expected. This kept the Strait of Gibraltar open for the Allies, a move that was to prove crucial in the conduct of the war. Nonetheless, after the Second World War, many countries associated Spain with the Nazis, and the Franco government went into a period of isolation. However, the growth of the conflict between the Soviet Union and the capitalist West under the leadership of the United States (called the Cold War because it never broke out into a shooting or "hot" war), Spain became regarded as an ally against Communism, and by 1955 the country's isolation had been broken and Spain was finally admitted to the United Nations. In 1975, Franco died, and the country became a constitutional democratic monarchy in 1977. This did not satisfy the independence-minded Basques in the north of the country, some of whom waged a violent guerrilla war for many decades, mostly without any political success.

During the last part of the twentieth century, Spain allowed significant nonwhite immigration, particularly from North Africa, a development discussed later in this book.

Portugal

Because of the close proximity to Spain, the development of Portugal mirrors its larger Iberian neighbor in virtually all respects except one—it absorbed a far larger number of black slaves during its slave trading era, and is therefore as a nation substantially more miscegenated.

The first inhabitants of Portugal were the Old Europeans, who in turn were overrun by successive waves of the same peoples who occupied Spain—the mixed Old European/Indo-European Carthaginians, then the Romans, then the Alans, Vandals, and Visigoths. All of these peoples left their genetic imprint on the population.

Lusitania—Province of Rome

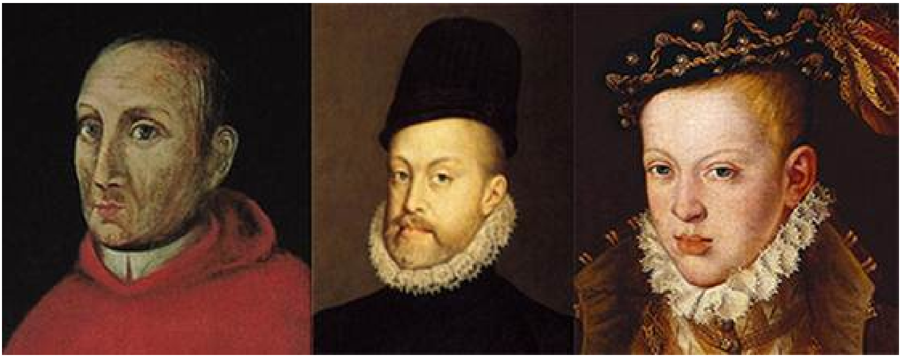
Portugal was occupied by the Romans during the second century BC and incorporated into the province of Lusitania. Roman rule was uninterrupted for over five hundred years, during which time the country advanced thanks to the importation of Roman technological and organizational skills. The collapse of the Western Roman Empire saw the Visigoths establish their kingdom in Iberia, with the region known as Portugal forming a part of the Visigothic state.

The Moorish Invasion 711

The nonwhite Muslim invasion of 711 saw a large part of southern Portugal falling under Moorish rule for several centuries. The liberation of Portugal during the mid-fifteenth century by the rejuvenated Gothic king and queen, Ferdinand and Isabella, saw the region reorganized into a feudal country composed of Spanish fiefs.

Portugal derived its name from one of these fiefs, the Comitatus Portaculenis, which was based around the Roman established port of Portus Cale (known today as Oporto).

SIXTEENTH CENTURY NORDIC KINGS OF PORTUGAL



Three Nordic Portuguese kings. Left to Right: Henry I, Phillip II and Sebastian. The latter was killed fighting the nonwhite Moors in 1578.

Independence under Alfonso I

In 1139, a leading Portuguese nobleman, Alfonso Henriques, declared Portugal independent from the Spanish royalty and took the title Alfonso I. His descendants finally expelled the last of the Muslim Moors from Portuguese territory by 1279, some 160 years before they were thrown out of Spain.

The "Purity of Blood" Law

In 1497, the Portuguese king, Emanuel, mirrored the Spanish example and expelled non-Christian Jews and all Christianized Moors. A law was also introduced which forbade persons of mixed race from holding public office—the law had as its formal title the "Purity of Blood Law." In addition to this, similar restrictions were placed on what were called "New Christians," who were Jews who had converted to Christianity to avoid persecution by the Inquisition, which had extended into Portugal.

Portugal's Lead in Exploration

Independent and vigorous, the largely Gothic Portuguese then led the way in the exploration of the rest of the world. Portuguese enthusiasm for exploration was exemplified by Henry the Navigator, who became famous for promoting voyages in a new type of ship specially designed for sailing the wide oceans, called the caravel.

With these caravels, the Portuguese explored the world. In 1418, they discovered the island of Madeira. The Azores were first sighted in 1427. A successful Portuguese military campaign in Morocco resulted in the capture of Ceuta, which was followed by the capture of Tangiers in 1438.

By 1444, the Portuguese had sailed to Cape Verde and by 1460, they had reached Sierra Leone. In 1482, a Portuguese settlement was made in present-day Ghana. The Portuguese explorer, Bartholomew Diaz, became the first European to sail around the southern tip of Africa in 1488. Ten years later, in 1498, the Portuguese explorer, Vasco da Gama, became the first European to sail around Africa to India, opening the sea trade route to India. In 1510, the Portuguese occupied Goa in India; in 1511, they took Malacca in Malaysia; in 1514, they took the Moluccas; and in 1515, Hormuz Island in the Persian Gulf. As a result, Portugal built up a huge colonial empire, stretching from South America to Africa and Asia.

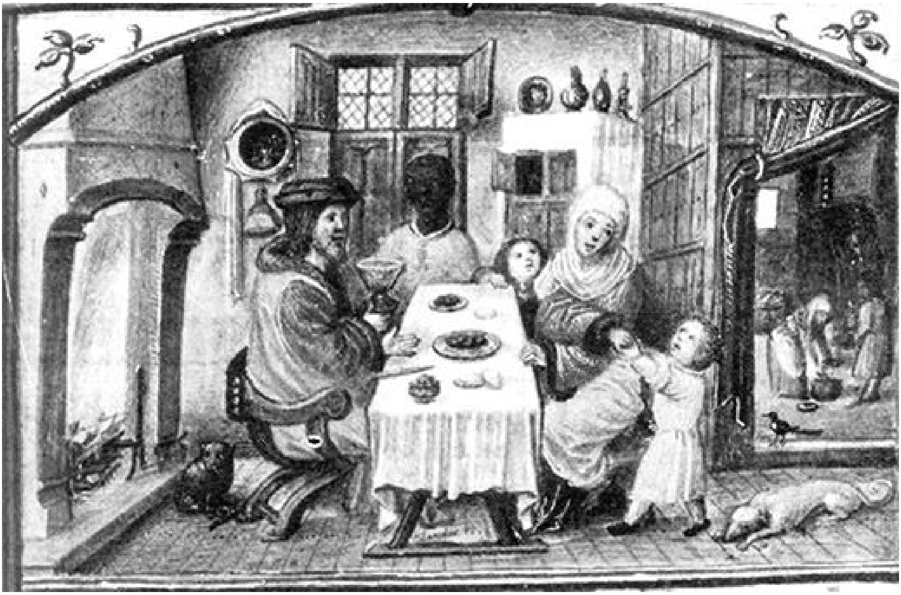
Slavery—Portugal's Undoing

As a direct result of her massive colonial empire, Portugal was, by the middle of the sixteenth century, one of the wealthiest and most powerful countries in Europe. However, within a matter of one hundred years, this once mighty nation practically disappeared off the world stage.

As with all changes in the fortunes of nations, this dramatic decline was linked directly to a shift in the population makeup of Portugal. Like Spain, but unlike the other European colonial powers, Portuguese colonial policy was built on two legs: Firstly, no attempt was made to populate her colonies with masses of her own people. Instead, bands of lone male explorers were sent out to exploit the colonies for the financial gain of Portugal. The lack of families or Portuguese women led directly to the creation of a massive number of mixed-race populations in the Portuguese colonies, one of the most prominent present-day examples being Brazil.

Secondly, Portugal imported masses of black slaves into its own territory, starting in 1441, when the first ship full of black slaves arrived. Black slaves continued to be imported in such large numbers that by 1550, they officially made up 10 percent of the population of Portugal's capital, Lisbon.

BLACK SLAVE TRADE—PORTUGAL'S DEADLY IMPORT



In the fifteenth century, a huge number of black slaves were imported into Portugal, later to be completely absorbed into mainstream Portuguese society. In this fifteenth century Portuguese painting, a black domestic servant is shown serving supper to a white Portuguese family. DNA testing among present-day Portuguese populations has revealed that sub-Saharan African mtDNA haplogroup L runs at around 10 percent in southern Portugal, rising to 22 percent in the Alcácer do Sal municipality.

Slave Population Completely Intermarried

There were no social restrictions on the black population, and intermarriage was frequent. Over the passage of time, the entire black population was completely absorbed into the Portuguese population, to the point where by the start of the twentieth century, there were no full-blooded blacks left in Portugal.

While not every Portuguese person is a product of this absorption process, it is true to say that a significant number of people living in Portugal today are of mixed-racial descent, with a small amount of Moorish blood dating from that occupation of the Iberian Peninsula appearing in the genetic evidence of the present-day Portuguese population.

The absorption of the 10 percent black population into the Portuguese nation mirrors the disappearance of Portugal as a world power. The Portuguese of the Age of Discoveries and those of today are essentially two different peoples and the effects of the absorption of the black slaves has retarded Portugal's history ever since. Today that country has long been acknowledged as the most backward country in Europe with the highest illiteracy rate on the Continent, estimated to be 30 percent in the early 1990s.

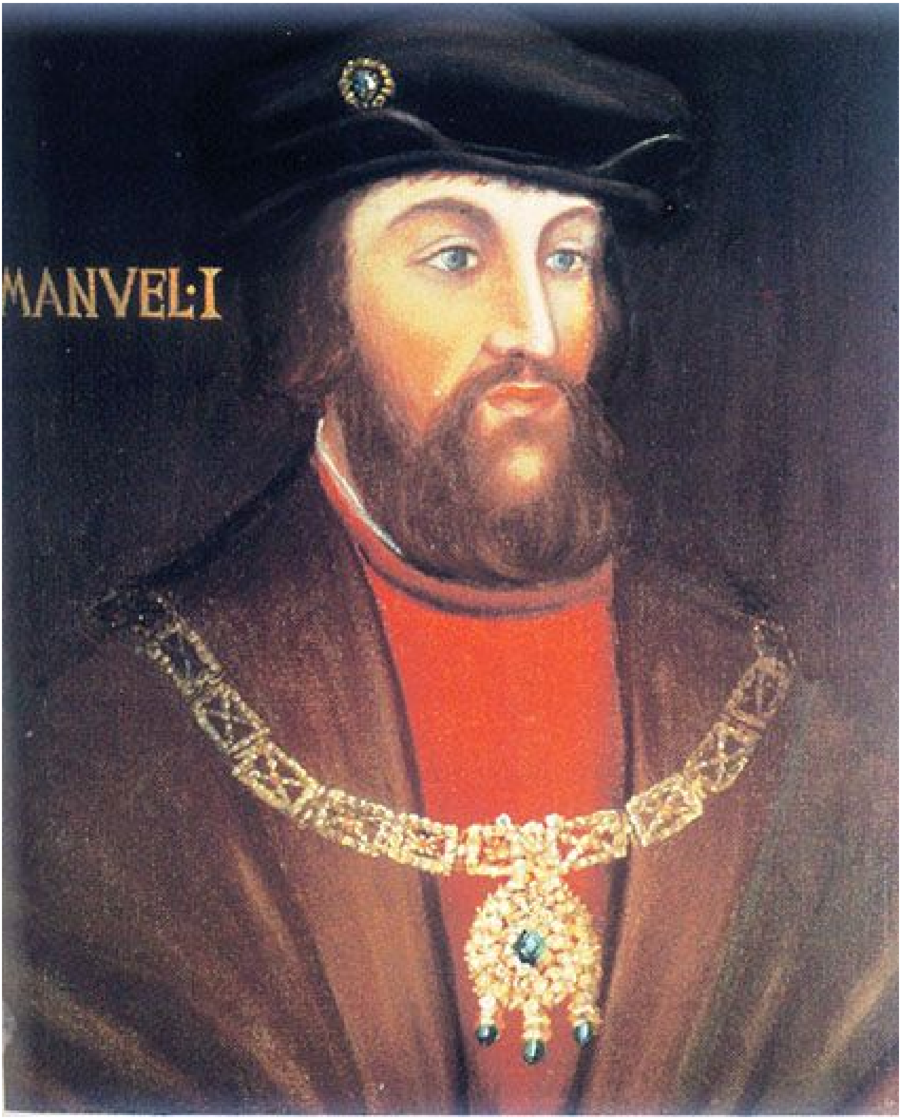
In 1580, Spain annexed Portugal after the Portuguese king died heirless. Portugal only regained its independence in 1680 once Spain had also gone into decline for precisely the same reasons, although the admixture of slaves into Spain was never as far-reaching as it was in Portugal.

As further evidence of Portugal's rapid disappearance from the world stage, it had lost domination of the East Indies trade to the Dutch and the English as early as 1600.

Purity of Blood Law Repealed

Partly in response to objections from the mixed-race element, and partly in response to the reality that many Portuguese citizens were already of mixed-racial heritage, the old "Purity of Blood" law was repealed in 1773, the same year that slavery was abolished in Portugal. In addition, the restrictions on the "New Christians" (Jews) in that country were lifted at the same time.

THE PRICE OF PORTUGAL'S EMPIRE



Manuel I was king of Portugal at the time of the explorer Vasco da Gama, and his nation drew much financial benefit from the age of exploration. Using an advanced design ship called the caravel, da Gama and his fellow explorers were able to lay the basis for a worldwide Portuguese empire. However, they also imported massive numbers of black slaves into Portugal —an act which cost that country dearly.

Instability Marks Nineteenth Century History

In 1807, when Napoleon Bonaparte of France threatened Portugal, the royal family transferred the government to Brazil, returning only in 1820 after Napoleon's final defeat. Thereafter

Portugal went into a long period of social, political, and economic chaos, with its king assassinated in 1908 and a republic being declared.

Portugal became embroiled in the First World War on the side of the Allies, rumbling through intermittent periods of disturbance until the republic was overthrown in a military coup in 1926. Under a military dictatorship, Portugal maintained neutrality during the Second World War. The dictatorship lasted until 1974, when another coup saw a left-wing Socialist government installed, which duly arranged the first ever democratic elections in Portugal.

Portugal Loses Colonies

Although Portugal had rapidly declined as a world force, she managed to hang on to scattered colonies in Asia and Africa. Most of these Asian colonies were lost, never to be regained, during the Second World War when the Japanese overran most of the region. The only remaining Portuguese possessions in Asia, Goa and Macau, were handed over to India in 1961, and China in 1987 respectively. In 1976, Portuguese Timor was occupied by Indonesian forces.

Citizenship Granted to Africans in Colonies

The primary remaining Portuguese colonies in Africa were Angola, Mozambique, and Guinea-Bissau. Refusing to bow to the post-World War II decolonization process, Portugal found itself embroiled in an insurgency war with black African nationalists in both Angola and Mozambique, despite a large degree of intermixture having taken place.

In addition, as early as 1961, Portugal extended Portuguese citizenship to Africans in all these territories, giving them the right to enter and reside in Portugal. Hundreds of thousands, and possibly as many as a million, took up this offer. The parallel with the granting of citizenship to all free persons in the Roman Empire in 212 cannot be missed.

One of the first actions of the government which came to power in the 1974 coup was to withdraw from all of the major Portuguese colonies: Guinea-Bissau, Angola, Mozambique, the Cape Verde Islands, Sao Tome, and Principe. The immediate effect for Portugal was another huge influx of several hundred thousand colonial expatriates, a vast number of whom brought their black wives and mixed-race children with them away from the chaos of the colonies.

Portugal’s Lesson—Loss of Racial Integrity Leads to Arrested Development

Portugal’s dramatic and extremely quick decline from being the most powerful and richest country in Western Europe to the most backward and poor country in that region contains an extremely significant lesson.

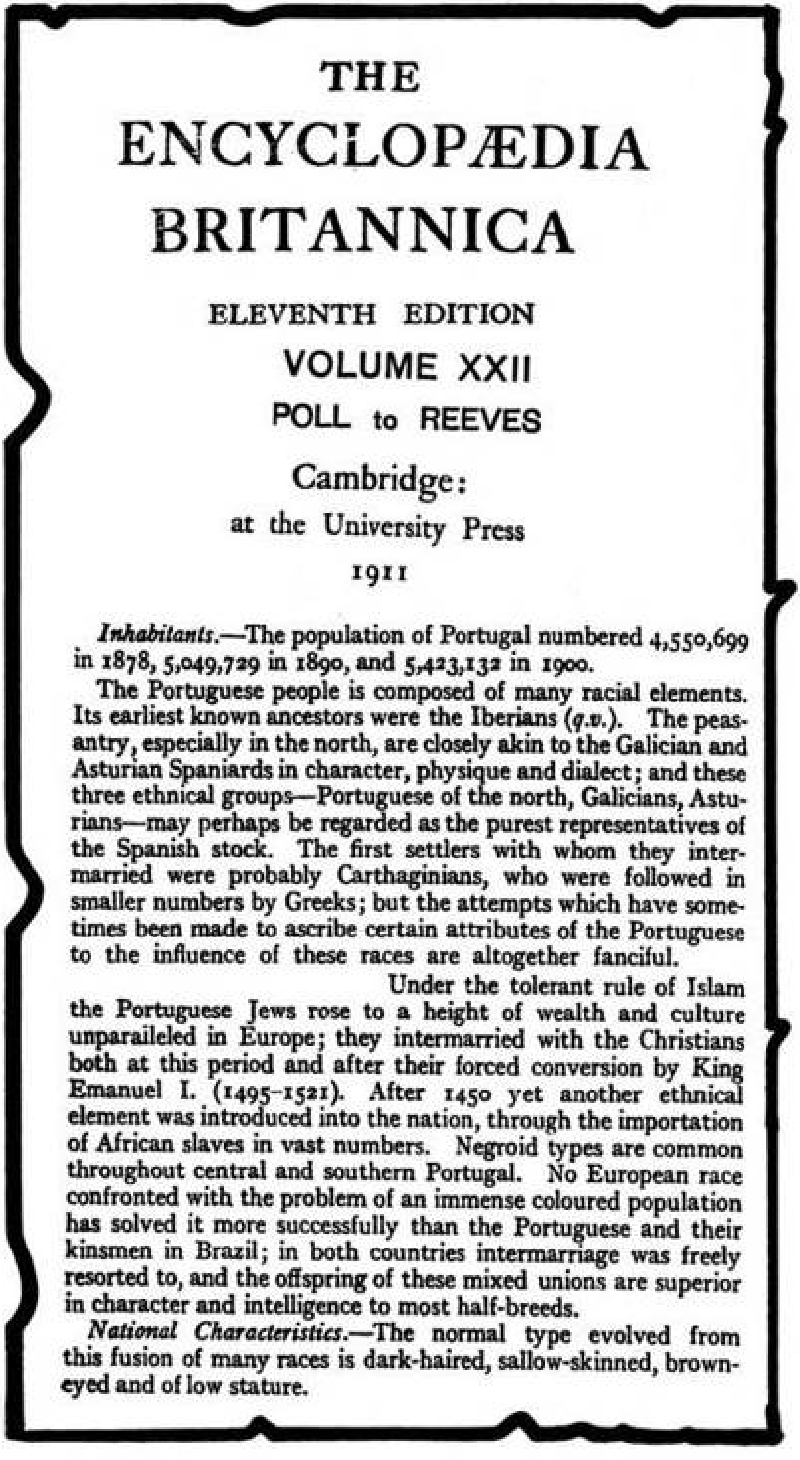
It only required an influx and absorption of just over 10 percent of nonwhite blood into mainstream Portuguese society to cause a significant shift in the population makeup of that country.

This shift in makeup affected Portugal’s position and status in the world, with its decline being clearly linked to the absorption process.

It is, of course, not true to say that all people living in Portugal are of mixed descent. However, there is a significant mixed-race portion of the population which tends to reproduce faster than the European element, and thus is always gaining in numbers and percentage of the population.

FALSIFYING HISTORY—THE LIES OF PRESENT-DAY HISTORIANS

How history is being rewritten to suit the politically correct dogma, and also how unreliable modern academics have become, is revealed in these three extracts from encyclopedias, all dealing with the subject of the population of Portugal. The first extract is from the 1911, eleventh edition, of *The Encyclopedia Britannica,* and deals very bluntly with the fact of the importation—and absorption—of black slaves into Portugal. It describes the Portuguese population as being “composed of many racial elements.”



THE
ENCYCLOPÆDIA
BRITANNICA

ELEVENTH EDITION
VOLUME XXII
POLL to REEVES

Cambridge:
at the University Press
1911

Inhabitants.—The population of Portugal numbered 4,550,699 in 1878, 5,049,729 in 1890, and 5,423,132 in 1900.

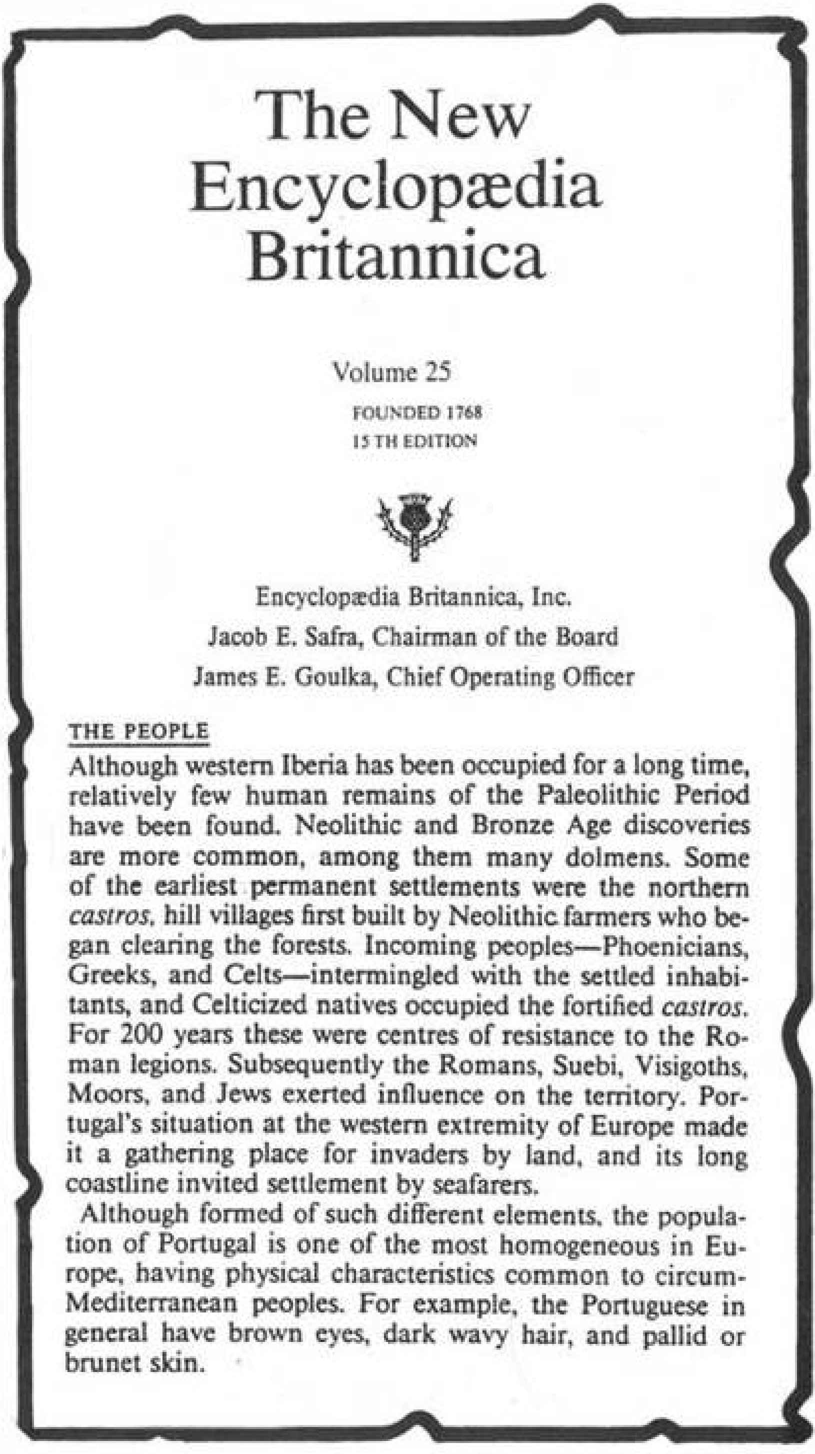
The Portuguese people is composed of many racial elements. Its earliest known ancestors were the Iberians (*q.v.*). The peasantry, especially in the north, are closely akin to the Galician and Asturian Spaniards in character, physique and dialect; and these three ethnical groups—Portuguese of the north, Galicians, Asturians—may perhaps be regarded as the purest representatives of the Spanish stock. The first settlers with whom they intermarried were probably Carthaginians, who were followed in smaller numbers by Greeks; but the attempts which have sometimes been made to ascribe certain attributes of the Portuguese to the influence of these races are altogether fanciful.

Under the tolerant rule of Islam the Portuguese Jews rose to a height of wealth and culture unparalleled in Europe; they intermarried with the Christians both at this period and after their forced conversion by King Emanuel I. (1495–1521). After 1450 yet another ethnical element was introduced into the nation, through the importation of African slaves in vast numbers. Negroid types are common throughout central and southern Portugal. No European race confronted with the problem of an immense coloured population has solved it more successfully than the Portuguese and their kinsmen in Brazil; in both countries intermarriage was freely resorted to, and the offspring of these mixed unions are superior in character and intelligence to most half-breeds.

National Characteristics.—The normal type evolved from this fusion of many races is dark-haired, sallow-skinned, brown-eyed and of low stature.

The second extract is from the 1998, fifteenth edition of *The New*

Encyclopedia Britannica. In the new version, the black racial influence has been completely written out, and the article goes on to state that the Portuguese population is one of the “most homogenous in Europe”—something that is blatantly untrue.



The New Encyclopædia Britannica

Volume 25

FOUNDED 1768
15TH EDITION

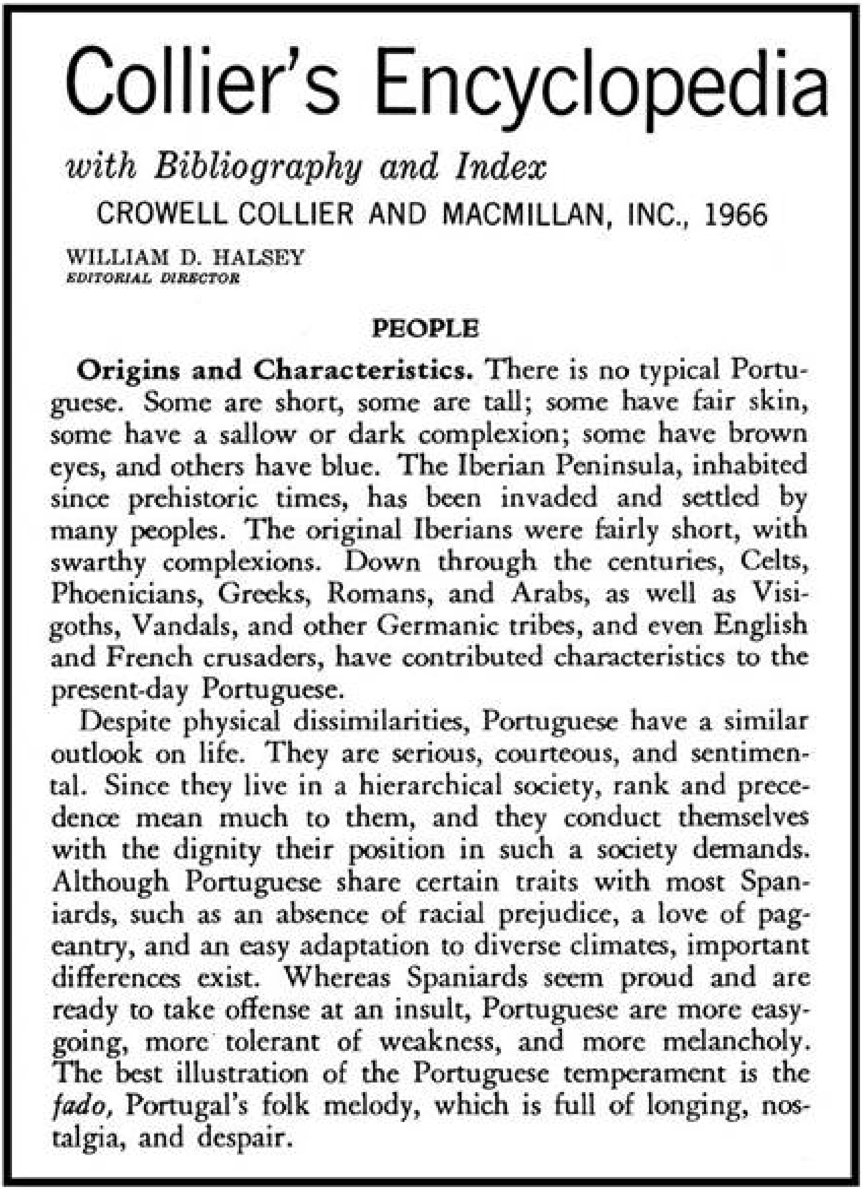
Encyclopædia Britannica, Inc.
Jacob E. Safra, Chairman of the Board
James E. Goulka, Chief Operating Officer

THE PEOPLE

Although western Iberia has been occupied for a long time, relatively few human remains of the Paleolithic Period have been found. Neolithic and Bronze Age discoveries are more common, among them many dolmens. Some of the earliest permanent settlements were the northern *castros*, hill villages first built by Neolithic farmers who began clearing the forests. Incoming peoples—Phoenicians, Greeks, and Celts—intermingled with the settled inhabitants, and Celticized natives occupied the fortified *castros*. For 200 years these were centres of resistance to the Roman legions. Subsequently the Romans, Suebi, Visigoths, Moors, and Jews exerted influence on the territory. Portugal's situation at the western extremity of Europe made it a gathering place for invaders by land, and its long coastline invited settlement by seafarers.

Although formed of such different elements, the population of Portugal is one of the most homogeneous in Europe, having physical characteristics common to circum-Mediterranean peoples. For example, the Portuguese in general have brown eyes, dark wavy hair, and pallid or brunet skin.

The third extract is from the *Collier's Encyclopedia* of 1966, and also ignores the black racial element in the Portuguese population but goes on to state that “there is no typical Portuguese. Some are short, some are tall; some have fair skin; some have a sallow or dark complexion, some have brown eyes, others have blue.” The reader could be forgiven for thinking that both the modern so-called encyclopedias are talking about completely different countries—evidence of not only the deliberate policy of suppressing the truth of race in history, but also of malicious academic fraud.



Collier’s Encyclopedia

with Bibliography and Index

CROWELL COLLIER AND MACMILLAN, INC., 1966

WILLIAM D. HALSEY
EDITORIAL DIRECTOR

PEOPLE

Origins and Characteristics. There is no typical Portuguese. Some are short, some are tall; some have fair skin, some have a sallow or dark complexion; some have brown eyes, and others have blue. The Iberian Peninsula, inhabited since prehistoric times, has been invaded and settled by many peoples. The original Iberians were fairly short, with swarthy complexions. Down through the centuries, Celts, Phoenicians, Greeks, Romans, and Arabs, as well as Visigoths, Vandals, and other Germanic tribes, and even English and French crusaders, have contributed characteristics to the present-day Portuguese.

Despite physical dissimilarities, Portuguese have a similar outlook on life. They are serious, courteous, and sentimental. Since they live in a hierarchical society, rank and precedence mean much to them, and they conduct themselves with the dignity their position in such a society demands. Although Portuguese share certain traits with most Spaniards, such as an absence of racial prejudice, a love of pageantry, and an easy adaptation to diverse climates, important differences exist. Whereas Spaniards seem proud and are ready to take offense at an insult, Portuguese are more easygoing, more tolerant of weakness, and more melancholy. The best illustration of the Portuguese temperament is the *fado,* Portugal’s folk melody, which is full of longing, nostalgia, and despair.

CHAPTER 22: The Third Great Race War—the Moors Invade Europe 711–1492

The invasion of Western Europe by a nonwhite Muslim army after 711 very nearly extinguished Europe. Certainly the threat was no less serious than the Hunnish invasion which had earlier created so much chaos.

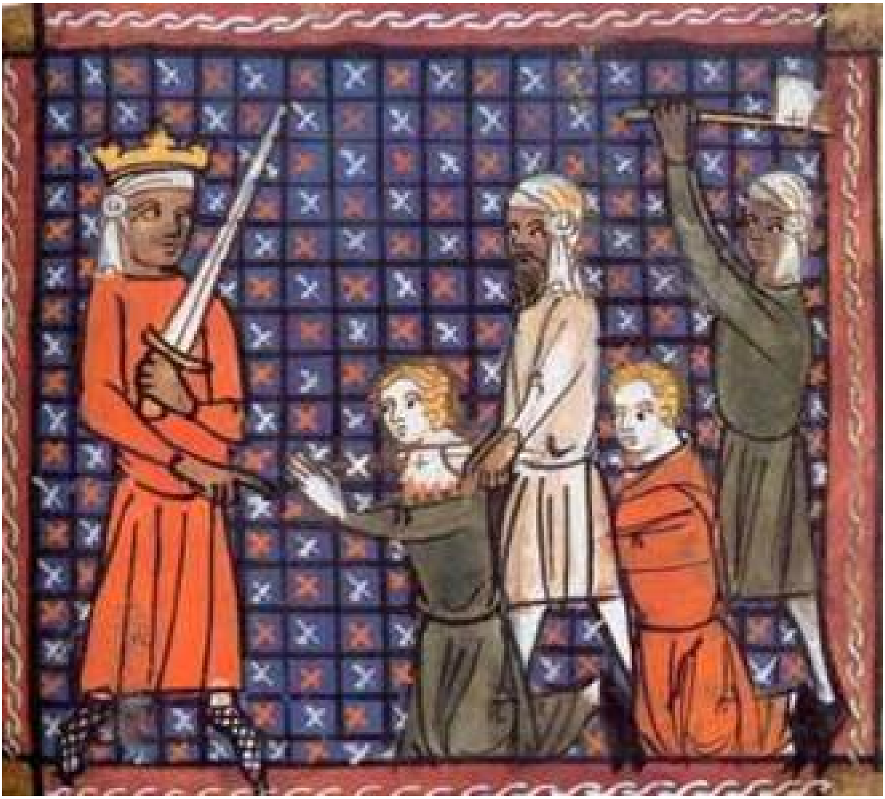
While the Huns were Asiatic, the Moors, also known as the Saracens, were of mixed race—Arabic and black with remnants of European stock which had been on the southern side of the Mediterranean since ancient times. Some of the Moorish leaders even had red hair, genetic leftovers from either the Neolithic past of North Africa, or from the Vandals who had settled in that part of the world during late Roman times.

Together, this mixed group very nearly conquered all of Spain, and were only turned back from occupying all of Western Europe by a desperate white counterattack in France. This race war, lasting seven hundred years, was without doubt one of the most arduous ever fought by the whites in defense of their continent.

White Spain Invaded 711

By 709, the Muslim armies had conquered all of northern Africa and had reached the Strait of Gibraltar. Only the Visigothic fortress of Ceuta, situated on the African side of the strait, remained in white hands. In 711, Ceuta fell to the Moors and soon thereafter a Moorish fleet sailed across the strait and seized a beachhead on Andalusia in Spain, their first territory on the European mainland. The Spanish king Roderic rushed an army south and engaged the Moors in a three day battle at Xeres. The Moors won, and the Spaniards were forced to retreat, giving the Moors time to land a seemingly inexhaustible supply of soldiers from the population wells of North Africa.

SEVEN HUNDRED YEAR RACE WAR IN SPAIN

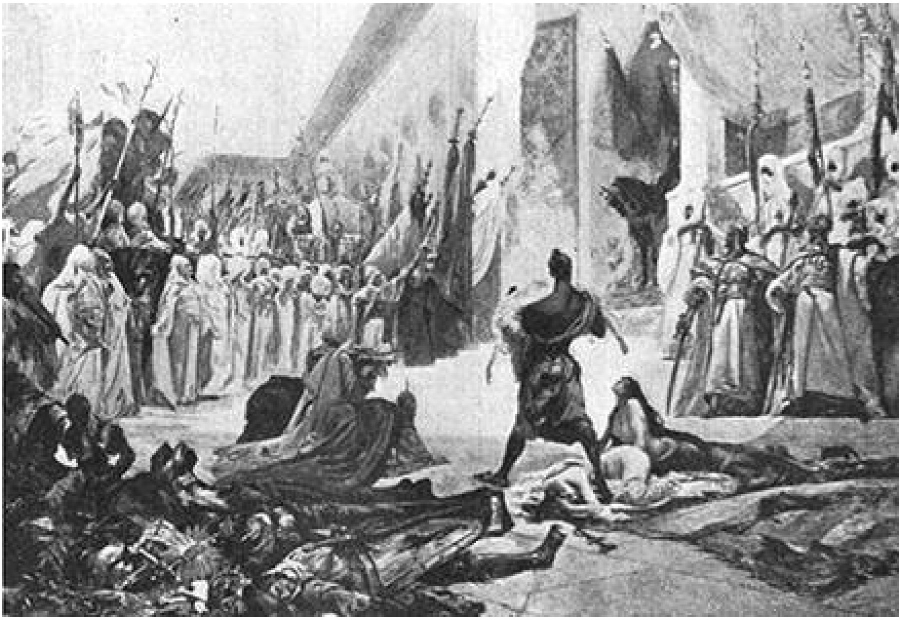


Captured white prisoners about to be decapitated by Saracens. Note how the Spaniards are depicted with blond hair, a reflection of the racial makeup of Spain during this time. From the Les Livres du Graunt Caam.

The Tribute of One Hundred White Virgins per Year

The Moors assembled a massive army and within a few months had conquered most of Spain, with only isolated pockets of white resistance holding out. In the north, an enclave only secured its existence by being forced to enter a treaty with the Moors in terms of which the Spaniards had to hand over one hundred white virgins a year to the Moorish leaders for use in their harems. This painful tribute continued until 791, when the Spaniards felt strong enough to break the terms of the treaty.

ANNUAL TRIBUTE OF YOUNG WHITE VIRGINS TO THE MOORS 711–791



A dramatic painting shows Moors celebrating the fall of a Spanish town, with white females being taken into sex slavery. For several years the Moors demanded—and received—a yearly tribute of young white girls for use in their harems after the great Moorish victory of 711. This yearly tribute continued until 791 when the whites had recovered their strength enough to break the terms of a treaty with the nonwhites.

The Moors Attack France 722 and 732

The Moors did not rest with the conquest of Spain. Their Holy War, or Jihad, forced them ever on, and in 722, they crossed the Pyrenees and invaded Gothic Gaul (France), seizing several towns in the south of that country. Ten years later, in 732, they launched what was to be their final bid to overcome all of Western Europe when a massive army under the command of the Moorish governor of Spain, Abd ar-Rahman, began laying waste to large parts of Frankish and Gothic France.

The Goths in Aquitaine, under their leader Eudes, counterattacked, but were defeated by the Moors at Garonne. The whites were forced back into central France, carrying with them news of the frightful and merciless Moorish invasion.

Charles Martel Saves Europe 732

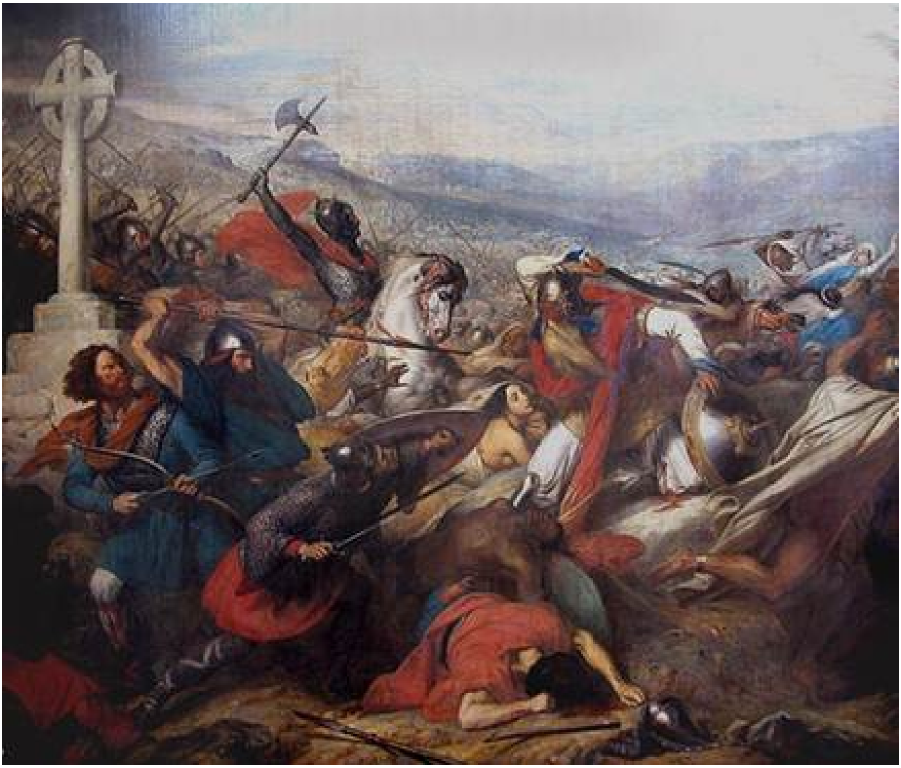
France had, since the fall of the Roman Empire, been consolidated under a leading Celtic tribe called the Franks who were based in the region surrounding present-day Paris. The leading Frankish nobleman at the time of the Moorish invasion, Charles Martel (Charles the Hammer), immediately mobilized a white counterattack. The armies of Charles Martel and Abd ar-Rahman met in battle between the towns of Tours and Poitiers in Central France in October 732. The battle was one of the most momentous in the history of the white race. Defeat would have meant the fall of Western Europe before Islam, with the mixed races of the Middle East pouring into Europe. An epic seven day battle for Europe followed. One medieval account states that 375,000 Moors were killed. Although this was probably an exaggeration, it indicates the outcome of the battle, namely that the nonwhite army was utterly defeated.

In the first six days of the battle, the archers and cavalry of the Moors had the advantage, but on the seventh day the fighting was mainly hand-to-hand combat. Here the greater physical stature of the Europeans gave them the advantage. Charles earned the name “hammer” at this battle in recognition of the mighty and fatal strokes with which he personally killed dozens, if not hundreds, of Moors.

Having failed to break the white lines in the hand-to-hand combat, the Moorish alliance retreated. Here their multiracial and multiethnic origin took its toll upon their cohesion. The Moorish units, comprised of men from Arabia, Africa, and parts of Asia, were stunned by their first major defeat and broke up in disarray, each blaming the other, giving victory to the Franks who never actually pierced the Moorish lines.

The Moors fled south of the Pyrenees back into Spain, and awaited the Frankish drive south which would drive them back into Africa. This blow did not come. Charles Martel had exhausted the wealth of the Frankish empire in drawing together an army big enough to defeat the Moors. He was forced to seize a portion of the Church’s wealth, an act for which that body condemned him strongly, even though if he had failed, Christianity would have been replaced by Islam. Charles Martel’s greatest achievement was the defeat of the Muslim invasion of France. This single act prevented the mixed-race Arabs and North Africans from penetrating Western Europe and turning it into another Middle East. Charles Martel can truly be credited with saving the whites of Western Europe from destruction at that point in history.

CHARLES THE HAMMER MARTEL SAVES EUROPE FROM MOORS
732



The nonwhite Moorish advance into Europe seemed unstoppable when, in 732, they launched a massive invasion of what is today the country of France. The king of the leading white tribe in that country, Charles Martel of the Franks (who had their headquarters in what is now Paris), mobilized a counterattack. A great battle took place between the towns of Tours and Poitiers in central France in October 732. The battle was one of the most momentous in the history of the white race. Defeat would have meant the fall of Western Europe before Islam, with the mixed races of the Middle East pouring into Europe. Accounts have it that 375,000 Moors were killed —the white army was utterly victorious over the nonwhite army and the Moorish invasion of Europe was halted in its tracks. Charles Martel earned his name (Martel means "hammer") at this battle.

Frankish Campaigns against the Moors

In 755, an attack by a Frankish army took the town of Narbonne from the Moors. Six years later, the last Moors were driven out of what is today the country of France. In 778, Charles the Great (also known as Charlemagne, Charles Martel's grandson) undertook a campaign in northern Spain which recaptured much of the territory north of the Ebo River.

It was during the withdrawal of the Frankish army at the successful conclusion of this campaign that a rear guard unit of Franks under the command of Charlemagne's nephew, Roland, was ambushed and slaughtered by the Basques (who opposed the Arabs, Goths, and Franks with equal vigor). The desperate fight to the death became part of French folklore, today reflected in the famous *Chanson de Roland.*

The White Reconquest

During the period of Muslim dominance in Spain, Barcelona and some of the northern regions managed to hold out against the Moors. These principalities finally joined together in a broad anti-Muslim alliance, and began pushing south, slowly but surely driving the Muslims back. During this slow process which took hundreds of years, there was a certain amount of mixing between segments of the white population and the Moorish rulers. This helped create the "dark" Spanish look which can be seen among a significant section of inhabitants of Spain today.

This mixing pro-cess in Spain was not as complete as in the regions of North Africa or the Middle East, and large numbers of whites remained untouched on the European side of the Mediterranean.

However, enough Arabic blood was mixed with some locals in the southernmost parts of Europe, that the distinctive "dark" appearance, which is today mistakenly called the "Mediterranean" look, is the lasting evidence of the Muslim invasion. In July 1212 the Moors were once again decisively beaten at a huge battle on the plains of Toledo. After that, they were restricted to the southern parts of Spain, giving the north time to consolidate, recuperate, and rebuild its strength.

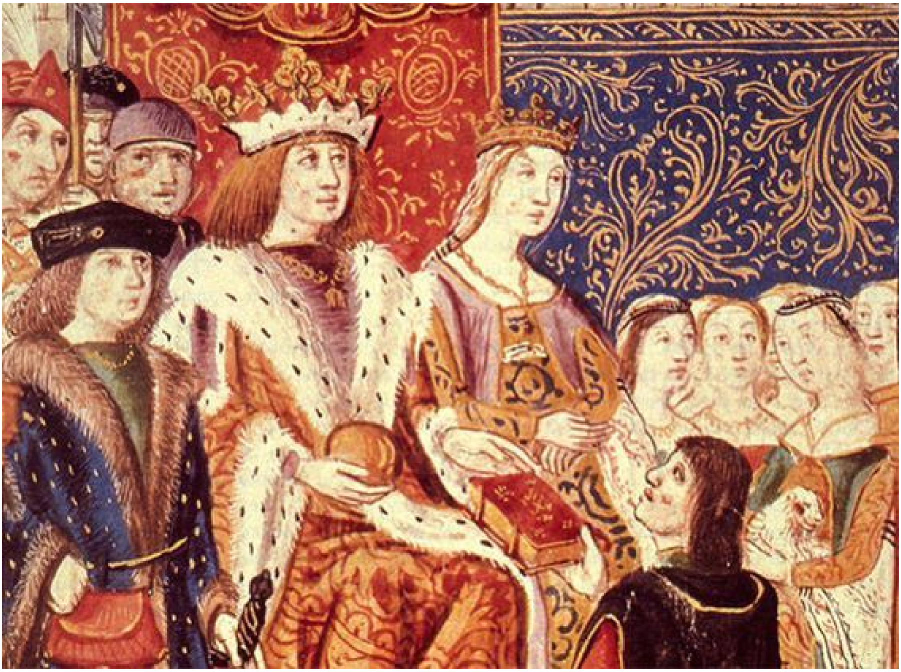
Isabella and Ferdinand

It was only with the rise of two great leaders—the red-haired Isabella I (1451–1504), queen of Castile, and Ferdinand V, king of Aragon, that the Moors were finally driven from Europe. Castile was one of the territories never occupied by the Moors, and Aragon had been liberated in one of the localized wars between the Visigoths and the Moors. Isabella won renown not only for liberating Spain from the last of the Moors, but also for being one of the main sponsors of Christopher Columbus's voyages. She was the product of a marriage between Spanish and Portuguese nobility who had, along with a substantial amount of Spaniards, avoided the mixing caused by centuries of Moorish rule.

In 1469, Isabella married Ferdinand. Due to intertwining royal family connections and personal conquest, he was not only king of Aragon, but also of Sicily (1468–1516) and Naples (1504–1516). When Isabella's brother died, she and her husband jointly succeeded (1474) to the throne of Castile. She was twenty-three years old. No sooner had she become queen of Castile than her kingdom was invaded by Alfonso V, king of Portugal, who was hoping to capitalize upon the weakness of the Spaniards in the confusion following the Moorish invasion.

Castile was very nearly overrun, and it was only with a near superhuman effort that Isabella and Ferdinand were able to raise a strong enough army to defeat Alfonso in 1475. With the Portuguese threat settled, Isabella and Ferdinand then turned their attention to their real enemy—the Moors.

FERDINAND AND ISABELLA SAVE SPAIN



The red-haired Goths, Ferdinand and Isabella, painted here at the time of their wedding, drove the last of the nonwhite Muslims out of Spain, expelled that country's Jews, and started the exploration of America by financing Christopher Columbus, all in the year 1492.

Muslims Invade Other Parts of Europe

In the interim, the Muslims were renewing their assault on

Europe. In 1479, Mohammed II, the Grand Turk, attacked the Island of Rhodes off the coast of Greece, only being repulsed by a white counterinvasion under the Knights of St. John in 1480. Undeterred, Mohammed II then invaded Italy, seizing the city of Otranto in the Kingdom of Naples.

Of the twenty-two thousand inhabitants the Muslims captured, twelve thousand were bound with ropes and tortured to death outside the city walls.

The Muslims also killed all the Christian priests they could find. On a hill outside the city, known to this day as Martyr's Hill, they killed many captives who refused to convert to Islam. Their bones can be seen in the town's cathedral to this day.

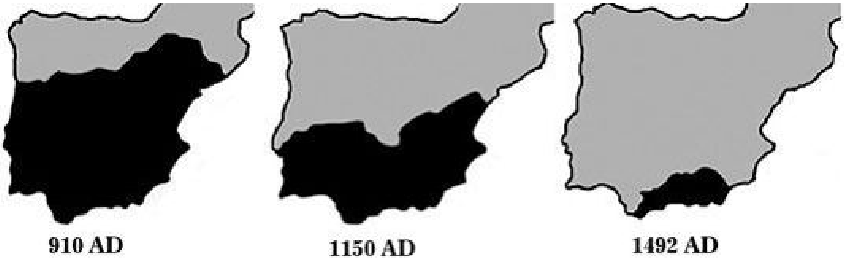
The Granada War—Isabella Sells Her Jewelry 1482–1492

It was not long before the Muslims counterattacked in Spain. On December 25, 1482, the Muslims from Granada seized the town of Zahara, only fifteen miles from Seville, launching what became known in Spanish history as the "The Granada War."

Isabella and Ferdinand then used a substantial amount of the money and riches they had confiscated from Spain's Jewish population (many of whom had pretended conversion to Christianity in order to avoid rising anti-Jewish feeling resulting from the Moorish occupation) and bought large quantities of new cannons and weapons from France, Germany, and Northern Italy.

Even this was not enough. Finally Isabella sold all of her own royal and personal gold, silver, pearls, and jewels, to raise money for the liberation of her country from the nonwhites. Supported by the new armaments obtained from elsewhere in Europe, Isabella and Ferdinand waged a demanding and extremely costly war—in terms of lives and material—to drive the Moors out of Europe once and for all.

THE SIX HUNDRED YEAR WHITE RECONQUEST OF SPAIN AND PORTUGAL



It took nearly six hundred years for the whites to drive the Moors out of Spain and Portugal. The dark areas show the extent of the nonwhite Moorish-held lands each year, and serve as an indication of exactly how long the Moors ruled in Spain.

The reconquest of Spain from the Moors started with the seizure of Alhama in 1482, here described by an eyewitness, the Castilian Diego of Valera: "While Count Rodrigo Ponce of Leon, Marquis of Cadiz, was in Marchena, several leaders came to him and they said that, if the Marquis wanted, they could tell him of a way in which the city of Alhama could be taken without any risk . . . this was because the Moors took their safety for granted, as their city was so strong and situated so deep within their kingdom, on top of a high summit, completely surrounded by a river and accessible only by a single route up a very rough and steep hill.

"Before dawn, on Tuesday, February 10, 1482, the Marquis' troops arrived outside the city of Alhama. Those who carried the scaling equipment quietly set it up. They were not seen until they were well inside the city. As daylight was breaking, a commotion arose and the Christians who lived in the city, as well as the other inhabitants, came running.

"When the Moors heard this . . . they gathered in the square and divided up among the men all the places from which they could best defend their walls. The Marquis of Cadiz and the other knights entered the city through the back gate in order to force the Moors to come out to fight. As the street was very narrow it did not allow for more than two men abreast to go through the gate, while the square where the Moors stood was very wide.

"So when the Marquis' men entered the square the Moors killed them as they came in two by two, and began to shoot so many cannon and arrows and stones that no one else dared to enter through the narrow street.

"Although the Christians received many blows in the narrow alleyways, they finally, by the grace of our Lord, drove the Moors fleeing from the square down towards the gates to Granada: there stood a mosque, very secure, where the Moors were surrounded; many were left dead or wounded.

“Then the Marquis of Cadiz ordered that the city gates be opened; his men entered killing and taking prisoner any enemies they found. They took many Moors . . . one soldier took thirty heads . . .

“The Moors stayed in the mosque all day on Wednesday, defending it bravely. They were still there on Thursday, so the Marquis ordered his men to set fire to it.

“So many Moors were hurt that finally out of fear they told the Marquis that they would do as he wished; the Marquis then divided them up among his knights (as prisoners).

“On the morning of the following day, February 13, 1482, the Muslim king of Granada, Abul Hassan, arrived near Alhama with a powerful army, seven thousand on horseback and one hundred thousand on foot and surrounded the city.

“The siege lasted several days, and since it took place during Lent, the Christians ate nothing but boiled wheat, chick-peas, and beans.

“When the Moors saw that the Christians were not weakening, they worked to redirect the water supply away from the city; a few times the Marquis waded into the water up to his knees to cut down and burn the barricades the Moors had set up.

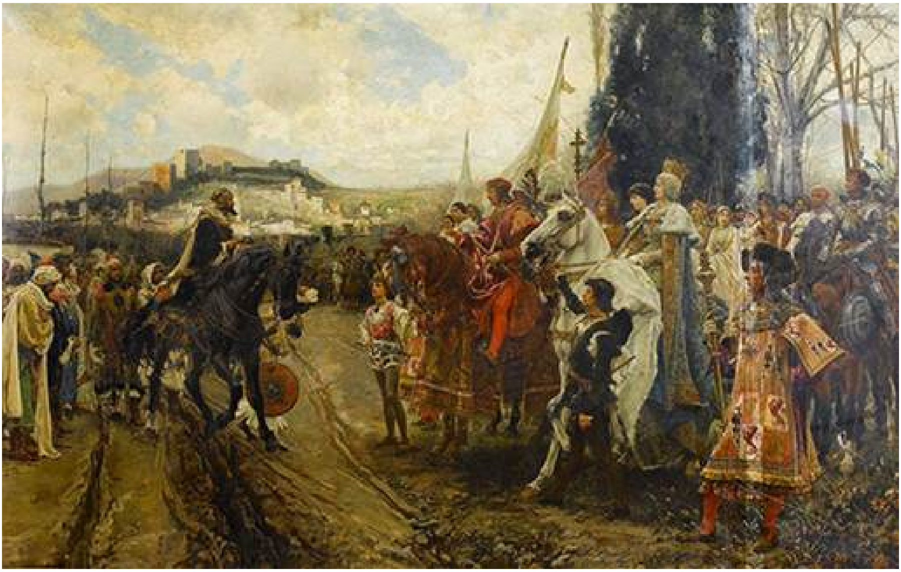
“When the Moors saw the great effort of the Christians to defend the city, they decided to break camp (giving the Marquis the city).”

Between 1483 and 1486, the Spanish drove the Moors out of the western half of the kingdom of Granada. With the capture of the city of Malaga in 1487, followed in quick succession by the fall of the towns of Baza, Almeria, and Gaudix in campaigns during 1488 to 1489, the white noose tightened round the last nonwhite stronghold—the citadel of Granada.

European Turning Point—the Fall of Granada

The white armies gathered their strength for one last mighty push against the Moors. Isabella hired, at her own expense, forty thousand mules to carry the provisions needed by the army which she and Ferdinand had gathered together. At last, by July 1491, the great army stood outside the gates of the city of Granada. The Moors took refuge in the fort known as the Alhambra. Outside, Ferdinand and Isabella personally took command of the siege army. July, August, September, October, November, and December passed. The besieged Moors became desperate; their food supplies ran low and disease spread within the closed walls. Finally on December 30, 1491, the Moorish king, Abu Abd-Allah, opened negotiations for surrender.

GRANADA SURRENDERS—MOORS DRIVEN FROM SPAIN 1492



Monday, January 2, 1492: The last nonwhite stronghold in Spain, the citadel of Granada, surrenders to the victorious white army, led personally by King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. It was the first time in 770 years that all of Spain was once again under white control.

The final surrender was recorded by an eyewitness, the priest Bernaldez, who was the chaplain of the archbishop of Seville: “On Monday, January 2, (1492) they (Isabella and Ferdinand) left the camp with their army duly drawn up. As they came near to the Alhambra, Abu Abd-Allah rode out, accompanied by many of his knights, with the keys of the city in his hand. He tried to dismount in order to kiss the king’s hand, but the king would not allow it. The Moor kissed Ferdinand on the arm and gave him the keys, saying, ‘Take the keys of your city, for I, and the men who are within, are your vassals.’ King Ferdinand took the keys and gave them to the queen . . .”

The surrender of Granada in 1492 was the first time in 770 years that white rule was reestablished over all of Spain. It was a victory which was celebrated all over Europe, as it marked a true turning point in European history.

Further Campaigns against the Muslims

Shortly after the fall of Granada, Ferdinand became involved in an internal dispute in Italy. He went there with a large force and conquered the Republic of Venice in 1508. This army went on to conquer Oran and Tripoli on the North African coast, taking them from the Moors in 1509. Finally Ferdinand annexed the kingdom of Navarre in 1512. These conquests extended the borders of Spain to the Strait of Gibraltar, a border it has kept to this day.

However, this was not the end of Spanish wars against Islam. In 1535, the Spanish king Charles V mounted expeditions against Muslim held Tunis and Algiers in 1541, preventing another incipient Muslim invasion of Europe from North Africa. In 1571, Spain played a leading role in putting together a powerful white navy which defeated the nonwhite Ottoman navy at the Battle of Lepanto, permanently weakening Turkish maritime power.

MOORS MASSACRE CHRISTIANS AT OTRANTO 1480

In 1480, a Muslim army under Mohammed II seized the city of Otranto in *southern Italy. Of the twenty-two thousand inhabitants captured by the Muslims, twelve thousand were bound with ropes and tortured to death outside the city walls. The Muslims also killed all the Christian priests they could find. On a hill outside the city, still known as Martyr's Hill, they beheaded at least eight hundred city folk who refused to convert to Islam, including the town's bishop. It took a year before the Muslim invaders were driven out of Otranto, and when the Christian liberators found the beheaded bodies on the hill outside the town, they entombed the skeletons behind glass walls in the town cathedral, where they can still be seen to this day.*

Expulsion of 250,000 Mixed-Race Moors

Finally in 1609, the Spanish king Philip III ordered the physical expulsion of some 250,000 "Moriscos" or Christianized Moors from southern Spain. The Moriscos were of mixed white/Moorish ancestry. This ensured that the racial damage to Spain—in terms of mixed-race element population growth—was not as serious as it could have been.

The Expulsion of the Jews 1492

The Spanish Jews were among the first to feel the full effects of the Moors' fall from power in Spain. In 1492 Isabella and Ferdinand formally expelled all Jews from that country, punishing the Spanish Jews for having actively collaborated with the Moors during their 780 year occupation. The Moors, because of their common Semitic ancestry and the poor relations between the Jews and the Goths, had employed several Spanish Jews in some of the highest posts in the administration of Spain.

The Spanish were enraged to learn that in the city of Granada the Moorish king's prime minister and most of his leading advisors were Jews. A massacre of Jews in the city followed that discovery. This alliance between a number of Spanish Jews and the Moors inflamed the anti-Semitic feeling among the Spaniards even further, a sentiment which would later flare up in the form of the Spanish Inquisition.

When Spain was finally liberated from the nonwhite Moors, the long suppressed anti-Jewish sentiment broke out in full fury. In that year all unbaptized Jews were expelled en masse from Spain, and the infamous Spanish Inquisition, set up to enforce Christendom, was used to persecute Jews, who, because of their collaboration with the Moors, were regarded as the implacable enemies of Spain.

Earlier Isabella had obtained from the pope in Rome a dispensation to establish the Inquisition in Spain, which soon turned into a fully-fledged anti-Jewish campaign under the name of Christianity. The first hearings against the Conversos were held in February 1481 in Castile, and coincided with an outbreak of the "Black Plague" (bubonic plague). Many fanatics linked the outbreak of the plague to the start of proceedings against the Conversos, and the Jews were blamed for the plague as well. An accusation with a more factual basis was that a group of Jews had betrayed the city of Toledo to the invading Moors by opening the gates at a crucial junction in the siege of that city.

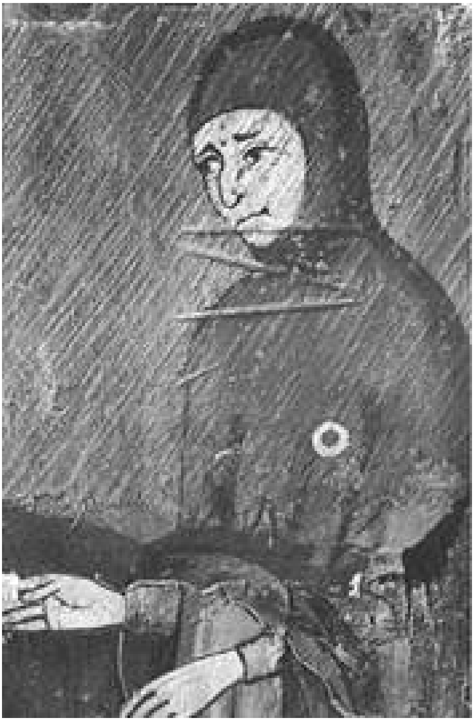
Jewish Uprising Squashed

The leading Conversos held a secret meeting to resist the Inquisition with force. Isabella's spies found out about the planned rebellion and arrested the ringleaders, most prominent among them a rabbi named Diego de Susan. He and six other Jews were tried for subversion, found guilty, and were executed by burning at the stake in late 1481. The Conversos then broke rank in panic and fled Spain in large numbers. Some went to Italy, but many others went to Muslim-held Turkey, where they once again enjoyed special status. Much property belonging to the Converso Jews—who by some estimates made up as much as 20 percent of Spain's pre-Inquisition population—was seized by the Spanish government.

Spain's Golden Age Follows Moorish Expulsion

After the expulsion of the Moors and the Jews, Spain entered its Golden Age. It created a huge empire, and along with Portugal, became one of the most powerful nations in Europe. The liberation of Spain had saved Western Europe from Islamic domination.

JEWS IN MOORISH GOVERNMENT



A Jew pictured on a thirteenth century European manuscript. He is wearing a circle badge, in terms of a papal law intended to mark out Jews in medieval society. The rise in anti-Jewish sentiment in Europe was fueled by the participation of large numbers of Jews in the Moorish government of occupied Spain. (The Star of David was only adopted by the Zionist movement as a Jewish symbol in the late nineteenth century.)

CHAPTER 23: The Nordic Reservoir—Scandinavia

Scandinavia became one of the very first settled areas for the Indo-European tribes in Europe, so that the scientific name for their racial type, Nordic, came to be associated with the region itself, hence the oft used term "Nordic countries."

The history of the Scandinavian countries: Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland are intertwined, while in the latter country's case, war with Russia dominated its history for a millennium.

The ability of these Nordic countries to survive the trepidations to which they were subjected once again destroys the "environmental" theory of the creation and longevity of civilizations, with plagues, warfare, and economic turmoil all failing to destroy them.

In addition, the remarkable technological and scientific advancements which have come out of those countries, in spite of severe adverse climatic conditions, proves that it is not environment which creates a culture, but rather the people themselves.

There have been three major contributions of the Scandinavian region to white history. First, in ancient times, the Germans swept south into Germany out of the reservoir of Indo-European peoples in the north. Then, in the period following the fall of the Roman Empire, the Vikings swept through Europe, colonizing England and parts of the Continent.

Finally, in the nineteenth century, waves of Scandinavians settled large parts of what became the United States of America.

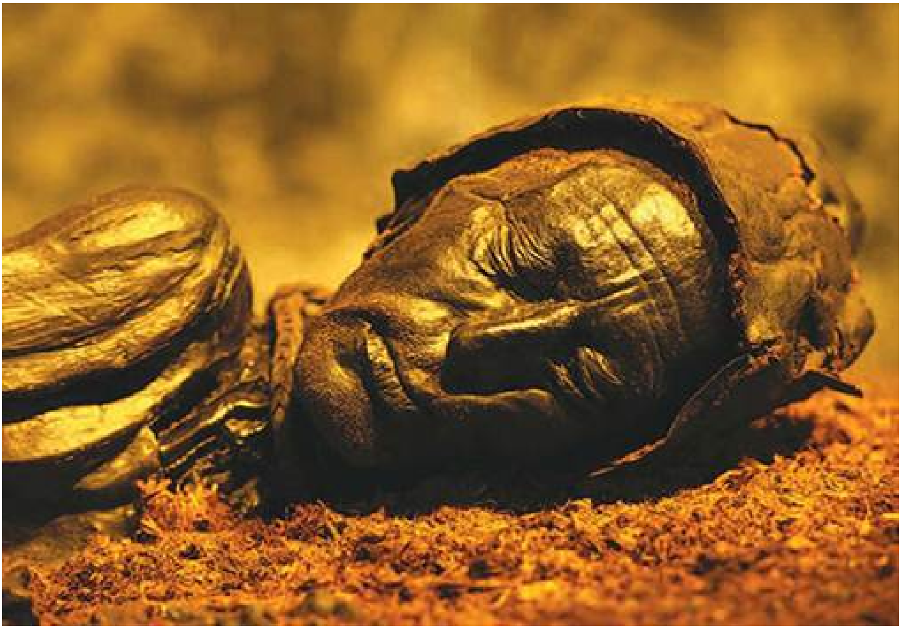
For these reasons alone, an overview of the Scandinavian countries is crucial to an understanding of European history. The Vikings deserve special mention by themselves, and are dealt with in the next chapter.

DENMARK

Denmark has some of the finest megalith and other Stone Age structures in Northern Europe outside of Stonehenge, indicators of an advanced early Neolithic civilization many thousands of years old. This society continued uninterrupted until the arrival of the Indo-European invaders around 2000 BC. These people ushered in the Iron Age across Scandinavia, leading to permanent towns and settlements.

Some of the most impressive ancient structures in Denmark can be seen across the neck of Jutland now called the Danevirke. There, a canal, a long bridge, and huge ramparts nearly a thousand years old are still in existence, and are indicative of a technologically astute people existing long before the Dark Ages of Europe.

TOLLUND MAN 2500-YEAR-OLD DANE



Tollund Man—a body recovered from a Danish bog, dating from about 500 BC. Finely preserved by burial in peat, the face shows well the Nordic racial physiognomy of the early Indo-European settlers of the region.

Danish Invasion of England

Within one hundred years of the first Danish Viking raids on England, enough Danes had settled in the northern part of that land to ensure that a large region fell under their rule.

This sparked off a long running conflict with the Britons, who had been without Roman protection for over 350 years. The Danish king Sweyn I finally conquered all of England in the year 1013. His son, Canute II, who ruled England from 1016 to 1035, was the character who allegorically tried to hold back the sea.

GUNDESTRUP CAULDRON 2,100-YEAR-OLD SILVERWARE

A silver cauldron recovered from Gundestrup, North Jutland, Denmark, from the year 100 BC. The panels round the cauldron are molded with relief half-length figures of Celtic gods and goddesses. This exquisite example of early Scandinavian artwork is also a marvelous presentation of early racial types in the region.

Christianity Spreads to Denmark

Under King Harold Bluetooth in the tenth century, the Christianization of the Danes was started. This process was completed by Canute II before the end of his reign in 1035. As was the case with many of the first Christians, the new religion was spread more by fear than by actual genuine conversion. After a generation or two of forced conversion, the religion became established.

Danish Empire Includes Baltic Coastline

During the late twelfth and early thirteenth centuries, the Danes expanded to the east, conquered their racial cousins, the Balts, and settled the greater part of the southern coastal areas of the Baltic Sea, establishing an empire twice the size of Denmark.

First with Constitutional Reforms 1282

The Scandinavian countries were the first European nations to start constitutional reforms toward a more representative form of government. They have long been regarded as among the most enlightened governments in the world. In 1282, the Danish king, Eric V, signed a charter making the Danish crown subordinate to law with an assembly of lords, called the Danehof, forming an important part of the administration of the country. Although by modern standards this hardly meant democracy, for thirteenth century Europe, it was revolutionary.

DANES AND SWEDES SLAIN AT WISBY 1361

A burial pit containing a mangle of Swedish skeletons slaughtered in the Battle of Wisby, 1361, fought between Danes and Swedish mercenaries. Many of the skulls show head wounds inflicted by arrows penetrating their chain mail helmets—an indication that only the strongest metal headgear could withstand a direct hit from an accurate bowman.

Union with Norway 1380, Sweden 1387

In 1380, Denmark and Norway were joined under one king, Olaf II. After his early death in 1387, his mother, Margaret I, created and ruled the Union of Kalmar, which consisted of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The addition of Norway to the union meant that Iceland and the Faroe Islands—discovered and settled by Viking adventurers—fell under Danish control.

From the time of the first union with Denmark, a number of Swedish aristocrats worked ceaselessly for greater independence for Sweden, something which was finally achieved with the breaking of the union in 1523. That year proved particularly traumatic for Denmark: not only was the Danish king, Christian II, driven from the throne, but the country was subjected to a large amount of interference from some north German towns, primarily the city of Lubeck. With help from the newly independent Swedes, the Danes drove the Germans out and reestablished their own king, Christian III. During his reign (1534–1559) Denmark quite peaceably became a Protestant nation. The inter-Christian Wars which destroyed Germany did not badly affect Denmark, despite Christian III's active participation in the Thirty Years' War on the side of the Protestants against the Catholics.

Scandinavian Wars—Danish Possessions Lost

The Scandinavians did not always live in peace and harmony with each other. The Seven Years' War (1563–1570) and the War of Kalmar (1611–1613) were both fought between Denmark and Sweden, mainly over commercial and related political rivalry in the region. Neither of these wars exacted massive tolls from the belligerents, and they ended with Denmark abdicating control of all its Baltic Sea possessions except for Norway.

The Danish defeat after the War of Kalmar caused the country to lose some major markets to Sweden and the nobility, who in terms of the early constitution, formed the administrative corps in Denmark.

In 1660, the Danish king, Frederick III, with the support of the merchant and middle classes, led a coup against the aristocratic Council of the Realm, resulting in the establishment of a hereditary and absolute monarchy in 1661. More importantly, commoners replaced nobles in the administrative structure.

Colonial Expansion into Greenland—Eleventh and Eighteenth Centuries

Greenland was originally colonized by Icelanders and

Norwegians in the eleventh century. The settlements were relatively small and far-flung, and as a result, contact with the settlers was lost during the fifteenth century. During the eighteenth century, the Danes, driven by commercial interests and a desire to convert the local nonwhites of Greenland, the Inuits, to Christianity, resettled the landmass. Greenland remains part of Denmark to this day.

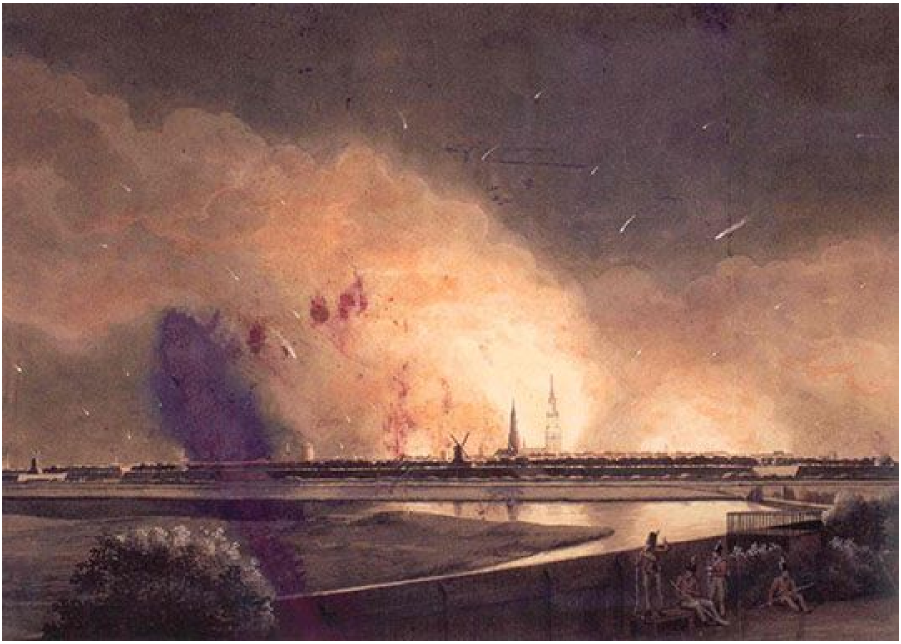
Trading companies were also established in the West Indies, where Denmark acquired several islands, including the Virgin Islands.

Danish Emigration to American Midwest

Large numbers of Danes—hundreds of thousands—immigrated to the new lands in America. Whole swathes of the Midwest of America were settled by hardy Danes, other Scandinavians, and Germans, groups who would form the core of the American Midwest farming communities.

British Navy Bombards Copenhagen

During the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark became involved in the conflict after attempts to blockade the port of Copenhagen (to prevent trading with France) led to the British twice bombarding Copenhagen, in 1801 and 1807.



The bombardment of Copenhagen by the British in 1807.

The English navy also successfully destroyed the Danish navy in a few short encounters. Because of these events, Denmark made the bad choice to side with Napoleon. When the wars ended in 1814 with its defeat, Denmark was forced to cede Helgoland to the British and Norway to Sweden.

Constitutional Monarchy 1849

When the liberal revolutions of 1840 spread across Europe, the Danish king acceded to many of the demands to prevent revolution in his country. In 1849, a new constitution was introduced in terms of which Denmark became a constitutional monarchy with a two chamber parliament.

On February 1, 1864, war broke out when Prussian forces crossed the border into Schleswig. The war ended on October 30, 1864 with the Treaty of Vienna (1864). Under terms of the treaty, Denmark lost the last of its European continental possessions. The German states of Schleswig-Holstein, which were hereditary titles held by the king of Denmark, were taken by Prussia and its ally, Austria. Thereafter, Denmark settled down to a period of prosperity and peace, with a new constitution introduced in 1901 which carried all the hallmarks of a modern democracy.

Danish Neutrality in World War I

Wisely remaining neutral during the First World War (1914–1918), Denmark avoided the great loss of life which other continental European countries such as France, Russia, and Germany suffered.

During the war, Denmark sold its West Indian island colony, the Virgin Islands, to the United States of America. In addition, the country of Iceland, also a Danish possession, was granted self rule. Full independence for Iceland would only be granted in 1994. One year after the war ended, the region of North Schleswig was incorporated into Denmark as a result of a plebiscite carried out in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Versailles. South Schleswig voted to remain in Germany.

Benevolent German Invasion in World War II

Denmark also tried to stay out of World War II, but was overrun in April 1940 by the Germans, who passed through the country in their haste to invade Norway. Germany did not treat Denmark as a belligerent country, and allowed the vast majority of the country's legal and domestic administration to carry on as before the

German invasion.

German troops march through Copenhagen.

The German occupiers of Denmark were never militarily challenged; they were ordered to surrender at the time of the conclusion of the war in Europe.

Britain occupied the Faroe Islands, and in 1941 the United States established a temporary protectorate over Greenland, which was returned to Danish rule after the end of the war. Greenland was granted home rule by the Danes in 1979.

Considerable Twentieth Century Nonwhite Influx

Along with her Scandinavian neighbors, Denmark became the focus for substantial amounts of nonwhite immigration in the last quarter of the twentieth century. This development and its implications are discussed later in this work.

SWEDEN

Sweden had, like the rest of Scandinavia, became an Indo-European Nordic heartland soon after those tribes had entered Europe during their great migrations. The Indo-Europeans had found proto-Nordic types already living there, and soon absorbed these peoples, leaving only scattered traces of this original group.

IRON AGE STONE FORTS IN SCANDINAVIA

Left: On the Swedish island of Oland are the remains of sixteen ancient Scandinavian stone built forts. These forts had space for living quarters, storage facilities, and livestock—evidently they must have been prepared for the occasional siege. Right: A reconstruction of a similar site in Denmark.

Viking Colonies in Russia and Eastern Europe

The Swedes were to produce their own set of feared Vikings, who from around 800 onward, established major colonies in what became Russia (the Scandinavian tribe called the Rus gave their name to that country) and other regions in eastern Europe. This played a major role in populating vast regions of eastern European with Nordic racial types.

Christianity Introduced 850

By 850, the first Christian Frankish missionaries had arrived in Sweden to convert the pagan Swedes to Christianity. They achieved some success with the conversion of the Swedish king Olaf, and slowly the religion filtered down, displacing the long established Odinism which was the original religion of the Scandinavians.

During the reign of Eric IX, from 1150 to 1160, the newly Christianized Swedes invaded Finland and forced Christianity onto its stubbornly pagan tribes.

The Swedes then ruled Finland for two centuries. Eric died in a Christian setting: he was assassinated by a Danish claimant to his throne while he was attending mass. He was later deified by the church and made patron saint of Sweden.

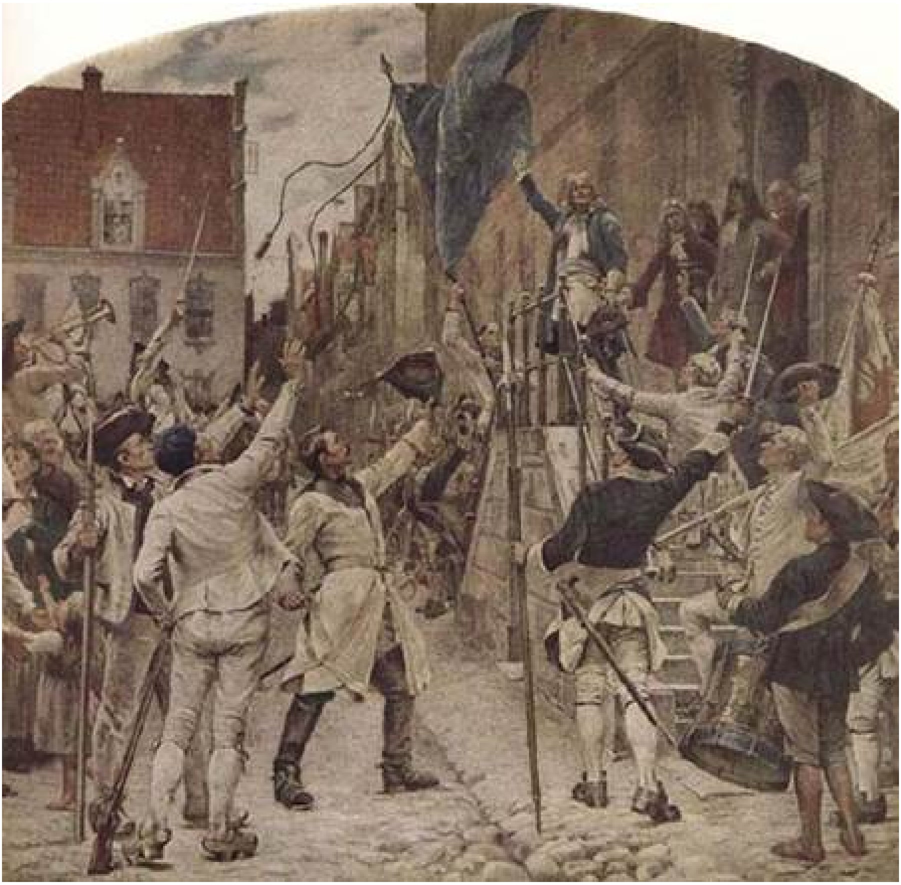
Union of Kalmar under Danish Rule 1397

By 1389, Swedish nobles had forced the reigning king to renounce his throne and unify the country with Denmark. Sweden then joined the Union of Kalmar, which was ruled by Margaret of Denmark.

The Danes and the Swedes did not coexist well: continual skirmishes, mostly of a minor nature, continued throughout the existence of the Union of Kalmar. In 1520, when it became clear that a rebellion was brewing in Sweden, King Christian II invaded it and had many of his opponents executed.

The large number of executions provoked an uprising: in 1521, a rebellion led by Gustav Vasa succeeded and the Union of Kalmar was broken, although Denmark retained the southern part of Sweden. Vasa became king of the Swedes in 1523 as Gustav I and the country officially converted to Protestantism during the 1520s.

SWEDES CAPTURE MALMO BUT ARE DEFEATED BY 1709 RUSSIAN–DANISH COALITION



The capture of the town of Malmo by Count Magnus Stenbock. The distinguished Swedish general, Count Magnus Stenbock, took part in the earlier campaigns of the Swedish king Charles XII, and was instrumental in many of the victories, such as this one in 1709 where the Swedes captured *the city of Malmo. The Swedes had, however, overreached themselves—they could not indefinitely hold off the Russians. A coalition consisting of Russians, Danes, and Saxons beat the Swedes that same year and Stenbock died as a prisoner of war in a Danish prison.*

A series of wars and minor conquests saw Sweden steadily expand its territorial size. The Reval district of Estonia voluntarily put itself under Swedish protection in 1561, and in 1582, all of Estonia was added to the Swedish crown after a local Baltic war with Poland.

Sweden’s expansion reached its height under Gustav II Adolf, who is still considered by many Swedes to be their greatest king. After fighting a war with Russia which ended in 1617, he obtained the lands of eastern Karelia and Ingria.

Next was a war with Poland from 1621 to 1629, after which Sweden annexed all of Livonia. In 1630, Gustav entered the Christian Thirty Years’ War on the side of the German Protestants. He died in battle while leading a charge in 1632, and was succeeded by his daughter, Christina. When the Thirty Years’ War ended in 1648, Sweden acquired further territories in the Baltic, making it the foremost power in that region.

Wars with Poland and Denmark

The next Swedish king, Charles X Gustav, launched a series of wars with Poland (1655 to 1660) which saw that latter nation overrun by the Swedes, forcing the Poles to accept as final the annexation of the territory of Livonia.

Charles X also invaded Denmark twice in 1658, resulting in the expulsion of the Danes from southern Sweden. The next Swedish king, Charles XI, made Sweden an ally of France in the wars of the late seventeenth century on the Continent. As a result the Swedes were beaten by a German army from the state of Brandenburg in 1675.

The Great Northern War 1700–1721

The very next Swedish king, Charles XII, at the age of fifteen, led his country to war against a coalition consisting of Russia, Poland, and Denmark in 1700, in the first phase of what became know as the Great Northern War, which was to last for twenty-one years.

The Swedes, under Charles XII, successfully invaded northwestern Russia and decisively defeated the Poles in 1706. Sweden could not, however, indefinitely hold off the Russians, and by

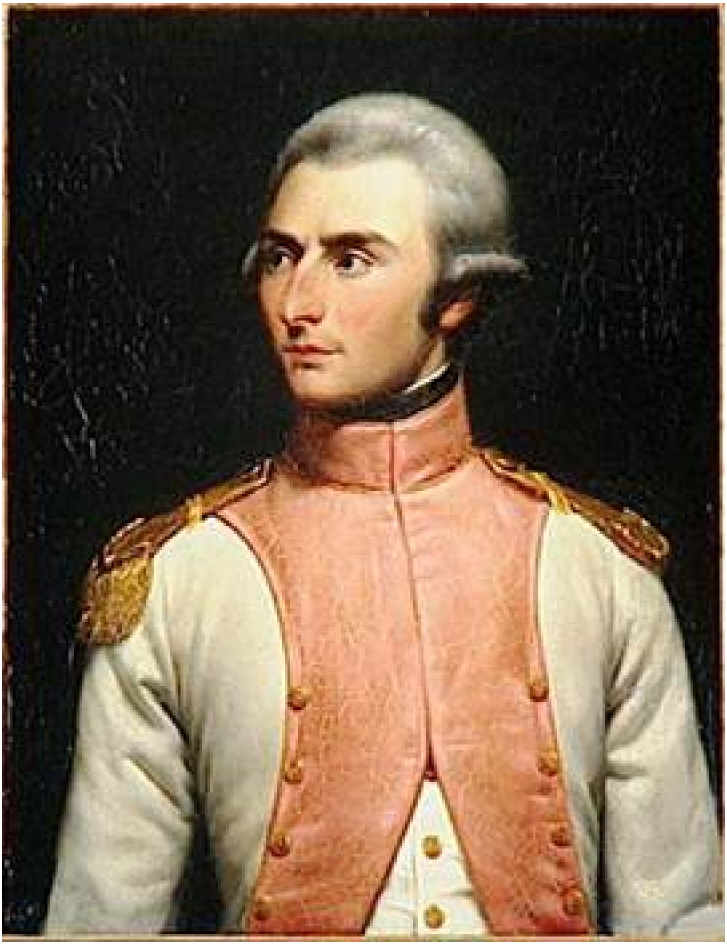
1709 had been routed by Tsar Peter the Great.

This defeat marked the replacement of Sweden by Russia as the dominant power in the Baltic region—ironic when it is considered that Russia had been founded by Scandinavian tribes in the first place. Through the treaties of Stockholm and Nystad in 1721, Sweden lost much of its German territory and ceded Livonia, Estonia, Ingria, part of Karelia, and several important Baltic islands to Russia.

Napoleonic Wars Lead to French King

Sweden joined the Third Coalition (1805) against Napoleon, an alliance which fell apart after Russia deserted and invaded Finland, forcing Sweden to cede most of that country.

The Swedish king of the time, Charles XIII, was childless, and the Swedish parliament, the Riksdag, chose Marshal Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's generals, as the crown prince in an attempt to placate Napoleon. The marshal duly became king and established the Bernadotte Dynasty, a royal house which Sweden has kept to this day. Bernadotte withdrew his allegiance from Napoleon and Sweden fought against France in 1813 and 1814.



The French Field Marshall who became king of Sweden: Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte.

In terms of the settlement following the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Denmark was forced to cede Norway to Sweden. Norway was then ruled by Sweden until 1905, when it declared itself independent, with Sweden's assent.

Five Hundred Thousand Swedes Emigrate to the New World

Despite a benevolent rule under the Bernadottes which saw many constitutional reforms, between 1867 and 1886, nearly half a million Swedes emigrated to America in search of greater liberty and the promise of farming land in the American Midwest.

Neutrality in World Wars I and II

Sweden retained a strict policy of neutrality right through the major conflicts of the twentieth century, refusing to be drawn into the First or Second World Wars or the Cold War between the Soviet Union and the United States of America.

This image of neutrality was tarnished somewhat by a leftward lurch in Swedish politics in the 1960s; opposition to the Vietnam War saw Sweden offering political asylum to many young Americans opposed to the war.

Twentieth Century Nonwhite Immigration

Sweden started allowing significant numbers of nonwhites into its borders during the last quarter of the twentieth century. These changes and their implications are discussed later in this work.

NORWAY

Norway contains some of the oldest white settlement sites in Scandinavia. Traces of late Paleolithic settlements dating from 14,000 BC, have been discovered in this region. The Indo-European invasions of centuries later caused the country to be dominated by Nordic racial types, who along with the proto-Nordics already present in the region, created the “typical Norwegian” blue-eyed and blond look. By the year 700, some twenty-nine separate tribal kingdoms existed in Norway, with the physical geography of mountains, fjords, and rivers encouraging territorial division among the tribes.

Vikings Raid Europe and Discover Greenland and America 750

The proximity of the sea also encouraged sailing. Around 750, Viking raiders emerged from Norway and spread out all over northern Europe, raiding and settling Ireland, Britain, and Iceland, and the Orkney, Faroe, and Shetland islands. Further expeditions were undertaken which led to the discovery of Greenland and North America.

Equally important, bands of Vikings sailed up the major rivers in what was to become Russia, playing a major role in creating that country. Still others settled in France, where they became known as Normans, from “Norse-man.”

Norway United by Fairhair 930

Eventually one of the local Norwegian tribal chieftains, King Harold I, called Fairhair, of Vestfold in southeast Norway, united the other kingdoms of Norway through diplomacy and conquest.

Upon his death in 940, his sons once again divided up the country with Eric Bloodaxe as overall king. The unity did not last long and in the ensuing strife both Danes and Swedes were able to launch land grabs in Norway.

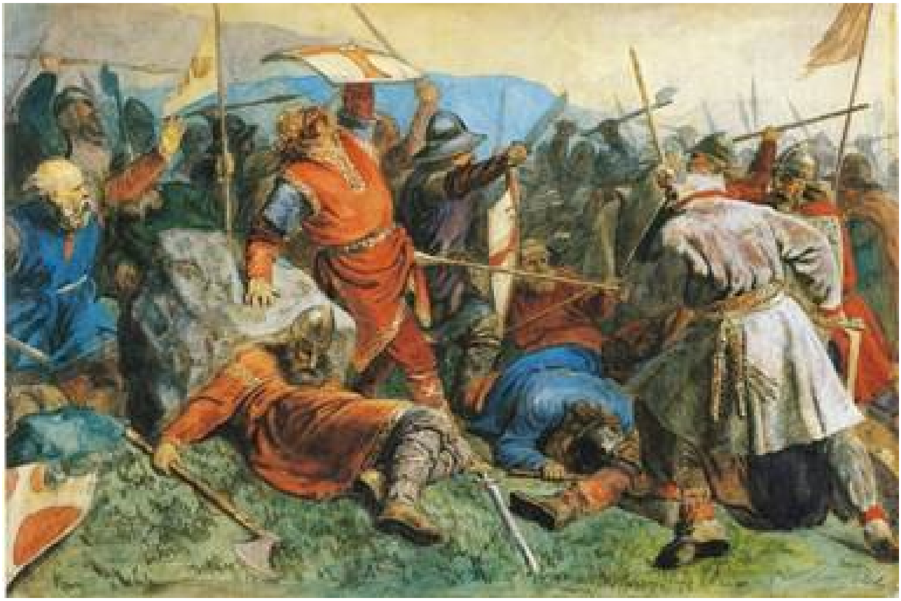
Christianity Introduced by Olaf I 955

Into the dissension of Norway a new ingredient was added: Christianity. In 995, Olaf I, a great-grandson of Harold Fairhair I, became king. Before his accession, Olaf had lived in England, where he had converted to Christianity.

He took the throne with the firm purpose of forcing Christianity on Norway and was partially successful, with his mission only being halted after he was killed in battle with the Danes under King Sweyn I. Norway was then ruled by Olaf II from 1015, who continued the evangelism of his predecessor. This time he was more brutal, however, and executed those pagans who refused to convert to Christianity.

By about 1025, Olaf was more powerful than any previous Norwegian king, thereby arousing the hatred of many petty princes who conspired with the Danish/English King, Canute the Great, who, in 1028, managed to drive Olaf into exile in Russia. Two years later Olaf returned and was killed in battle: he was subsequently deified and made into the patron saint of Norway.

PAGAN NOBILITY KILL CHRISTIAN KING OLAF AT BATTLE OF STIKLESTAD 1030



The battlefield of Stiklestad in Norway—scene of the death of the Christian king Olaf Haraldsson of Norway at the hands of his pagan nobility. Olaf was a Viking in his early days, but then converted to Christianity. After his ascension to the throne, he tried to convert his countrymen to Christianity, often using violent coercion as the main means of persuasion. After several violent incidents, the pagans rebelled and deposed him, offering the throne to Canute, who was king of Denmark and England. Olaf fled, but returned two years later, in 1030, with an army he had raised in Sweden. He was defeated and killed at the battle site pictured above. Much later he was made patron saint of Norway, his murderous evangelicalism swept under the carpet.

Iceland Added to Norway

Upon Canute’s death in 1035, his successors united Denmark and Norway through occupation, leading to three centuries of relatively stable home rule for Norway.

Iceland was officially added to Norway’s territory in 1262, and the latter nation enjoyed a period of growth and prosperity unequaled in its previous eras. This was only to be interrupted by the bubonic plague, or Black Death, in the mid-thirteenth century, which killed as much as 20 percent of the population.

The Union of Kalmar was created in 1389 when Norway, Sweden, and Denmark were made into a single administrative unit. Norway remained under Danish and Swedish domination for centuries thereafter, although it was granted wide autonomy, particularly after a rebellion brewed in 1815.

Independence from Danish Crown in 1905

In 1821, the still existing Danish peerage was abolished in Norway and in 1839, the country was granted the right to have its own flag. By 1905, the Norwegians had advanced constitutionally to the point where they declared themselves an independent nation, with Sweden’s consent.

Neutrality and Occupation

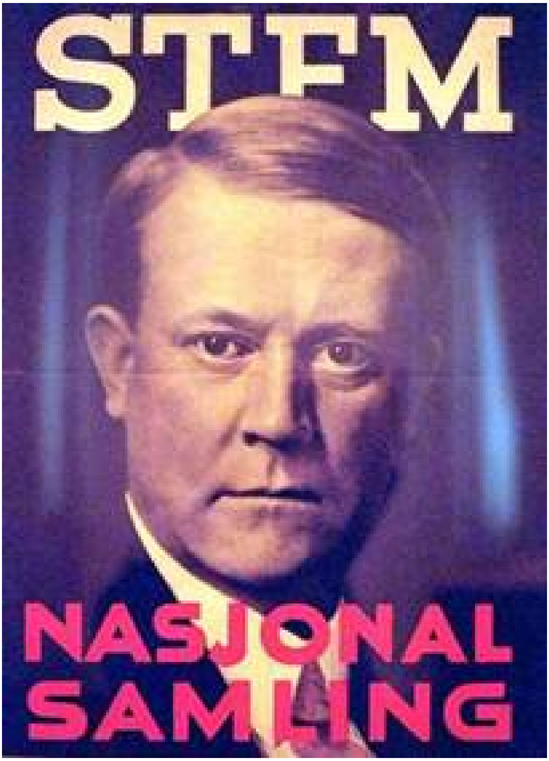
During the First World War, Norway followed a strict policy of neutrality which was enforced at the start of the Second World War as well. However, in April 1940, Britain and France announced that they had mined Norwegian territorial waters to prevent their use by German supply ships. British and German forces then simultaneously invaded the country in an attempt to outflank each other.

Vidkun Quisling and the National Union

There was considerable support for the German occupation among the Norwegians, and several Norwegian army units actively helped the Germans occupy the major ports. The leader of the major pro-German party, Vidkun Quisling, took a leading role in the government of Norway after the German occupation.

Norway remained under German rule until 1945, with the army of occupation never seeing battle again. They were ordered to surrender by the German High Command once the conflict in Europe had ended. Quisling and twenty-five Norwegians were executed for their role in the occupation government. A further fifty thousand Norwegians were tried for collaboration with the Germans.

ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH WORD “QUISLING”



An election poster for Vidkun Quisling, leader of the pro-Nazi National Union party in Norway. Quisling served in the Norwegian embassy in Moscow. Upon his return to Norway he entered politics and became known as a strong anti-Communist, based on what he had seen in the Soviet Union. He was appointed to the Norwegian cabinet in 1931 as Minister of Defense, and in 1933 formed the National Union, with principles based on those of the National Socialists in Germany. After Norway was occupied by Germany in 1940, the National Union was declared the only legal party, and Quisling was appointed prime minister—a position he held until the defeat of Germany in 1945. He was executed in October 1945. It is from his name that "quisling" entered the English lexicon as a word meaning a "traitor."

Present-Day Norway—Nonwhite Influx

Norway recovered well from the deprivations of the war and once again became one of the most economically progressive countries in Europe. However, in common with her neighbors,

Norway allowed a large number of nonwhites to settle during the last quarter of the twentieth century. The significance of this shift in policy is discussed in a later chapter.

FINLAND

The earliest traces of settlements in Finland date from the Neolithic Age, approximately 8000 BC. These Old Europeans and Proto-Nordics did not make any significant advances until the arrival of the first wave of Indo-European Nordic invaders around 2000 BC, who ushered in the Iron Age and the first large agricultural settlements.

Due to the relatively large numbers of Old Europeans resident in the region—large compared to the rest of Scandinavia, at least—the resulting mix between Indo-European Nordics and Old European Mediterraneans created a subracial type which is not as uniformly Nordic in appearance as was the case in Norway or Sweden. To this day there are a far larger proportion of dark-haired Finns than there are dark-haired Swedes or Norwegians.

At the same time as the Indo-European invaders, a small tribe of originally Asiatic Finno-Ugric peoples made their way into the country, possibly driven on by the invading Indo-Europeans. These Finno-Ugrics became the Lapp people, nomads of the Arctic Circle. Through the addition of large quantities of Indo-European ancestry, many Lapps now display Nordic racial features.

THE LAPPS—A MIXED RACIAL STOCK IN SCANDINAVIA

The Lapps, who traditionally lived a nomadic existence in the far north of

Sweden, Norway, and Finland, are called the indigenous people of Scandinavia although they probably arrived simultaneously or even after the European elements of those countries. Above, a group of overtly Asiatic Lapps photographed in the early twentieth century outside their primitive mud and stone hut. Mixing with whites has produced a wide variety of physical types among them, as can be seen in the photograph below of a present-day meeting of the Saami Council in Finland.

The Swedish Conquest 1155

There is no direct evidence indicating that Finland was the origin of any Viking raiders. However, swords have been found in that region with inscriptions on them indicating that their owners served in the Varangian Guard of the Eastern Roman Emperor at Constantinople in the ninth and tenth centuries, an indication that some Finns took part in the Viking expeditions of that era.

Finland did not form any sort of early unified state: it was only with the Christianizing efforts of the Swedes from around 1050 that a central organization came into being. The Swedish king, Eric, invaded what was then the unorganized territory of Finland in 1155 with the express aim of converting the Finns to Christianity.

Easily defeating the scattered Finnish tribes, Eric then made his evangelical mission—carried out with the by now standard combination of preaching and execution of those unwilling to convert—into a permanent colony, adding Finland to the Swedish state.

A Christian missionary from England, Henry, who had been preaching at Uppsala in Sweden, also took part in this evangelical mission to Finland. He was killed by pagans in 1156. He was later deified by the church and became the patron saint of Finland.

When the Union of Kalmar was established in 1397, Finland, as a vassal of Sweden, was automatically drawn into the three way administrative unit. For the next two hundred years Finland remained under effective Swedish control, and many thousands of Swedes settled there.

Wars with Russia—One Thousand Years of Conflict

The rise of the state of Russia on the Finns' eastern border dominated Finnish history for more than one thousand years, with the first Russian invasions carried out by local Russian princes in the late thirteenth century. When the ruler of Novgorod in Russia invaded Finland for the second time in 1292, the Swedes sent a force which penetrated Karelia as far as the Neva River. A 1323 treaty divided Karelia between Sweden and Novgorod.

The Finnish population was reduced by a series of wars with Russia and a series of crop failures which occurred from 1695 to 1697. This was followed by the Great Northern War (1700–1721), during which the Russians occupied Finland. In terms of the Peace of Nystadt (1721), Finland lost large areas in the east, with Russia gobbling up yet more land after another war which lasted from 1741 to 1743.

Progress under Russian Rule 1809–1917

In 1808, the Russian tsar, Alexander I, launched an all-out assault on Finland, overrunning it completely by 1809. In that year, Finland was formally proclaimed as a grand duchy of the Russian Empire. The country was ruled by a Russian governor-general in an already existing city, Helsinki, which was chosen as the new capital by the Russian tsar. During the period of Russian rule, much material and cultural progress was made.

Finland was not directly involved in the First World War, even though Russia was. The Finns, their incipient nationalism awakened during the cultural progress under Russian rule, seized the opportunity afforded by the collapse of Russia after the Communist revolution of 1917 to declare themselves independent in December of that year. Soviet Russia was too weak to resist and Finland became properly independent for the first time.

FINNS CRUSH ATTEMPTED COMMUNIST REVOLUTION 1918

The Finnish Civil War erupted after the Grand Duchy of Finland became independent from Russia after the October Revolution which created the Soviet Union. The war was fought between the "Reds" led by the Social Democratic Party, supported by the Communists in Russia; and the "Whites" led by the Finnish Senate, supported directly by the German army. The Whites were ultimately victorious.

A detachment of "White" Finnish forces, the Suojeluskunta or "Protecting Guard," photographed during the Finnish Civil War.

German soldiers pose with their machine gun in the streets of Helsinki after the city's capture by the White forces. The Red Communist flag lies thrown in the gutter before them.

Communist Revolution Crushed

The Finns were sharply divided along political lines. Communists and conservatives faced each other down and formed their own armies: the Red Guards and the White Guards, in imitation of the groups which were then waging a civil war in Soviet Russia.

The formation of politically motivated armed units spilled over into violence: the Red Guards reacted violently to a government order to expel all Russian troops, and attempted to launch a Communist revolution in Finland in January 1918.

Helsinki was seized by Communists during this conflict. While the city was under their control, the Communists launched a reign of terror against known anti-Communists, leading to the deaths of many civilians.

Backed by German troops, the anti-Communist White Guards, under the leadership of General Carl Mannerheim, recaptured Helsinki and exacted a bitter revenge against the Communists, shooting many out of hand. The Finnish Communist Party was then banned, and a republican constitution was implemented.

Friendship with Nazi Germany

The rise of the Nazi government in Germany and its strong anti-Communist stance was looked on favorably by the Finns. The pre-Nazi era swastika emblem on Finnish aircraft originated with a nobleman who donated the first aircraft to that nation's fledgling air force.

Its significance was not lost on the Finns—in 1945 they did away with the prominent version of the emblem. The Swedish air force still has the swastika as an emblem.

Although Finland declared its neutrality at the start of the Second World War, the Soviet Union invaded Finland in November 1939, partly to seize territory, and partly as punishment for the suppression of the Finnish Communist revolution of 1919.

A bitter winter war followed, with the Finns exacting a disproportionately heavy toll against the Soviet invaders.

Marshal Carl Mannerheim, one of Finland's heroes. Born in 1867 in Russian-occupied Finland, he joined the Russian army and reached the rank of Lieutenant-General before taking command of the Finnish forces in Finland's war of independence against Soviet Russia in 1918. Instrumental in suppressing the Communist revolution in Finland in 1919, he was regent there for seven months that year. He was forced out of retirement to command Finland's army in its successful defense against the Soviet invasion of 1940. President of Finland in 1944, he died in 1951.

Finns Resist Second Communist Invasion

The Finns, led by General Mannerheim in a new anti-Communist battle, held on grimly in the face of overwhelming odds, but were forced to sue for peace and ceded strips of territory on the Soviet border.

When the great Soviet–German conflict broke out in 1941, the

Soviets bombed Finnish cities due to the presence of a small number of German troops there. Finland then declared war against the Soviet Union, seizing the advantages gained by the massive German advances into Russia, although it was careful to emphasize that it was not a formal ally of Germany.

In December 1941, Britain then declared war on Finland and the United States broke off diplomatic relations with it the same month. This move displayed a shocking lack of consistency: Britain and America did not declare war on the Soviet Union when it, without cause, invaded Finland in 1939.

After almost three years of war which saw only minor territorial gains, the Finns dropped out of the war in 1944, ceding further territories to the Soviets in exchange for peace.

Mainly due to the duplicitous treatment at the hands of the West during the Second World War, Finland maintained a strict policy of neutrality and refused to be drawn into any postwar conflict, and agreed to participate in, but not join, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1992.

In common with many European nations, Finland opened its borders to a significant number of nonwhites during the last quarter of the twentieth century. The implications of this development are discussed later in this work.

CHAPTER 24: The Fury of the Men of the North—the Vikings

The origins of the Vikings lie, like all original Indo-European peoples, in the ancient Nordic homeland between the Black and Caspian seas in southern Russia. Part of the earliest wave of Indo-European settlers, the Vikings were originally one of the Germanic tribes who settled in southern Scandinavia and Denmark, and who gave rise to the Goths and the Anglo-Saxons in later times.

The Vikings were unique in that they retained their original nature in all aspects—culturally, linguistically, and militarily, longer than any other original Indo-European tribe.

Nordic and Alpine Racial Makeup

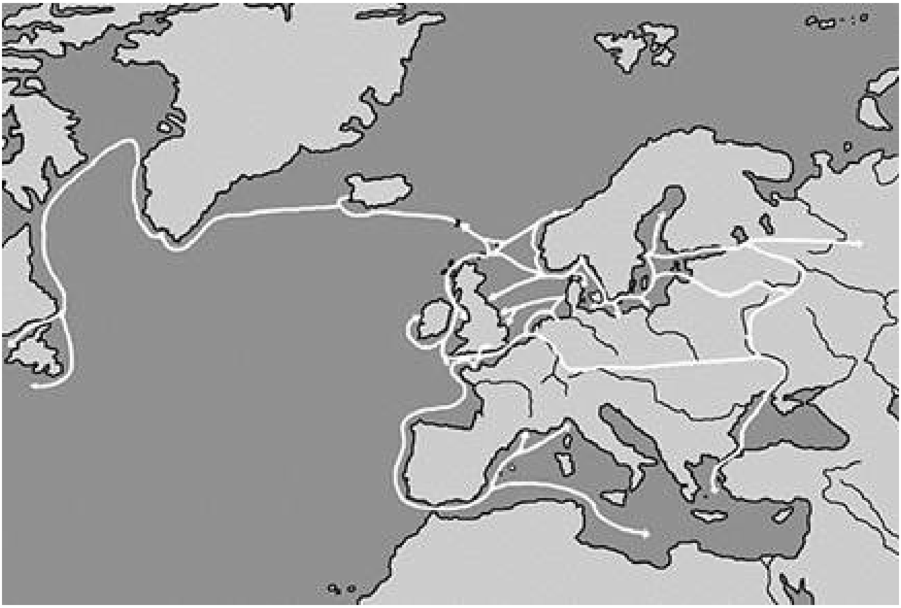
In common with all the Indo-Europeans entering Europe, Viking ancestors mixed with the Old Europeans and Alpine types where they were encountered. In this way there were Vikings who did not fit the tall blond Nordic stereotype, as can be seen today in Scandinavia. However, Nordics remained the dominating type in the far north and only occasionally can traces of the Old European and Alpine admixture be seen among modern Scandinavians.

Individualization a Characteristic Trait

The Vikings developed a tradition for piracy which went back to the time they first settled in Scandinavia—indeed the very word Viking comes from the Old Norse word meaning piracy.

This tradition created a strong sense of loyalty among their own particular family or group of families; but there was certainly no sense of national identity, as was the case with many other Indo-European tribes (such as the Goths or Franks, who could usually be counted on to come to neighboring tribesmen’s aid). The individualism of the Viking was an important feature of their way of living.

SETTLING THE WORLD—VIKINGS SPAN THE CONTINENTS



Starting out from their Scandinavian homeland, Vikings raided and then settled lands ranging from the coasts and interior of North America to Russia and Constantinople. Although most well known for their raids, the Vikings were excellent traders as well.

Polygamy as a Tool for Population Increase

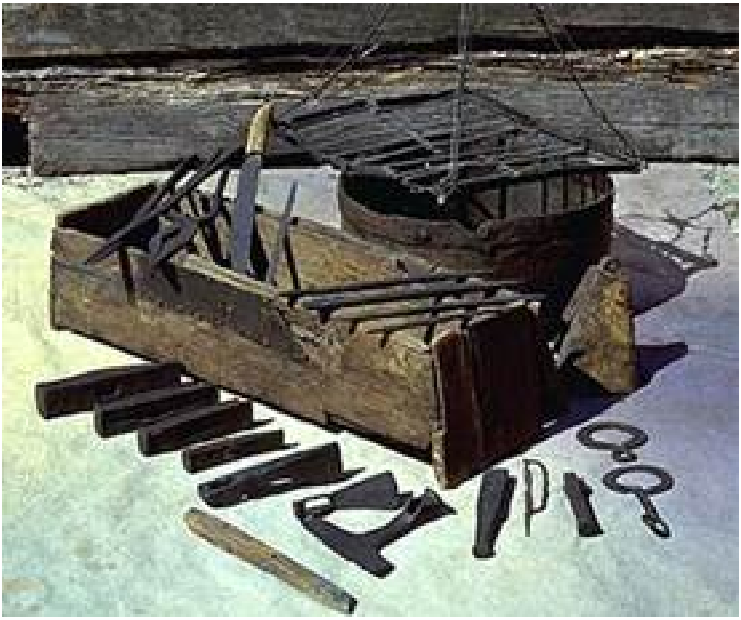
Another trait which set the Vikings apart from their racial cousins was the practice of polygamy. It was not uncommon for these Norsemen to have three wives, and their chieftains very often had far more. This practice led to a population growth rate in excess of other Indo-European tribes, and may have been a major factor in the sudden expansion of the Vikings from the eighth century onward.

Although the Viking men were known as womanizers—the image of the Viking raider carrying away women as part of his booty has an unfortunately all too accurate origin—Viking women were among the most liberated in the world at the time. Their status was elevated by the fact that they were forced to take charge of society while their men were away for extended periods.

Fierceness—Origin of "Berserk"

What caused the Vikings to start their extensive raiding parties remains a matter of conjecture: speculation has ranged from a reaction against the Christianizing efforts of missionaries, to the perfection of sailing techniques combined with a growth in population. Although the Vikings had a deservedly fierce reputation—the word "berserk" derives from the name of a clan of particularly frenzied warriors—within a few hundred years of their first raids, the large majority had converted to Christianity and had settled in the lands they formerly raided.

LONGBOAT TOOLKIT



An original Viking longboat toolbox, containing over 150 items including rasps, nail making tools, planes, chisels, hammers, and shears for clipping metal. Recovered from Mastermyr, Sweden.

The Edda—Norse Sagas

The majority of written records of the Vikings originate with their more literate victims. The Christian Church in this era kept to itself the skills of literacy, so what is known about the Vikings in their pre-raiding days is based on the accounts set down by the Church. As a result, much of this detail cannot be taken as objective.

The Vikings' worldview was based on a collection of stories and sagas which had been passed down from generation to generation. Initially only oral, these sagas were soon captured in writing and have endured to this day. The most accurate version was taken down by the poet Snorri Sturluson, credited with establishing the Edda, or first comprehensive collection of Viking sagas.

World's Oldest Parliament

The Vikings are credited with establishing the oldest parliament in the world—the open air Althing of Iceland, where free men came to resolve feuds and establish laws for the community. It was founded in 930 at Þingvellir, about thirty miles east of Iceland's modern capital of Reykjavík. Iceland's parliament is still called by that name.

Religion—Valhalla for Heroes

Viking religion followed a similar pattern to that of other pre-Christian Germanics. They worshiped Odin, the leader of the gods and god of war; his son Thor, the god of thunder who possessed the mighty war hammer, and Baldur, the god of light. These gods were opposed by a race of evil giants led by Loki, the god of mischief.

Vikings believed that if they died heroically in battle they would go to Valhalla, Odin's home. They also believed in the Ragnarök, the end of the world in a mighty battle between the gods and Loki's giants. This battle would lead to the destruction of men and Valhalla, but a new and better world would be created as a result.

A Viking longboat, circa 800. In these ships, the men of Scandinavia sailed rivers and seas, even crossing the Atlantic Ocean to North America. The shape was so perfect that it was adopted by King Alfred of England and used as a design for the first English navy.

Viking Raiders Range across Europe

Their plundering raids, up and down the length and breadth of Europe right into the Mediterranean and western Russia, filled the Christians with dread and fear. This led to the use of the following prayer muttered by Christians when they saw the signs of the approaching Vikings: “From the fury of the Northmen deliver us, O Lord.”

Between 800 and 850, Ireland was badly mauled by Viking invaders. The Celtic descendants on the island were easy prey due to their constant infighting. On the European continent, the now famous Viking boats sailed up all the navigable rivers of Europe, raiding and looting at will, only very infrequently being turned back or defeated.

Skilled Crafts

The Vikings were among the most skilled people in Europe in the manufacture of arms and jewelry. Their habit of burying their chiefs in large burial chambers along with all their swords, axes, carts, and in some cases with their boats, has provided a large number of artifacts. Skilled carvings of horses, snakes, swans, and dragons are also plentiful, along with gold and silver work.

The Versatile “Dragon Boat”

The other Viking development which was crucial to their fame was that of the dragon boat. Despite its apparent simplicity, this boat was a fine work of engineering—in its time far and away the most advanced seafaring craft available.

Ideally suited for transporting between twenty and one hundred fully armed warriors (and often their horses), it could sail equally well in both the open sea and in shallow rivers. The engineering of Viking ships was adopted by many others, including the English under Alfred the Great, whose kingdom had endured the power of these vessels firsthand.

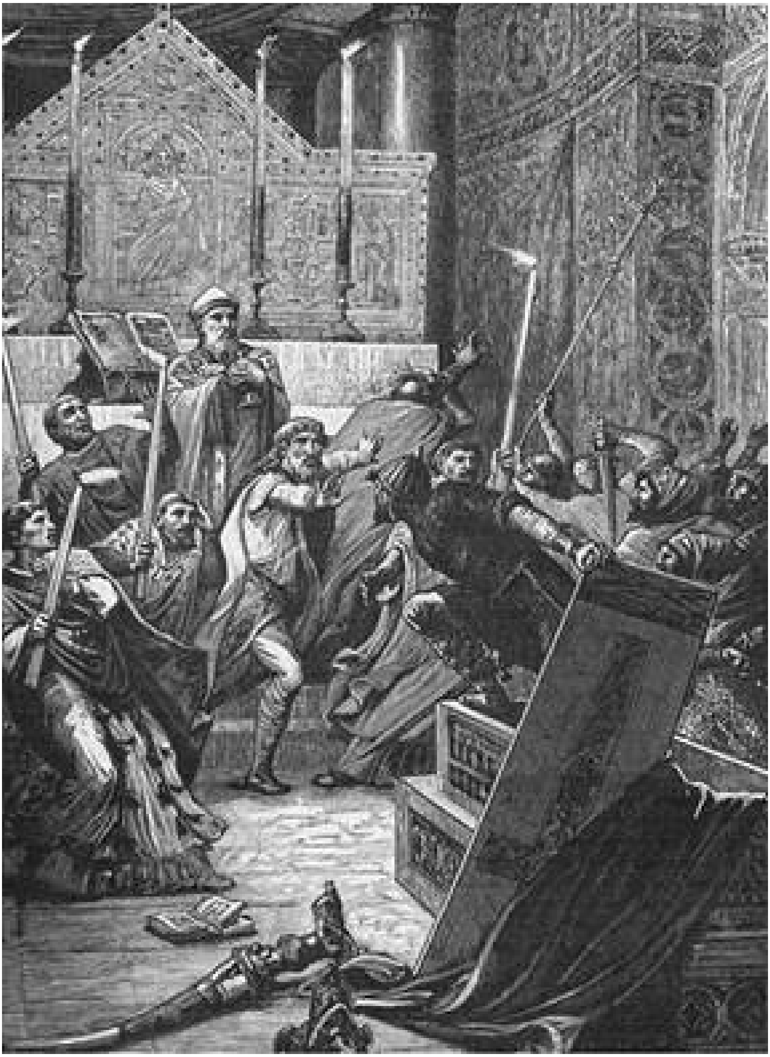
Vikings in the Varangian Guard

Vikings, or Norsemen, as they were also known, emerged from their northern homeland in two directions: southeast where they founded the modern state of Russia, and southwest as raiders and looters from the Mediterranean to Britain.

The Vikings who turned east traveled through Russia on their boats, cruising the Volga and Dnieper rivers to Constantinople and

Baghdad. The Varangian Guard, the personal bodyguards of the Eastern Roman Emperor in Constantinople, was composed largely of tall blond Vikings, a rare sight in the darkening world of the Byzantine Empire.

VIKINGS RAID CHURCH'S HOARDED WEALTH



Viking raiders always knew that the riches of society would be found hoarded in the church of any town. A good example of this was the Viking raider Hasting, who plundered Italy for several years. He was driven ashore by a storm near the town of Sarzana on the Magra River. Pretending to be on a peaceful mission, he was admitted into the town and baptized a Christian at the hands of the local bishop. Hasting then proceeded to pretend to have died on his ship. His followers duly brought *him ashore for a Christian burial—in the rich Christian church. It was an elaborate trick. As the bishop was about to conduct the service for what he thought was his latest convert, Hasting, still very much alive, sprang from the coffin, and with the assistance of his armed followers, dispatched the bishop and the governor and then ransacked the town, escaping with the Christian riches as his booty.*

England—Viking Kingdom around York

According to Anglo-Saxon records, the Vikings first raided England in 787 and continued intermittent raids until around 830, when they began settling in northern England instead of just raiding and departing.

They soon established a kingdom centered in York (one of the largest Viking museums in the world is located there today). They also settled in Ireland, founding the towns of Dublin and Limerick among others.

The Saxon king of Wessex, Alfred the Great, who ruled from 871 to 899, managed to militarily halt the Viking advance and entered into an agreement with them to stop the fighting which had marked the latter's presence in the island from the time of their first settlement. In effect Alfred accepted the permanence of the Viking kingdom in the north of England. This Viking English kingdom later became the source of a Scandinavian claim to the English throne.

Raiding Churches for Their Wealth

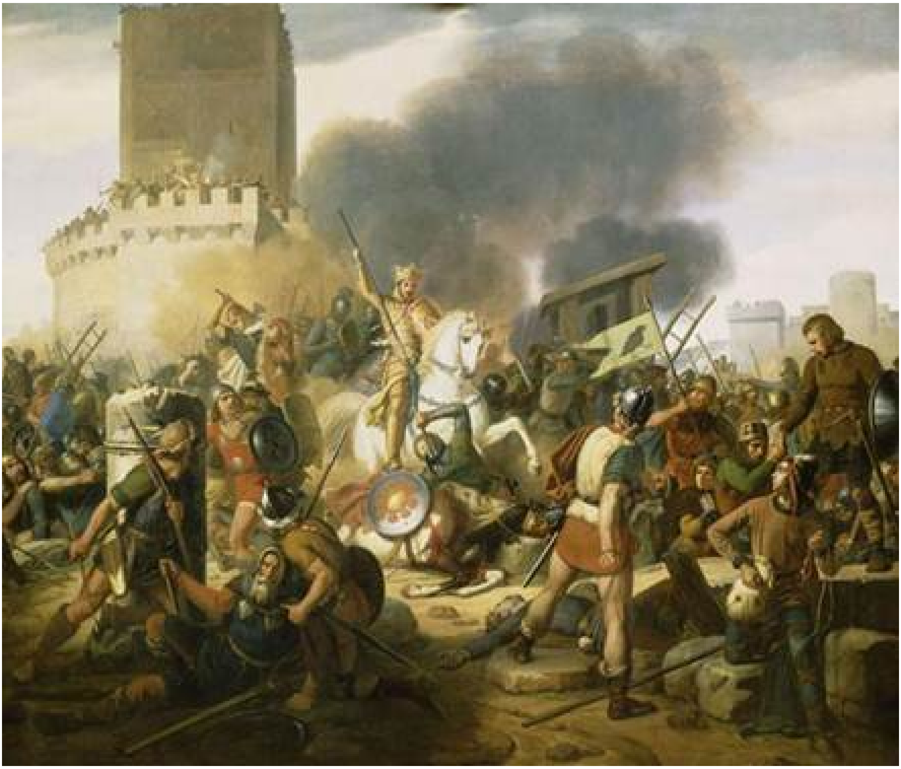
On the Continent, the Vikings established for themselves a reputation as fierce pirates whose favorite targets were Christian churches and monasteries. It is unlikely that they targeted these places for any anti-Christian ideological reason, but rather for the fact that the wealth in any Christian territory was typically drawn into the local church as a tax. The Vikings knew that the wealthiest place in a town would be the church, and always made straight for this building during a raid.

France—Paris Raided 840

It was not too long before the Vikings began looking to settle in other parts of Europe as well. The emerging French capital of Paris was raided in 840 by a particularly adventurous Viking band.

In the early tenth century, a Viking settlement was established with force of arms in northwestern France. In 911, the Frankish king, a great grandson of Charlemagne, granted formal recognition to this settlement and in somewhat of a postfactum manner made it a vassal of the Frankish state.

VIKINGS ATTACK PARIS 840, 885



The extent of the Viking power and boldness was visibly demonstrated in 840 and 885, when they besieged and raided the fortified city of Paris, then already the most powerful center in all of France. Here the Count Odo defends Paris against the Vikings, who had sailed up the Seine River to the gates of the city.

The leader of this particular band of Vikings, called Gang-Hrolf by his own people (Ralph the Walker—as he was allegedly too large for any horse to carry him comfortably), was known to the Franks as Rollo. He reciprocated the Frankish recognition by being baptized as a Christian and becoming the first duke of Normandy—the name Normandy deriving from the word Norseman. Rollo and his Normans became loyal vassals, and pledged to protect their piece of coastline against other Viking invaders.

Before 1100, the Norman (and thus Viking) soldier Robert Guiscard sailed for Sicily, which was then partly under the Muslim occupation which had accompanied the invasion of Spain. Guiscard fought his way into the Muslim-controlled area, and proceeded to establish a Norman principality which was known as the Norman kingdom of Sicily.

Normans from Sicily also took part in another great racial war, the Crusades against the Muslims in the Middle East.

North America—Vikings Land Five Hundred Years before Columbus

Other settlements established by Viking bands included outposts on the Hebrides, Orkney, Shetland, and Faroe islands. In 861, a Viking discovered Iceland and soon the island was settled by other bands of Vikings. Around 950, one of these Icelandic settlers, Eric the Red, sailed to Greenland, where another short-lived Viking outpost was established.

In the year 986, the Viking, Bjarni Herjólfsson, sailing from Norway to Greenland, missed his destination and by accident sighted the North American coast. He did not land, but instead returned and told others in Greenland of his discovery. The son of Eric the Red, Leif, then took an expedition and landed on present-day Newfoundland, where he lived for just under one year before returning to Greenland. Leif called the North American land Vinland, or Wineland, because of the grapes he found there.

A few years later, another Greenland Viking, Thorfinn Karlsefni, launched a major expedition to the new land. Using three ships and 160 men and women, he set out to establish a Viking colony in North America. They built a settlement in Newfoundland (the remains of which were excavated in 1962), and in 1004 Thorfinn's wife Gudrid bore him a son named Snorri. However, the American natives, called Skraelings, constantly subjected Thorfinn's settlement to attacks, and overwhelmed by numbers, the Vikings were forced to abandon it after three years.

The Heavener Runestone—Vikings in Oklahoma Circa 900

Precisely how far the Vikings penetrated into the mainland of North America is revealed by the existence of four runestones inscribed with symbols from the Viking language which can be found in the present-day state of Oklahoma, in the United States.

The largest of the runestones is known as the Heavener Runestone. It is a sandstone slab, twelve feet high, ten feet wide, and sixteen inches thick. It is carved with eight runes (characters) from the oldest Viking language, the Elder Futhark, which consisted of twenty-four runes and was used from 300 to 800 in Scandinavia. This runestone was first noticed in the modern era by bear hunters in the late nineteenth century.

In the immediate area, three other runestones have also been found, and at a small hill at Cavanal Mountain, fourteen miles away, another smaller inscription of eight runes is to be found. In 1986, the runes on the largest stone were deciphered as meaning G-L-O-M-E-D-A-L, meaning Glome's Valley, a land claim. The other runestones also refer to Glome, saying "Magic (or protection) to Gloie" (his nickname). One of the smaller runestones appears to have been a gravestone. The other two runestones do not have enough runes for a translation, but the four stones were placed in a straight line, miles apart.

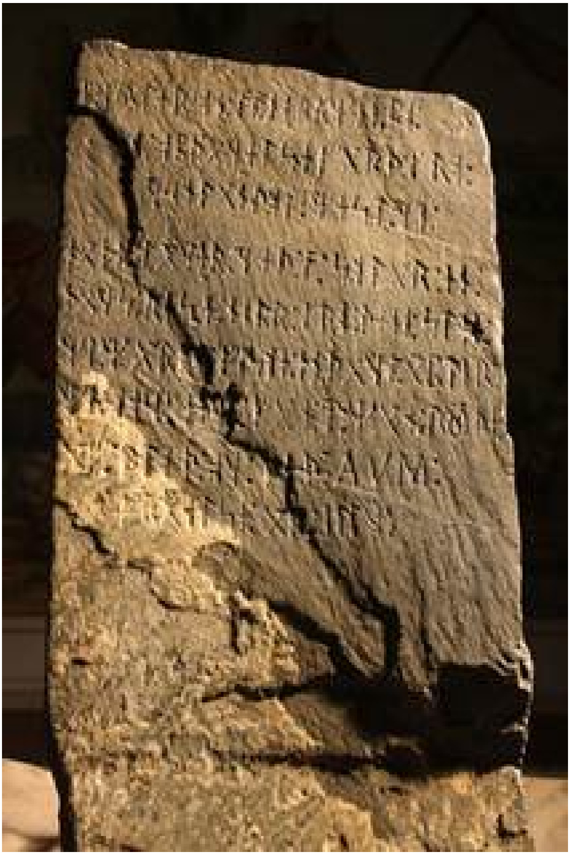
In order to enter Oklahoma, Vikings would probably have rounded the tip of Florida into the Gulf of Mexico, found the Mississippi River, and sailed into its tributaries, the Arkansas and Poteau rivers, around 750. This date is indicated by the grammar used on the Runestones.

Minnesota Vikings—Ill-Fated Expedition 1362

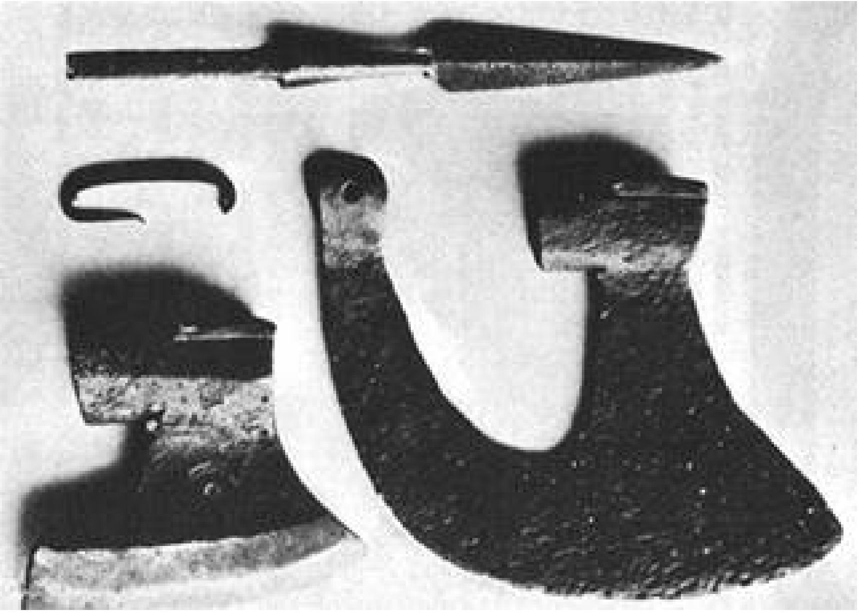
In November 1898, a further runestone was discovered near Kensington in the state of Minnesota. When deciphered, these runes revealed the story of an ill-fated Viking expedition to the area which occurred in 1362. A translation of the runestone makes fascinating reading: [on the front of the stone] "8 Goths and 22 Norwegians on discovery voyage from Vinland over [the] west we had camp by 2 skerries one day[']s journey north from this stone we were and fishe[ed] one day after we came home found 10 men red with blood and dead A[ve] V[irgo] M[aria] preserve from evil" [on the side of the stone] "have 10 men by the seas to see after our ship[s] 14 day-journeys from this island year 1362."

The stone has been the source of a fair amount of controversy. During the late 1940s, it was overwhelmingly considered authentic and was displayed in the halls of the Smithsonian Institution. Although its authenticity has of late been questioned, the existence of other Viking artifacts in North America has confirmed their presence there beyond any doubt, so the case for the Kensington Runestone is strong.

VIKING ARTIFACTS IN NORTH AMERICA

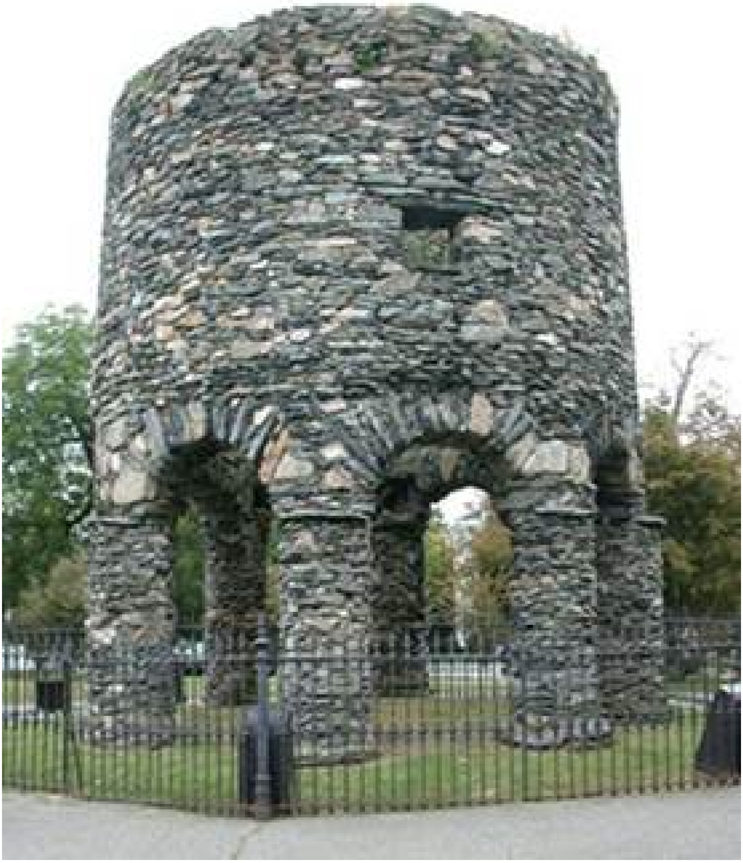


Still the subject of some dispute, several Viking artifacts found in North America are compelling evidence of how far the Norsemen penetrated pre-Columbian America. Above, the Kensington Runestone, recounting the saga of an ill-fated Viking expedition to present-day Minnesota in 1362. Below: A collection of Scandinavian iron ax heads and spear points, dating from the fourteenth century, but all found in Minnesota, USA, about fifty miles south of the Kensington Runestone.



The Newport Tower Circa 1300

In Touro Park, Newport, Rhode Island, a stone tower, called the Newport Tower, may be the oldest fully existing Norse building in North America, probably built in the twelfth century. It has been claimed that the tower, most often referred to as Governor Arnold's Mill, was built by Governor Arnold around the year it was mentioned in his will—1677. However, the shape of the structure is most unsuited to that of a mill. The top of the building is obviously meant to be used as a lookout tower over the bay; and the inside as an early church, complete with a place for an altar and a fireplace (all of which are incompatible with the inside of a mill). The structure's design closely resembles other early Norse-style churches which can be found in Europe.



Newport Tower, Rhode Island. Is it an early Viking structure?

The first mention of the existence of the tower comes in the account of the Italian explorer Giovanni de Verrazano, who, while in the service of the French, was the first sixteenth century European to enter New York Bay in 1524. Verrazano noted the tower on his map of the area, calling it a “Norman villa” because of its obvious Norse design and construction. The most compelling evidence of the Norse construction of Newport Tower is the existence of a runic inscription on one of the walls, which has been translated to read HINKIRS or Henrikus—a Norse name. The explorer Verrazano also noted that the natives with whom he came into contact around the Newport area were “polite, cultured, and of fair complexion.”

Bernardo Carli, one of Verrazano’s men, wrote, “This is the most beautiful and the most civilized people that we have found in our navigation. They excel us in size, are of a bronze color, some inclined to whiteness.” These physical characteristics could indicate distant Norse ancestry.

Language Links to Norse

In addition, many Amerind words from the region are of clear Norse origin. In his book *The Rediscovery of Lost America* (E.P. Dutton, New York, 1979), Arlington Mallery compiled a huge list of Iroquois words with Norse origins. Some of the more interesting ones are:

- In New England, the Indian name for the Port of Halifax was "Chebuct." In Norse a "sjobukt" is a sea bay.

- In Martha's Vineyard a pond called "Mennemsha" lies between Gay's Head and Chilmark. In Norse the word "mellemsjo" means in-between pond, or body of water.

- Near Pemaquid, Maine, a tribal branch of the Abnaki was called "Norridgewok." This is just too close to "Norrewg's Folk," or the "people of Norway" for coincidence.

- A hill in New Jersey was called "Espating" by the Indians. The Norse word for the asp tree, "asp," has come into English unchanged, while the Norse word for a meeting place, a "ting," is the clear origin of the rest of the word Espating.

Viking Influence in Greenland and Iceland

The encroaching ice of Greenland eventually proved too much even for the hardy Vikings, and the last survivors died in 1740 during the interglacial freeze of the eighteenth century. Today the inhabitants of Iceland, because of the geographic isolation, are the most pure descendants of the Vikings in the world. Their language is almost identical to that of their predecessors. They didn't recognize Christianity as a legitimate religion until well into the twelfth century, which makes them the last European nation to do so.

Initial Attempts at Unity Fail

In Scandinavia, several Viking leaders tried to establish some form of unity, most notably Harald Fairhair who beat the Viking chieftains of western Norway in 872, and Harald Bluetooth who, in 965, after being baptized as a Christian, tried to convert the Danes to Christianity. Both these attempts at unity failed, and Harald Bluetooth, despite being a legitimate descendant of a leading Viking chief, was exiled.

The Saga of Harald Hardraada—How a Viking Ruled England

It was from this struggle for unity among the Vikings that one of the most colorful characters in Viking history was to emerge: Harald Hardraada. In 995, the Viking lands of northern England and Norway were finally united under one king, Olaf Tryggvason. When the Viking chief Harald ascended to the throne of both these lands, he was given the name Hardraada (the “hard ruler”) and his stern rule sparked off one of the final battles between the Vikings and the Britons.

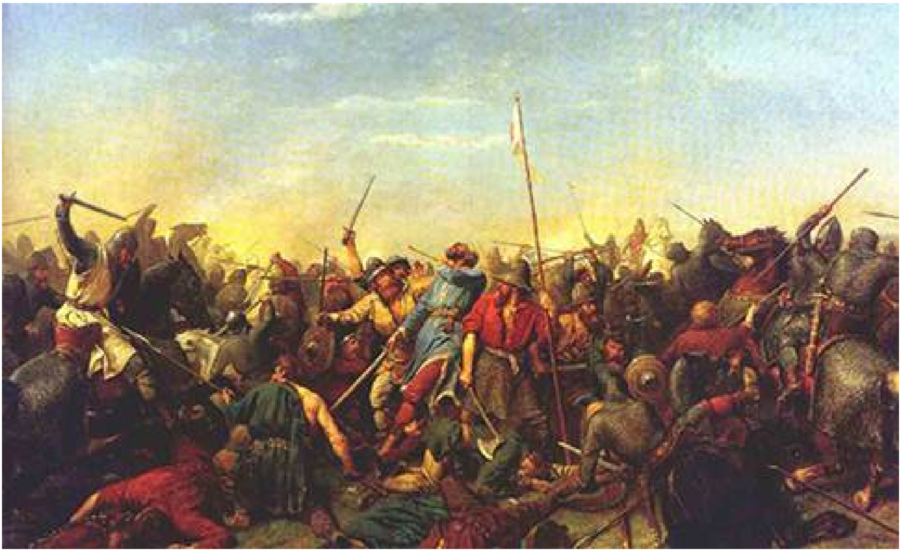
Harald was the half brother of King Olaf the Stout, a king of Norway who was chased out of his country while trying to violently convert his countrymen to Christianity. Olaf fled to the Viking settlements in Russia, which had become Christianized, and raised an army to stage a comeback in Norway. Olaf returned to Norway in 1030, with his fifteen-year-old half brother, Harald, at his side. Together they fought their pagan countrymen but were defeated. Olaf was killed (he was later made a saint by the Christian Church and is to this day patron saint of Norway), and Harald severely wounded. The young Harald fled back to Russia, stopping in Kiev to enlist in the army of King Yaroslav, where he won great prestige as a soldier.

From there he went to Constantinople where he enlisted in the emperor’s Varangian Guard, an elite army unit made up exclusively of Vikings and Rus who were recruited from the Norse settlements in Christian Russia. For a decade Harald fought for the Eastern Roman Empire, winning not only great fame but also great wealth.

In 1044, he went back to Kiev and married the daughter of King Yaroslav. By 1047, he had worked his way back to Norway where he claimed the Norwegian throne. His ties to the royal family combined with his by now legendary exploits were enough to silence any opposition. During the next nineteen years, Harald continued trying to Christianize his countrymen, earning for himself the name of “hard ruler.”

His last great exploit came in 1066. Upon the death of the Anglo-Saxon king, Edward the Confessor, Harald claimed the English crown for himself on the basis of the shared sovereignty of Norway and northern England. However, another claimant to the English throne also put in his bid—William, Duke of Normandy, ironically also the descendant of Vikings.

Harald first formed an alliance with Earl Tostig, the disaffected brother of Harold Godwinson, the English king who had succeeded Edward the Confessor. Then he sailed for England and seized the town of York as a base for his operations against Harold Godwinson. The Viking and English armies clashed at the battle of Stamford Bridge, where Harald was killed.



The Battle of Stamford Bridge.

The damage he inflicted upon Harold Godwinson's army was such that it was unable to ward off the invasion by William of Normandy at Hastings a few days later. Harold Godwinson was killed and William became William the Conqueror—a Norman Viking descendant had become king of England.

The death of Harald Hardraada at Stamford Bridge marked the final disappearance of the true adventurer Scandinavian spirit. After him there would be no more Vikings and their raids. Christianized and settled, they survive only in their DNA which can today be found all across the world.

CHAPTER 25: Flamboyance and Ferment—France

The history of France is bathed in blood. Millions of white Frenchmen have been slaughtered in what seems like an endless array of wars, military adventures, and natural disasters.

The story of this powerful European nation reads like a roller-coaster ride and shows how a civilization can survive even the most dramatic vicissitudes of destiny, if it keeps its population homogeneous.

The ability of France to survive centuries of dramatic events is proof that the “environmental” theory of the rise and fall of civilizations is false. If a nation can survive what the French have endured, then no social “environmental” change can destroy them.

The Franks—Clovis I Introduces Christianity

Following the fall of the Roman Empire in the West, the region now known as France was occupied by a Germanic tribe called the Franks. Originally a pagan tribe, the fate of Western civilization was changed when the Frankish king, Clovis I, converted to Christianity in 496.

The Visigoths, who had seized a portion of southern France after the collapse of the Romans, were driven out of that territory by Clovis in 507. They retreated southward to Spain, where they played a major role in that nation’s history.

CHRISTIANITY TAKES ROOT WITH CLOVIS I 496

Statues of the founder of the Frankish Empire, Clovis I, left, and his wife, Clothilde, from the Notre Dame de Corbeil near Paris. Clovis rose to prominence in 481. His most significant deed was his conversion to Christianity in 496—without this conversion it is doubtful that Christianity would ever have taken hold on the European mainland. He initiated the practice of converting white pagans by the sword when he invaded the Visigoth Empire in 507, causing them to flee south into Spain.

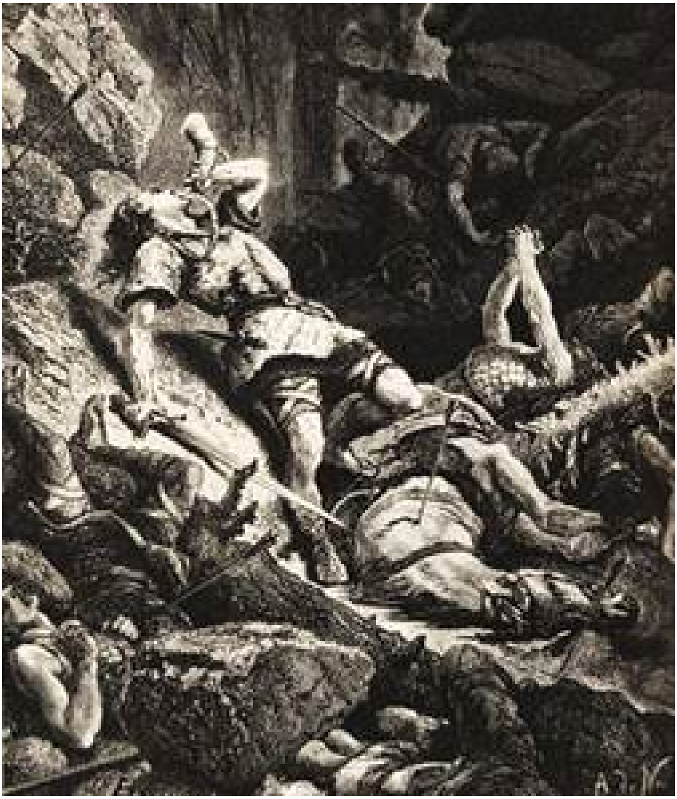
Clovis I died in 511. After his death, the Frankish kingdom was expanded to include Burgundy, Belgium, and a large part of what is today central Germany. Clovis's political legacy was marred by the division of his kingdom among his sons.

Soon infighting over inheritance and territory size became the order of the day and the Frankish empire was weakened as a result.

The division among the Franks was finally put to an end by the lord of Paris, one Charles Martel ("Charles the Hammer"), who by force of arms and willpower became sole leader of the Franks just in time to ward off a new threat which surged up from the south—the

Muslim invasion which expanded from North Africa into Spain and northern France.

ROLAND'S HEROIC STAND AGAINST BASQUES



Roland, Charlemagne's nephew, withdrawing from Spain after defeating the Moors, fought a heroic defense against an ambush by Basques in the Pyrenees Mountains between Spain and France. After killing legions of Basques, Roland then broke his sword against the rocks before he himself was killed, rather than let his famous weapon fall into the hands of the enemy.

Pepin the Short Receives Papal Blessing

Charles Martel was succeeded by his son, Pepin the Short, who reigned from 741 to 768. Pepin received sanction from the pope to be the sole ruler of France. This was the first of many times that the pope would see fit to approve leaders of states in the name of God. Pepin was then crowned by the English missionary, St. Boniface, acting on behalf of the pope, in 752.

The real reason for the pope's friendliness to Pepin was that he felt the need for some allies, as the Germanic Lombards were by this stage pouring into Italy, threatening Rome. In 756, the pope's maneuvering paid off. A Frankish army attacked the Lombards (who had firmly established themselves in northern Italy and had settlements in central and southern Italy) and forced them to cede Rome and parts of central Italy directly to the pope.

In 768, Pepin's son, Charlemagne (Charles the Great), inherited the Frankish kingdom. Taking advantage of feuding among the Moors in Spain, Charlemagne's first act was to create a buffer state between the Moors and France—an objective which was achieved in 778.

The Christianization of the Saxons

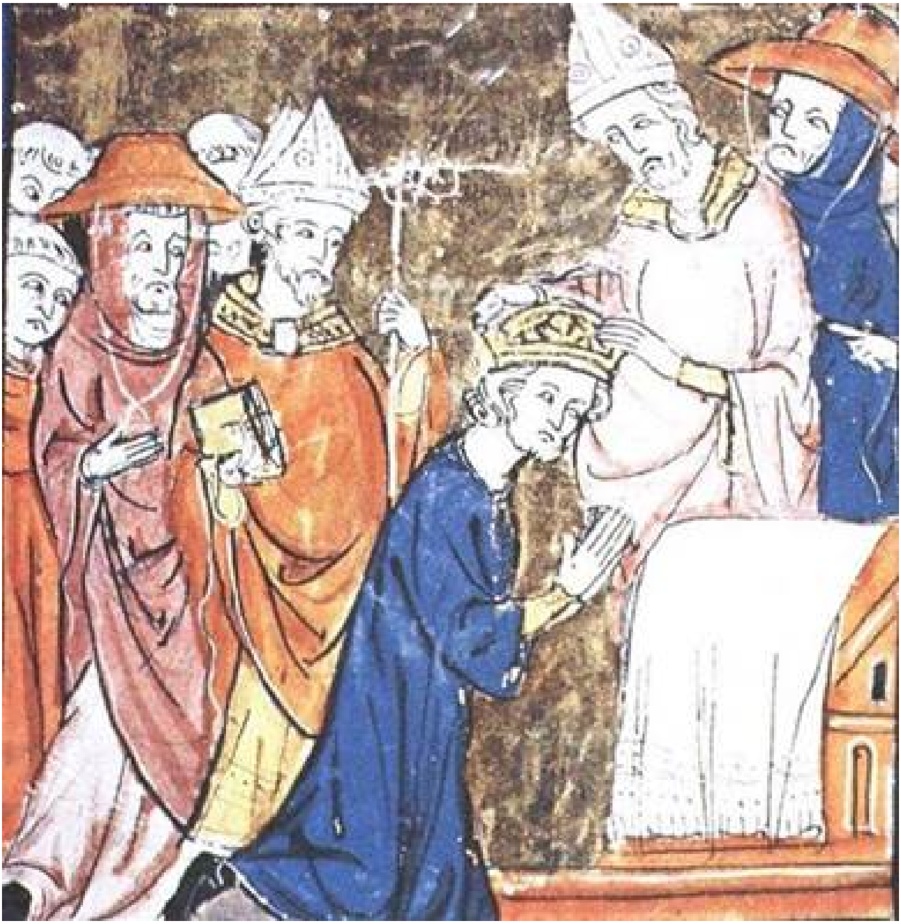
After fighting off the nonwhite Muslim invaders to the south, Charlemagne then proceeded to launch a bloody war of extermination against the Saxon and other pagan German tribes under his control. After killing thousands of pagans, he managed to create a uniform Christian kingdom—even if many of his subjects only paid lip service to the new religion.

In this way Charlemagne built up an empire which consisted of much of present-day France and Germany, establishing as his court the centrally located city Aix-La-Chapelle, or Aachen, as it was known in Germany.

Charlemagne Invades Lombardy

After expanding Christianity among the western Germans in a violent manner, Charlemagne turned his attention to the troublesome Germans in Italy—the Lombards. He invaded the Lombard kingdom in northern Italy in 774, and proceeded to swiftly defeat their army.

He then proclaimed himself king of the Lombards for good measure. Charlemagne's exploits in reuniting what had been almost all of the lands of the old Western Roman Empire (with the exception of Britain and Muslim-occupied Spain), culminated in his being crowned emperor of the "Holy Roman Empire" on December 25, 800, in Rome by the pope. The use of the title of "Holy Roman Emperor" was an attempt by Charlemagne to associate himself with the past glory of Rome.



The crowning of Charlemagne as Holy Roman Emperor by the Pope.

The reality was that the white Germanic tribes had managed to restore order out of the chaos left behind by the collapse of the multiracial Roman state.

The occupation of Austria, much of Germany, and northern Italy by the Franks did not introduce any major changes to the racial composition of these territories. They were all of the same Germanic stock, but the wholesale slaughter of those whites who refused to become Christians unquestionably had an impact upon both their numbers and their quality.

This was particularly the case with the leadership element of the Germanic tribes. Usually the biggest, bravest, and strongest members of these tribes (the original Germanics actually voted for their chiefs), were the first to be targeted for execution by the Christian “missionaries.”

Charlemagne's Empire Divided

In 814, Charlemagne died at his capital, Aix-La-Chapelle. His son, Louis the Pious, was crowned emperor but he lacked the iron will of his father to keep the Holy Roman Empire united. There was no central infrastructure and Louis soon found that he could not control all the territories, so he divided up the empire among his three sons, Charles, Lothar, and Louis.

Charles's territory became France, Louis's territory became western Germany, and Lothar's territory became the disputed land of Alsace Lorraine, over which the Germans and French fought many wars—the last of which occurred one thousand years after Charlemagne's death, in 1940.

The political divisions between the emerging French and Germans were sealed at the Treaty of Verdun in 843, which ended infighting among the three brothers and mapped each one's territory. This treaty gave political recognition to the cultural and linguistic division which took place with the Rhine River being the demarcation line. To the west of that river, French developed, and to the east, German.

The reign of Charlemagne's successor, King Louis I (crowned in 813), was marked by the first Viking raids into France and the final separation of France from Germany. By 990, the Franks had elected a new king—Hugh Capet, who established the Capetian dynasty, under whose direction the French state began to take shape.

Battle of Bouvines Adds Normandy and Anjou

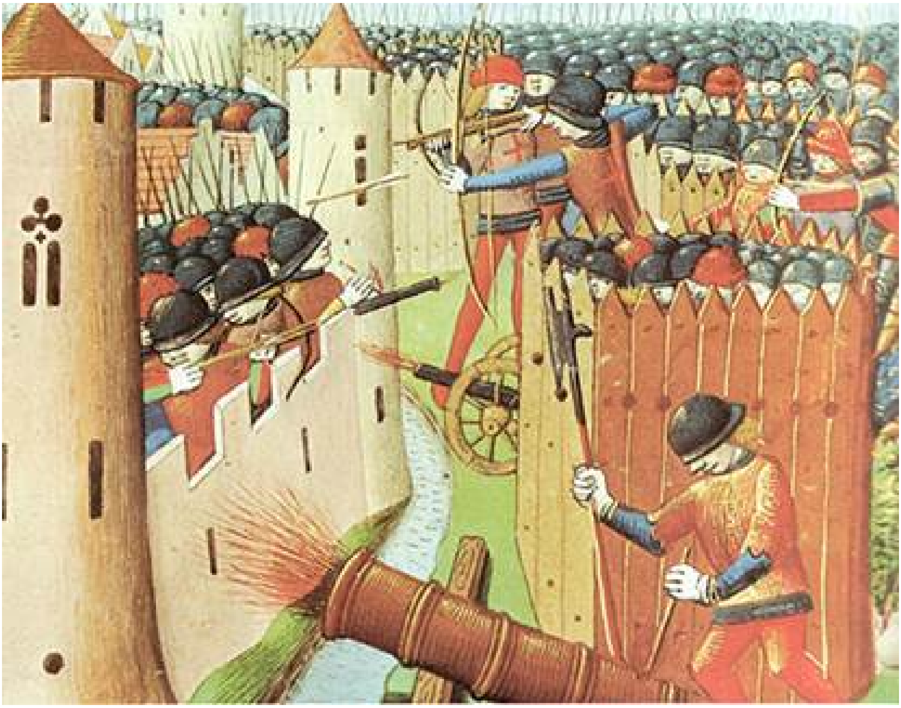
In 1214, France added Normandy and Anjou to its territory by defeating the combined armies of England and the Holy Roman Empire at the Battle of Bouvines. This was followed shortly thereafter by occupation of the provinces of Provence and Languedoc.

King Philip III, who reigned from 1270 to 1285, once more launched an attack on the Moors in Spain; the adventure ended in disaster when he was killed in battle. In the late thirteenth century, Philip IV, last of the great Capetian kings, annexed Franche-Comte, Lyon, and parts of Lorraine.

In 1305, Philip managed to arrange for a French pope, Clement V, to be elected—the first non-Italian pope since the Church had been founded. Clement V immediately moved the papal court from Rome to Avignon in France, provoking a major split and crisis in the Church.

The Hundred Years' War—French Defeated at Battles of Crecy and Agincourt

In 1337, England and France went to war after the English king Edward III issued a claim on the French throne. The war, which became known as the Hundred Years' War, lasted from 1337 to 1453. It started with the English defeating a French fleet off the coast of the Netherlands, at the Battle of Sluis, and then landing in France.



The Siege of Orleans, notable for one of the earliest use of canon, as in this contemporary depiction, in siege warfare.

The first major land battle took place at Crecy-en-Ponthieu in 1346, and was again won by the English, who then launched a two year siege of Calais, which finally fell in 1348. In 1415, the English king, Henry V, launched a new invasion of France and defeated the French at the famous Battle of Agincourt. The English archers had used their new secret weapon, the longbow, which gave them a vastly superior range. They were able to launch a torrent of arrows upon the French before the latter could even respond.

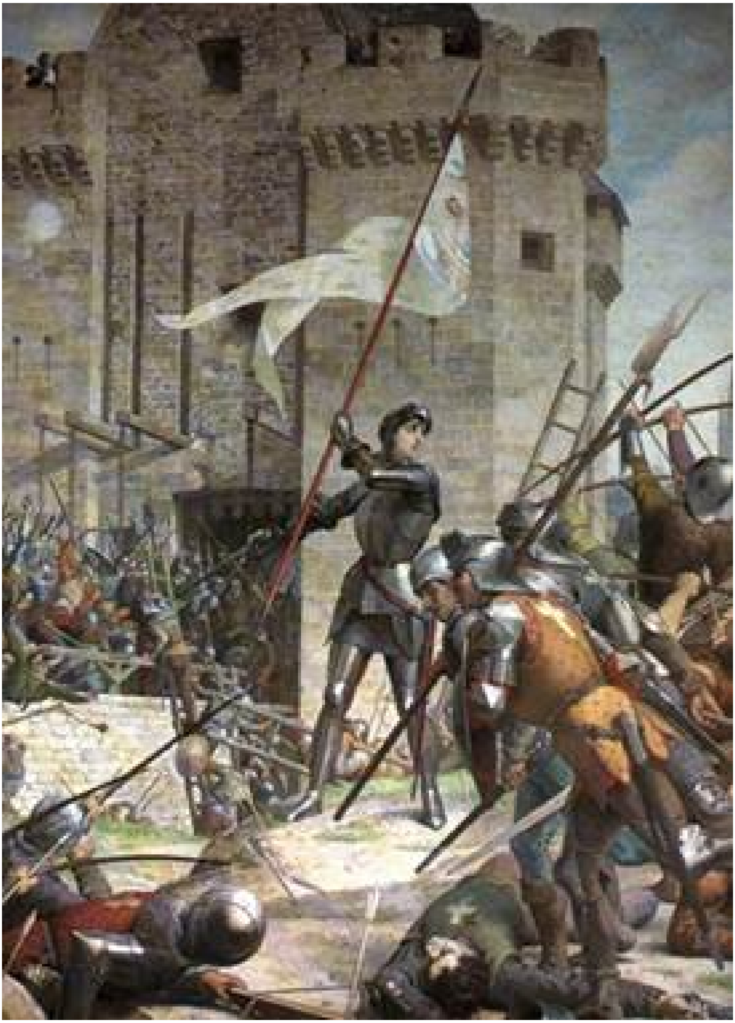
Black Death Kills a Third of All the French

Defeat at the hands of the English was only one of France's problems at this time. A plague (thought to be the bubonic plague) swept through the country from 1361 to 1438, killing one third of the population.

Joan of Arc and French Victory

France’s revival under Charles VII (1422–1461) was begun by a peasant, Joan of Arc, whose leadership inspired the French. After presenting herself to the king as a volunteer for France, Joan personally played a major part in the lifting of the siege of Orleans. Captured by the English, she was burned at the stake upon the insistence of French vassals of the English. The war continued for another twenty years after Joan’s death, but the French never lost the initiative and in 1453, they entered Bordeaux. The English were forced to surrender, having lost the Hundred Years’ War. They surrendered all their territory in France with the exception of Calais.

JOAN OF ARC—WARRIOR PEASANT GIRL WHO INSPIRED FRANCE TO EXPEL ENGLISH



Dressed in full armor, Joan of Arc leads French troops during the siege of Orleans. The farm girl, a mere eighteen years old when she led a French army against the English in 1430, wanted to go home after the capture of Rheims, but the French monarchy refused to grant her permission to leave. All accounts of Joan have it that she was not only an inspiring leader, but also—rare among military leaders of her time—compassionate with captives. In the middle of one battle she helped a seriously wounded English soldier. She also broke down and wept when several English soldiers were drowned in a moat while attempting to escape the French. Joan was eventually captured and, at the insistence of French vassals of the English, put on trial and burned at the stake on May 30, 1431. She was canonized as a saint in 1920, and is to this day the national heroine of France.

The peace which followed the end of the Hundred Years' War was marked by a time of increasing prosperity and growth. Under King Francis I (1515–1547), the French Renaissance took hold, producing some of the finest works of that period.

At the same time France also started a period of colonial expansion, occupying large parts of North America, Asia, and northwest Africa. Like Portugal and Spain, these colonies were for the greatest part exploited economically, and no conscious effort was made to populate them with any significant white French populations. The only exception was the colony of Algeria and one region in North America, which later became the Canadian province of Quebec.

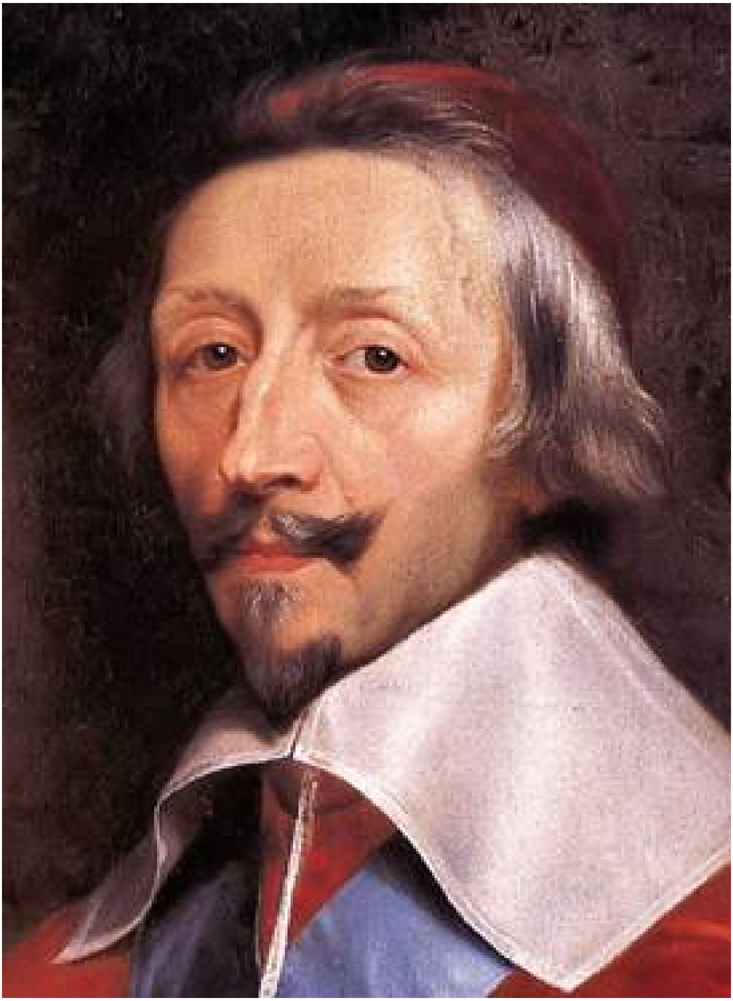
The Reformation and Catholic Persecution of the Protestants

The advent of the Protestant rebellion against Catholicism spread to France as it did to almost every other country in Europe. In France, as elsewhere, it provoked fierce Catholic persecution of the Protestant causes, and thousands of Frenchmen died in the resultant conflict, although the aggression was usually exclusively directed by the Catholics. The most infamous of these events was the 1572 St. Bartholomew's Day massacre, when twenty thousand Protestants were killed in a coordinated Catholic attack.

The wars ended in 1598, when the French king Henry IV issued the Edict of Nantes, which granted freedom of religion in France.

The rest of Henry's reign ushered in a period of recovery from the devastation and disruption of the religious conflict, and was marked by renewed economic growth. Greatly aiding the ordinary white peasantry, Henry canceled arrears in land taxes, forbade seizure of livestock or tools by creditors, made public lands available for purchase below market price, and restricted nobles' hunting rights over cultivated fields. By the close of the seventeenth century's first decade, the economy was thriving and royal authority was again firmly established.

WORLD'S FIRST "PRIME MINISTER"—CARDINAL RICHELIEU



Armand Jean du Plessis de Richelieu, also known as Cardinal-Duc de Richelieu, became the French king Louis XIII's chief minister in 1624. As de facto ruler of France, Richelieu is widely regarded as the world's first prime minister. Born in 1585, he became a bishop in 1608 but soon entered politics, becoming Secretary of State in 1616. His influence was far-reaching and he created institutions such as the Académie française which still functions today. His major domestic transformation was the centralization of power, which required a reduction in autonomy of the French nobility. Although a Catholic, he was quick to make alliances with Protestant powers in order to check the Austro–Spanish Habsburg dynasty from expanding against French interests. This policy saw him intervene in the Catholic/Protestant Thirty Years' War on the side of the Protestant forces, much to the consternation of his domestic Catholic opponents. Richelieu retained his position of influence until his death in 1642.

Thirty Years' War

The reign of the next French king, Louis XIII, was notable largely because of the appointment of Armand du Plessis as prime minister. Du Plessis, who became known as Cardinal de Richelieu, was the de facto ruler of France for eighteen years. Richelieu was an adept statesman, firmly entrenching the power of the king's office through the breaking down of the feudal system and the power of the regional nobility.

However, Richelieu's efforts were largely undone by the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648). That was started as a peasant revolt in Bohemia which was related to the divide between Catholic and Protestant, but it soon involved much of mainland Europe. The French tried—but failed—to take advantage of the confusion to eliminate rivals such as the royal house of Hapsburg in Germany. The war financially exhausted France, and the country was teetering on economic collapse when the five-year-old Louis XIV inherited the throne upon his father's death in 1643.

The Sun King—Louis XIV—Competent Ruler

Louis XIV grew into a competent ruler. He engaged in many great building works, including the famous Palace of Versailles outside Paris, which can still be viewed in its original setting to this day.

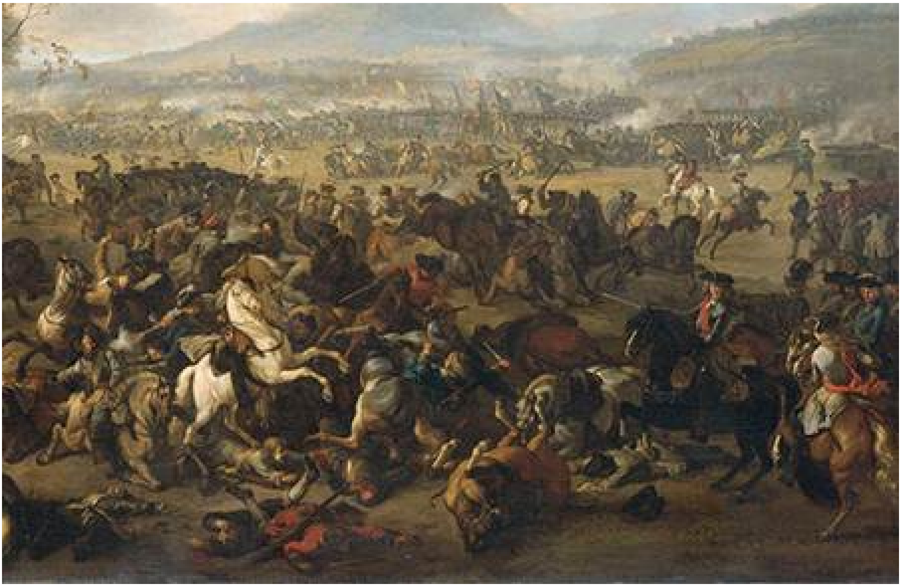
However, Louis XIV once again engaged France in four different wars against the by now traditional foes, the Germans, and also in 1685, revoked the Edict of Nantes, declaring France to be a Catholic state once again. Apart from the thousands of Frenchmen killed in the wars, over two hundred thousand of the most educated and skilled white Frenchmen—who tended to form the majority of the Protestants—fled the country, settling in North America, South Africa, and other European countries.

War of the Spanish Succession—Prevents Union between France and Spain

France became entangled with the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1704) along with a number of European nations. This war started when the childless king of Spain, Charles II, willed his kingdom and its empire to France on his deathbed. Holland, Austria, and the other smaller states making up the Holy Roman Empire, reacted with shock, as did England.

The addition of Spain to France's already significant strength would make her the most powerful country in Europe, so the other nations banded together and made war on France to prevent its union with Spain.

Though the decisive battles were fought in Europe, the war also saw clashes in the colonies. In this way, British and French settlements in North America fought with each other as well, sometimes involving the native Indian population in a series of battles known as the French and Indian Wars.



The Battle of Ramillies, 1706.

The French were defeated at the battles of Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), and Malplaquet (1709) by armies led by the English Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy.

(The latter was, ironically, a Frenchman who had renounced France and offered his services to Austria instead.) Despite these defeats, the war dragged on inconclusively. Finally the Spanish solved the problem by electing a new king, and the war ended in 1714 with the Peace of Utrecht.

Slide into Revolution

Although France engaged in the slave trade along with some other European nations, it did not follow the path of Spain and Portugal in importing nonwhite slaves into its own territory in significant numbers.

Only a very small number of black slaves were ever brought into France. However, the French nobility and kings after Louis XIV became ever more despotic and mismanaged the economy, leading to a large degree of impoverishment.

The French kings became increasingly anti-Jewish, in line with other fanatical Catholic nations, and restrictions on Jews and their activities became ever tighter. In particular, the accusation was made that the Jews engaged in exploitative financial practices (their preeminence in the banking world fueled these allegations).

France also engaged in yet more European wars:

- The War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748, over the right of Empress Maria Theresa of Austria to rule over Austrian lands inherited from her father; and

- The Seven Years' War, fought from 1756 to 1763. This was a conflict between Austria and Prussia which involved all the major European powers who took the opportunity to settle their own scores. In France's case they formed part of the colonial wars with the English in North America. By the time these wars ended, France had lost almost all of its colonial empire in America and in India. All of these wars further strained the French economy and when Louis XVI ascended to the throne in 1774, the country was in urgent need of economic and social reform.

Louis XVI refused to attend to the problems, which gave the anarchists in French society the chance to capitalize upon the growing dissent with royal rule. Finally, a significant number of Frenchmen who were involved in the American War of Independence became inspired with the principles of republicanism and democracy. This sentiment was brought back to France and added to the brew.

PALACE OF VERSAILLES HIGHLIGHTS CAUSE OF REVOLUTION

The magnificent Palace of Versailles outside Paris, started in 1664 and completed in 1741, highlighted the huge disparity between the French nobility and the peasantry. Living a life of opulence of which the ordinary folk could only dream, the nobility and the French monarchy became isolated from the needs of the people. This division led directly to the French Revolution of 1789.

The French Revolution of 1789

In 1789, a convocation of the long dormant “estates general” (or a meeting of the French people) was held. Although originally intended to discuss the growing social and economic crisis, the meeting ended up in open revolt when the “third estate” (or the commoner masses) turned to violence.

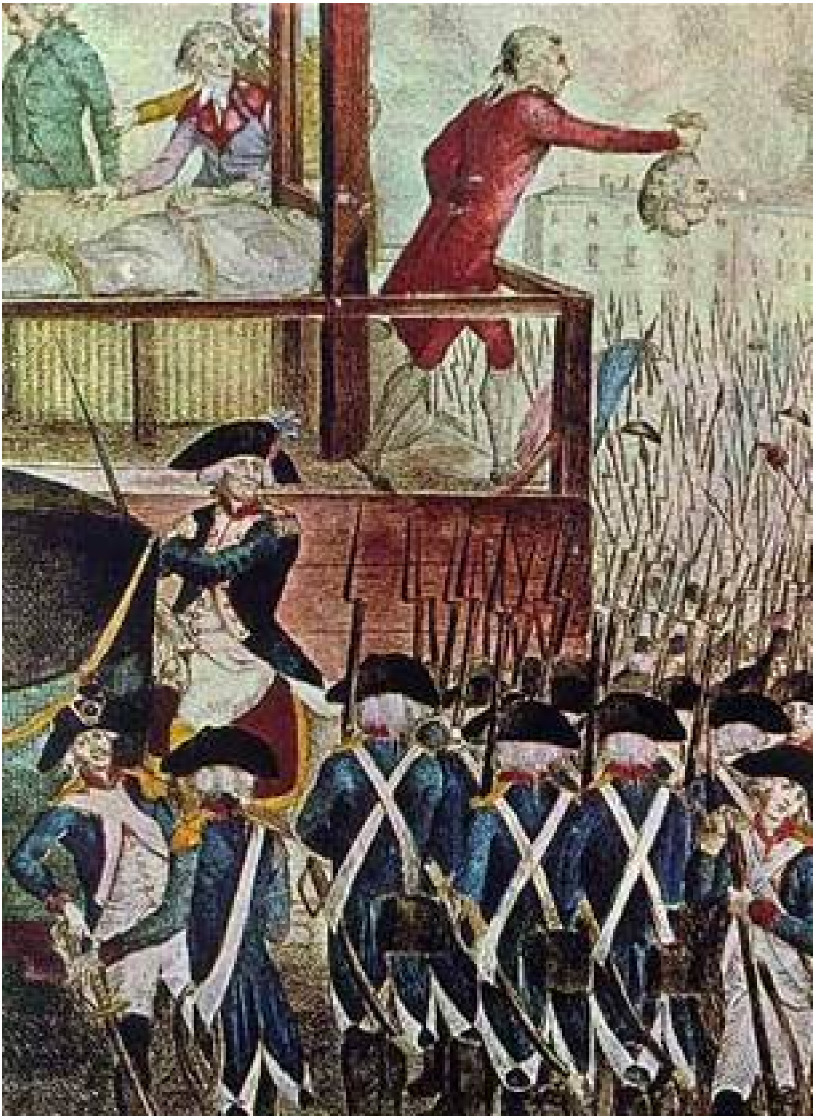
A large mob stormed a royal prison, known as the Bastille, in central Paris, marking the beginning of a revolt which would change France forever. The popular uprising resulted in the creation of a constitutional monarchy with a parliament elected indirectly by taxpaying citizens. This state lasted just over a year, but started to collapse when the king and his family were captured trying to flee France.

The other nations of Europe, and the royal families in particular, looked on in horror. Concerned that the anti-monarchical sentiment would spread, many nations declared war on France with the intention of stamping out the revolution. Prussia invaded France from the east, nearly capturing Paris.

The English attacked Toulon and the Austrians invaded after a personal appeal from Queen Marie Antoinette (who was a blood relation of the Austrian emperor). Finally, Spain invaded France by launching an army across the Pyrenees Mountains. France was put under siege from all sides.

A series of military defeats, climaxing in April 1792, generated another popular insurrection. A mob stormed the Palace of Versailles in August and the royal family were seized and charged with treason. Found guilty, Louis XVI and his wife were publicly executed by guillotine in January and October 1793 respectively.

BLONDS FOR EXECUTION—KING GUILLOTINED 1793



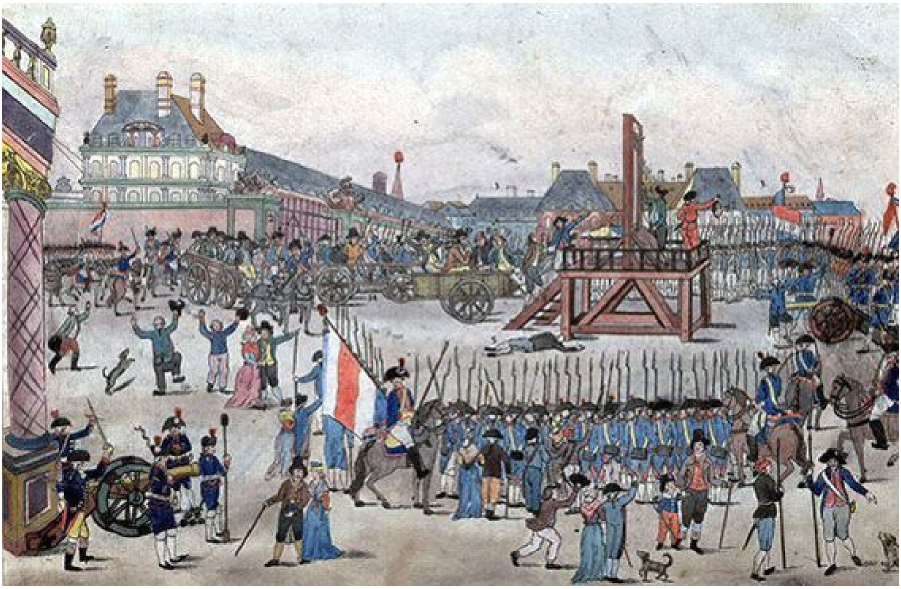
1793—After trying to flee France, King Louis XVI of France is beheaded in Paris on the square now known as the Place de la Concorde. His head was displayed to the waiting mob after his execution. Often it was enough for a person just to have blond hair to be accused of being a nobleman. Even though this was not always true, the end result was that the number of blond haired people in France was much reduced by these targeted executions.

The Reign of Terror

The French Revolution also took on a subracial undertone. Often people were deemed to be a member of the nobility simply because they had blond hair, and many innocent people were executed for no other reason.

This was taken to an extreme under a bloodthirsty period known as the "reign of terror" and led to civil and foreign wars for ten years. During this period, revolutionary tribunals and commissions ordered the beheading of nearly seventeen thousand people. When the number of Frenchmen who died in prison or who were shot out of hand is added in, the victims of the Reign of Terror totaled approximately forty thousand. Of those executed, approximately 8 percent were nobles, 6 percent were members of the clergy, 14 percent belonged to the middle class, and 70 percent were workers or peasants charged with draft dodging, desertion, hoarding, rebellion, and various other "anti-revolutionary" crimes.

One step taken by the new French Republic was the official emancipation of the French Jews. For the first time they were allowed to participate fully in public office in France. For this reason French and European Jewry became outspoken supporters of the revolution.



Public beheadings became the order of the day during the Revolution. This one depicts the execution of Robespierre, one of the architects of the Reign of Terror.

Revolution Launches Anti-Corruption and Anti-Christian Drive

Striving to establish a "Republic of Virtue," the leaders of the revolution stressed devotion to the republic and instituted measures against corruption and hoarding. This was followed by the November 1793 closing of all churches in the Commune of Paris, a measure soon copied by authorities elsewhere in France.

A non-Christian cult was established, known as the Cult of Reason, with its main center being the Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris, which was specifically desanctified for this purpose.

Napoleon—Crushes Royalist Uprising

With a superhuman effort, France turned the military front around. At the end of 1794, French forces overran the Austrian Netherlands, occupied the United Netherlands (which they reorganized as the Batavia Republic—later to become the Netherlands), and routed the allied Prussian–Austrian armies on the Rhine River border.

These defeats caused the collapse of the anti-French coalition and in April 1795, the Treaty of Basel saw Prussia and a number of smaller German states end hostilities. In July, Spain also withdrew from the war against the French Republic, leaving Britain and Austria as the only large powers still formally at war with France. The Austrians were still incensed at the execution of Marie Antoinette. However, a stalemate was reached, and relative peace resulted for more than a year.

In Paris, a new constitution creating a republic had been drafted, containing strong clauses preventing the return of any monarchy. Parisian royalists objected to these clauses and on October 1795, launched their own uprising in Paris.

The royalist uprising was crushed by troops under the command of a then little known French general, Napoleon Bonaparte. Insurrection and chaos continued. The new constitution was battered by a succession of mostly unsuccessful coups and intrigues. Finally in 1799, Bonaparte and a group of supporters seized control of the French government and reestablished autocratic rule under what became known as the Consulate.

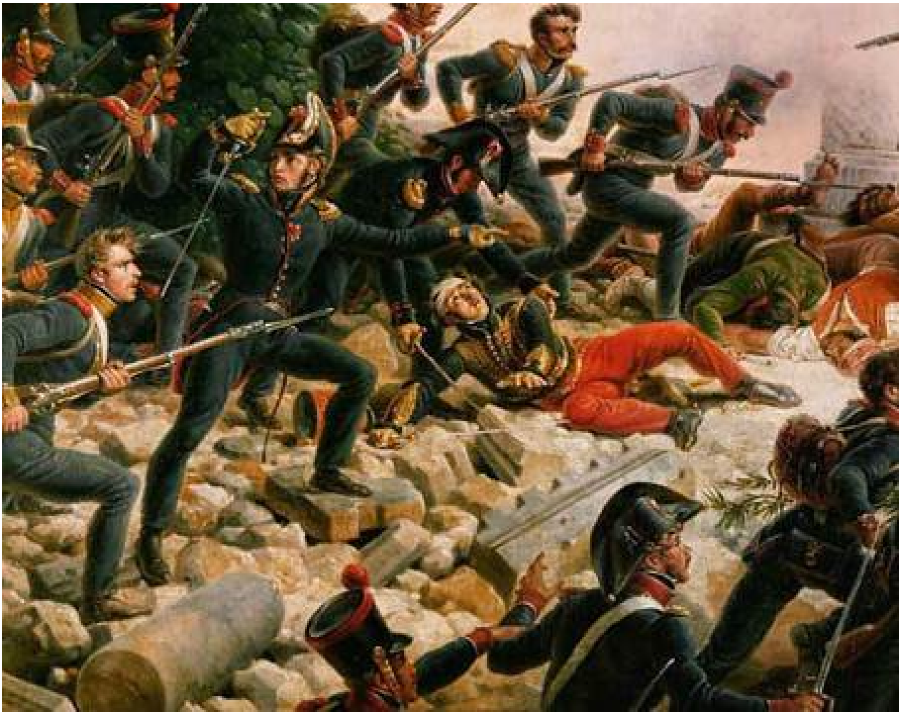
The Napoleonic Wars—Drastic Consequences

The wars unleashed as a result of the French Revolution became known as the Napoleonic Wars. They engulfed Europe for nearly sixteen years and had a number of significant consequences, the most important of which was a severe depopulation of France, with over a million Frenchmen killed. The history of the wars and Napoleon's career are reviewed in full in the next chapter.

Apart from his military campaigns, Napoleon also became famous for his codification of French law (known as the Napoleonic Code), which to this day remains the basis for France's legal system. Despite this Code guaranteeing freedom of association and political expression, it was apparent that Napoleon himself did not take the wording seriously. In 1809, he established a French Empire and declared himself emperor.

War with almost every other European nation then followed. Through an astonishing feat of arms and military genius, Napoleon managed to defeat almost all of his opponents. Only his invasion of Russia in 1812 was his undoing. The losses suffered there led to his downfall, and the French army was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig in 1813. After that, France was invaded. Napoleon abdicated and was exiled to the island of Elba. This led the way to the restoration of the French monarchy, with the younger brother of the executed Louis XVI made king.

Napoleonic Wars in Spain



The assault on the monastery of Saint Engracia by French troops in 1809.

A million French soldiers were killed in the Napoleonic Wars, a period which saw a major escalation in battlefield deaths as a consequence of increased mass firepower.

The power of Napoleon's personality was revealed when he dramatically escaped from Elba, landed in France, and in a triumphant march on Paris, once again raised a French army. In 1815, he reestablished his empire, but a coalition of European powers defeated him at the Battle of Waterloo that same year, and he was exiled to the island of St. Helena, where he died (allegedly poisoned) in 1821.

The allied victors occupied nearly two thirds of France after the Battle of Waterloo and held it for five years, imposing heavy fines upon the hapless French for having once again supported Napoleon.

Racial Effects of the Revolution

Although the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars did not result in the importation of any large numbers of nonwhites into France, huge numbers of white Frenchmen, both nobles and commoners, lost their lives in the period from 1789 to 1815.

The Napoleonic Wars alone resulted in the deaths of over a million white Frenchmen. This was a huge slice of the population at that time, possibly as much as 35 percent of all able-bodied Frenchmen.

The French Revolution dealt a serious blow to the Nordic element of French society, as those with Nordic features were associated with nobility and therefore were easy targets for the revolutionary mobs. This led to a denordicization of the French population which is still evident today in the relatively small number of blonds found there.

The Monarchy Restored—Franchise Limited to One Hundred Thousand People

With the expulsion of Napoleon, the French monarchy was once again restored in the person of Louis XVIII, in terms of a new constitution which created a new parliamentary democracy—with the right to vote limited to less than one hundred thousand property owners.

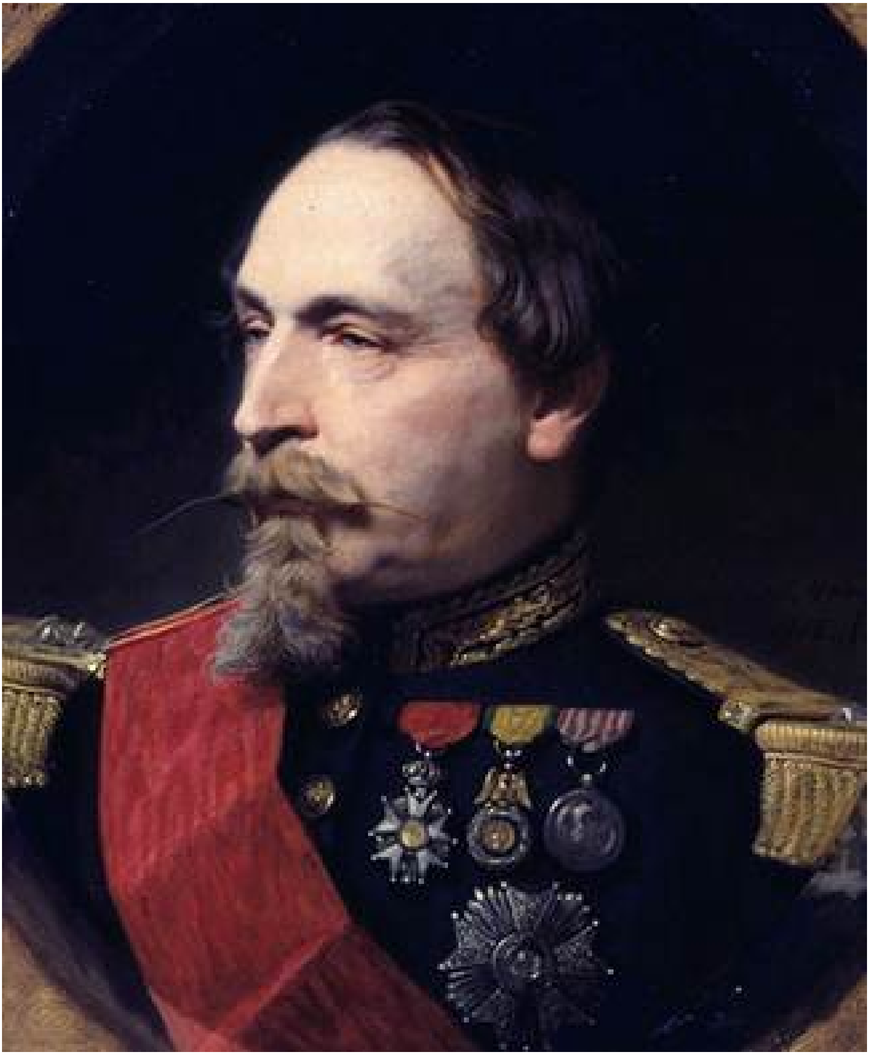
In 1830, the ruling French king, Charles V, conflicted with the elected parliament on a number of domestic issues. He then dissolved the parliament, reduced the number of voters, and issued restrictions on the freedom of the press. Another popular uprising took place, and after three days of heavy street fighting in Paris, the royal forces were driven from the capital, and Charles abdicated.

The parliament reconvened and called to the throne Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, who was head of the younger branch of the Bourbon family. Under the new rule, a period of peace and progress ensued.

A school law in 1833 required every region to set up and run a primary school for boys, free to those who could not afford to pay tuition and, in 1842, a railway law set in motion the creation of the French national railway network.

After 1849, the industrial revolution took root in France, transforming it within a few decades into one of the leading industrial states of Europe.

LOUIS NAPOLEON III—DEFEATED BY PRUSSIANS



Louis Napoleon, or Napoleon III, of France. Trading upon the name of his famous uncle, Louis Napoleon became an elected monarch of France after seizing power unconstitutionally. He was an effective leader and relatively popular—until his army was defeated during the 1871 Franco–Prussian War. Captured by the Prussians, Louis Napoleon heard from the Germans that he had been deposed and that a Third French Republic had been declared.

1848 Revolution and Napoleon III

In 1848, a number of mini-French revolutions spread across Europe as the populations became increasingly desirous of greater reforms from their monarchical rulers. Louis Philippe consistently refused requests to extend the franchise.

A clash between troops and pro-republic demonstrators in Paris in February 1848 led to a full-scale revolution which saw the king abdicate (obviously he didn't want to be beheaded like the last French king caught up in a revolution) and a republic declared—the Second French Republic.

The Second Republic and the Second Empire

The Second Republic's constitution created a presidential republic with a parliament elected by universal male suffrage.

Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, won the presidency by an overwhelming vote. Although the elections had produced a two thirds majority of conservatives, it appeared that the radical republicans would win the 1852 election. Louis Napoleon, posing as the savior of society from radical revolution, seized power in a coup in December 1851, restoring the empire and giving himself the title of Napoleon III (Napoleon I's son, Napoleon II, never reigned).

Initially, Napoleon III governed France as an autocrat. As the economy improved, he introduced a program of reforms, and by 1870 had created a constitutional monarchy system of government.

Franco–Prussian War and the Third Republic

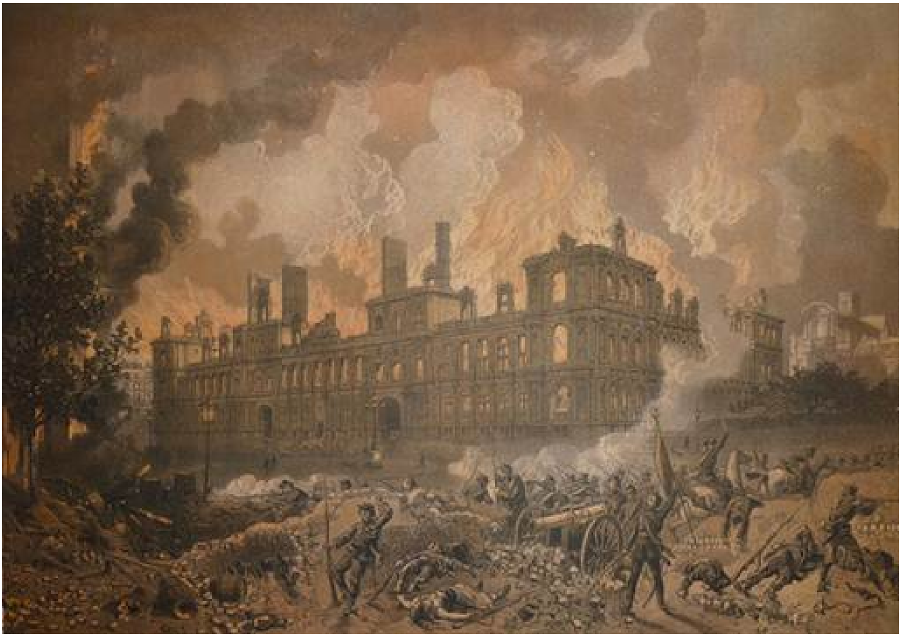
In 1870, a crisis over the succession to the Spanish throne led to a war between France and the growing power of Prussia, which was then engaged in a program of unification of the German states. The French troops were decimated by the far better equipped and trained Prussians, and in September 1870, Napoleon III and his largest army surrendered at Sedan. When this news reached Paris, republicans declared the Third Republic and vowed to carry on the war.

The Germans then advanced to Paris and besieged the city for four months. In January 1871, starved of food and supplies, the French capitulated. In terms of the treaty which ended the war, France ceded to Germany the Alsace Lorraine region and undertook to pay indemnity to the Germans for damage caused during the war. The Germans also took the opportunity to crown the Prussian king, Wilhelm I, as king of Germany, in the Palace of Versailles.

World's First Communist Uprising

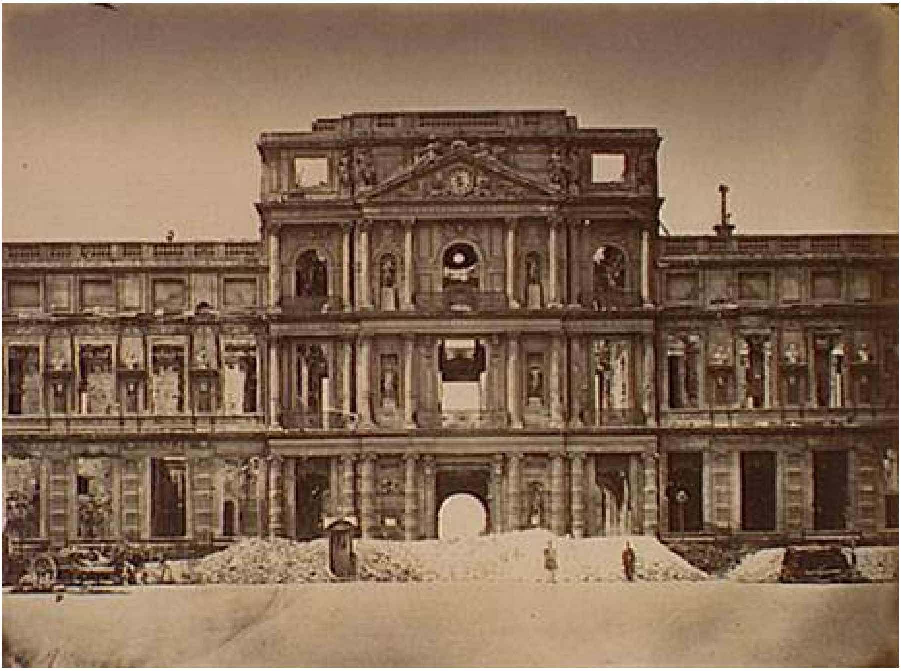
The new French government had no sooner ended the war with Germany than it was faced with civil war. In March 1871, radical republicans—calling themselves Communists—went into open revolt in Paris and set up an independent city government, the Commune of Paris. They held the capital for two months before being crushed in a week of bloody street fighting that left more than twenty thousand dead—the first Communist revolution in the world.

WORLD'S FIRST COMMUNIST REVOLUTION COLLAPSES IN FLAMES 1871



The world's first Communist revolution. France's troubles did not end with the defeat of her army by the Prussians in 1871. Following the downfall of Emperor Louis Napoleon, Communists declared a "Communistic Republic" in Paris on March 28, 1871. The French army moved to suppress the revolution and attacked Paris, but for two months the Parisians, armed with the weapons they had been issued during the Franco–Prussian War and which they had been allowed to keep, resisted. After a series of street fights in some of the city's most well-known thoroughfares, the Communists were defeated. A few stragglers took their revenge by burning down some of the city's most famous landmarks, including the Tuileries Palace which was razed.

Below: This picture, taken after the suppression of the uprising, shows the burned out shell of the palace .

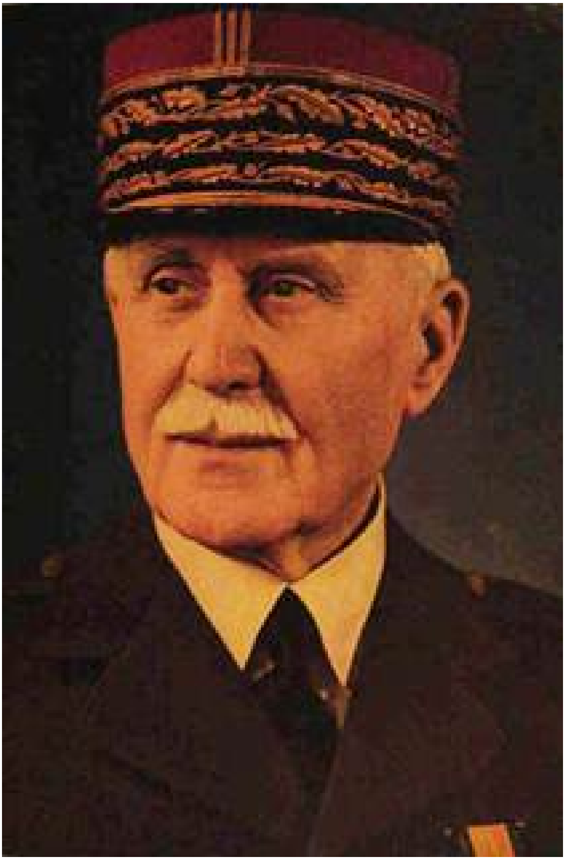


The last three decades of the nineteenth century were marked by a period of economic growth once again, with France rebuilding an extensive colonial empire in Africa and Asia. In Europe, however, war was once again looming, with France, Britain, and Russia united in the Triple Entente, facing the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria–Hungary, and Italy.

WWI—Quarter of Young Frenchmen Killed

The outbreak of the First World War saw parts of eastern France occupied by the Germans for most of the duration of the war. At the closing stages of the conflict, the Germans penetrated to within sixty miles of Paris, with the city coming under barrage from the massive German artillery pieces.

PETAIN, HERO OF VERDUN, SAVES FRANCE 1917



A French national hero—Marshal Henri Petain poses with his fellow generals just before the Battle of Verdun in 1916. Petain managed to rally the French forces in 1917 and stave off what seemed like certain defeat by the Germans.

However, Germany and Austria were defeated, and France regained her occupied lands and occupied pieces of Germany as part of a reparations program. Although France emerged as a victor at the end of the war, the cost in racial terms was devastating: 1.3 million men, a quarter of all white Frenchmen between the ages of eighteen and thirty, had been killed.

Three Million Nonwhite Immigrants after WWI

By 1919, the French population had been battered by more than two centuries of major wars, and had started to go into a serious decline. The French government then started allowing French speaking black Africans and nonwhite Algerians into France, mainly for use as labor, but also as army troops, in order to make up population shortfalls.

In this way the German territory of the Rhineland was occupied by black French troops, creating much anger among the Germans and becoming a political issue there.

BLACK "FRENCH" TROOPS OCCUPY RUHR IN GERMANY

The French army deployed African troops in the Ruhr after World War I. Eventually some five hundred mixed-race children were born from unions between these black soldiers and German women.

According to official French statistics, some three million North African/Arabic mixed-race and African blacks, all from the French colonies, immigrated into France during the period 1919–1927. (This figure is probably an underestimation, as it does not take into account illegal immigration, which probably accounted for at least a half million more.) Although the majority of Frenchmen did not integrate with this nonwhite influx, a significant minority did, creating the inappropriately named "Mediterranean" look associated with the French in certain areas.

This integration process did not, however, reach anywhere near the level of the Spanish, and was certainly nowhere near the Portuguese example. Nonetheless, it is possible to see the traces of the large black influx in a minority of Frenchmen to this day.

World War II—Vichy Collaboration with Nazis

The rise of Nazi Germany during the 1930s saw a surge in support for French right-wing parties espousing similar politics. In reaction to this, the Radical-Socialist, Socialist, and Communist parties formed an alliance in 1934, called the "Popular Front to Defend the Republic."

By combining their votes, the Popular Front managed to win a majority in the French parliament, and under the Jewish French Prime Minister, Leon Blum, instituted many anti-democratic policies.

For example, Blum outlawed and dissolved the right-wing parties, ironically mirroring Adolf Hitler's dissolution of opposition parties in Germany.

The outbreak of the Second World War in 1939 saw France beaten by the revitalized German army in only six weeks in 1940. Although a small number of French soldiers escaped to Britain (and there fought on as the "Free French" under their dynamic leader Charles de Gaulle), French armies played only a minor role in the subsequent defeat of Germany.

The part of France which was unoccupied by the German army ruled itself. This area, known as Vichy France, actively cooperated with the Germans and enacted its own anti-Jewish laws and generally established pro-German policies.

Vichy France was led by one of the most decorated French generals of the First World War, Philippe Petain (who had rallied France when it was on the point of collapse in 1917).

Vichy France was occupied by the Germans in 1942, and the whole country remained under German occupation until 1944, when the Germans were driven out by an Allied invasion.

The Fourth Republic and the Colonial Wars

In 1945, the Free French leader, Charles de Gaulle, established a provisional government in France. He stepped down in 1946 when a democratic constitution and the Fourth Republic were established. The Fourth Republic engaged in a series of social and economic reforms, but its colonial policy ultimately led to its downfall.

As the decolonization fervor swept through the Third World after the end of the Second World War, the French government found itself fighting a number of bitter regional conflicts.

In French Indo-China (also known as Vietnam) a nine year war with native guerrillas ended in 1995 with a French withdrawal—after ninety-two thousand French soldiers had died in the conflict. In

Algeria, native nationalists began a guerrilla war against French rule in 1954. In May 1958, militant French army officers and white settlers in Algeria, concerned that the French government was going to hand over control of the colony to the nonwhites, seized control of Algiers. The army command supported them, and a military coup in France seemed imminent.

The Fifth Republic—De Gaulle Returns

As chaos threatened to engulf France as well, General de Gaulle, who had been living in political retirement, was called by the French parliament to restore order. They voted him full powers to govern the country for six months and to prepare a new constitution.

De Gaulle redrafted the constitution to grant the president greater powers. This constitution was approved in 1959 and the Fifth Republic was declared. In 1960, the constitution was once again amended to grant the French colonies independence. From that time on, France began dispossessing itself of its colonies, granting independence to a number of states in Africa. De Gaulle pressed ahead with negotiations to hand Algeria over to Arab rule, a process which sparked off white riots in Algiers. Nonetheless, Algeria became independent in 1961.

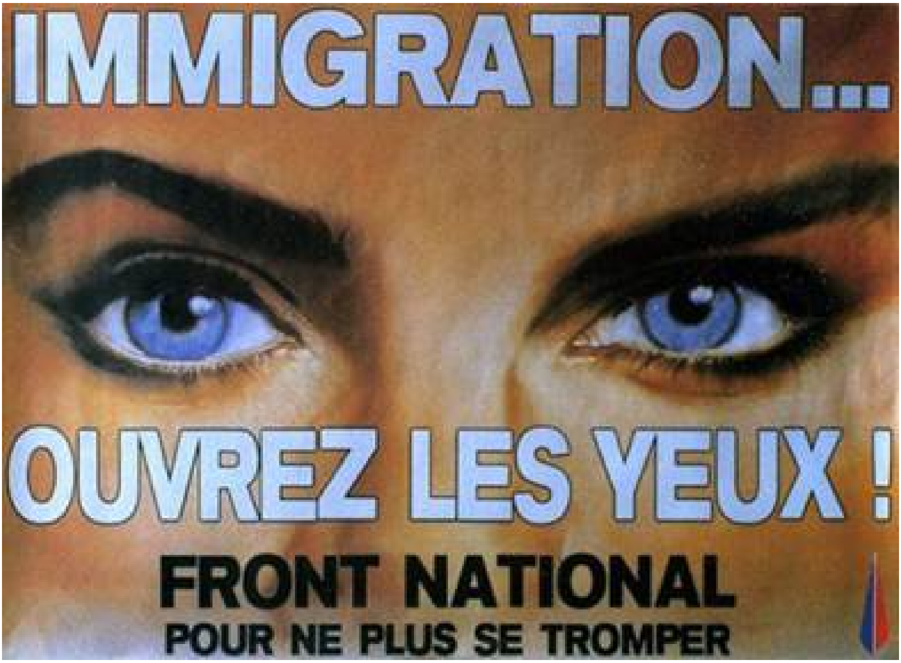
CHARLES DE GAULLE ON THIRD WORLD IMMIGRATION

"It is very good that there be yellow Frenchmen, black Frenchmen, brown Frenchmen. They prove that France is open to all races and that she has a universal mission. But on the condition that they remain a small minority. Otherwise, France would no longer be France. We are after all primarily a European people of the white race, of Greek and Latin culture, and of the Christian faith. Try to mix oil and vinegar. Shake the bottle. In a moment they will separate again. Arabs are Arabs and French are French. Do you believe that the French nation can absorb ten million Muslims, who perhaps tomorrow will be twenty million and the day after forty million? If we adopt integration, if all the Arabs and Berbers of Algeria were considered as Frenchmen, what would prevent them from coming to settle in mainland France where the standard of living is so much higher? My village would no longer be called Colombey-les-Deux-Eglises, but Colombey-les-deux-Mosquées!"—Charles de Gaulle, French President, 1959.

Concern over Nonwhite Immigration

In 1969, de Gaulle resigned amidst countrywide strikes and the aftermath of a violent student riot in Paris the previous year. Since then France has been ruled alternatively by Socialist or Conservative governments.

Since the 1980s, an ever increasing number of nonwhite immigrants into France has led to the establishment of a party dedicated to clamping down on immigration, the Front National, which in the mid-1990s was polling nearly 17 percent (or around 4.5 million votes).


IMMIGRATION...
OUVREZ LES YEUX !
FRONT NATIONAL
POUR NE PLUS SE TROMPER

A Front National election poster, warning voters to open their eyes to the dangers of mass immigration from the Third World.

France has paid the price for mass Third World immigration. Large-scale riots have broken out time and time again in the immigrant-dominated areas around Paris and other major centers. Nonwhite riots in Paris and other French cities have become annual events since 2005. The riots have increased in intensity and seriousness as the immigrant population has grown.

France's Lesson—Race Survives All

So it was that France survived the most extreme natural and manmade disasters (the plague and endless wars) on a scale almost without comparison. Each time it managed to recuperate without sinking into oblivion. The question arises: why could France withstand all these tribulations and still survive, while the Sumerians, Persians, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans all collapsed?

None of these great civilizations were put under any greater environmentally caused pressure than that to which France was subjected. The crucial reason for the survival of France (and the crumbling into ruins of the old civilizations) was that the white French people did not disappear or become a minority in their own country. They were thus able to keep their society functioning—unlike the populations of each of the aforementioned ancient civilizations.

Only at the start of the twentieth century, with the trend speeding up dramatically in the last quarter, did the French racial mix started to shift significantly.

CHAPTER 26: Destiny and Destruction—Napoleon Bonaparte

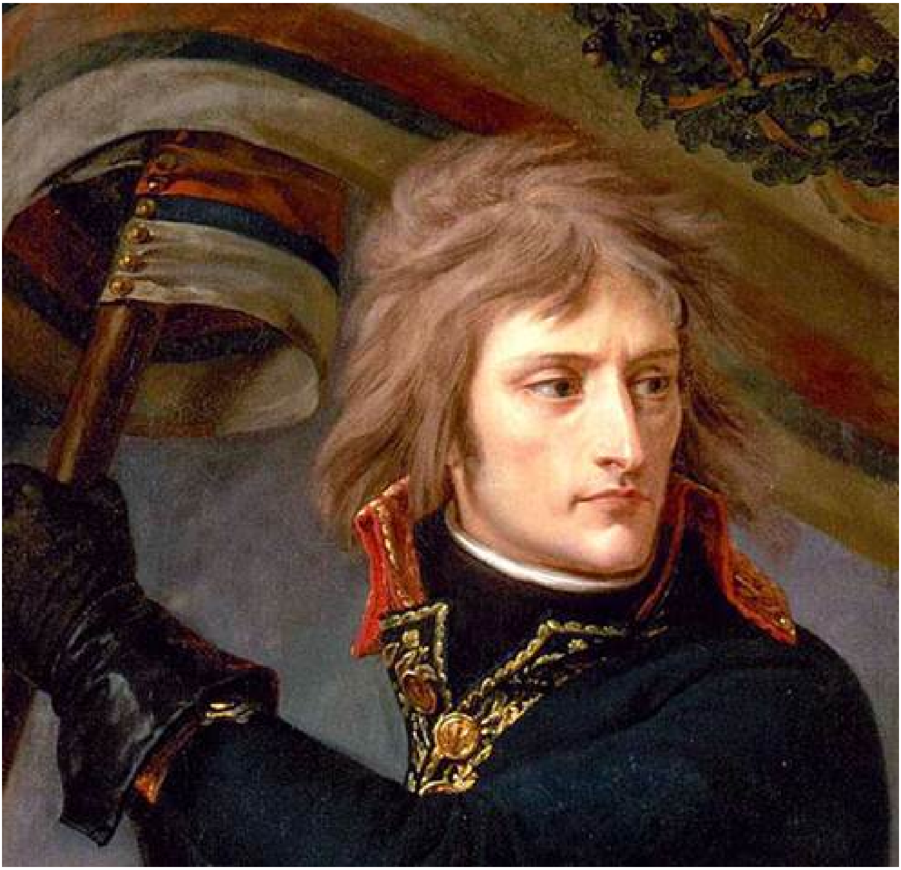
White history has very often been shaped by the intelligence, character, and strength of will of a single individual. Examples include the first Egyptian king, Menes; Alexander the Great; Julius Caesar; Adolf Hitler, and Napoleon Bonaparte.

Napoleon Bonaparte's appearance on the stage of European history changed the course of modern western European civilization and had a dramatic impact upon France.

Napoleon—France's Most Famous Italian

Although regarded as the typical Frenchman, Napoleon was, in fact, Italian—originally Genoese to be precise. His father, Carlo Buonaparte, was a Corsican nobleman who had taken part in a Corsican uprising against the Genoans. Unable to quell the uprising, the Genoans sold the island to France only fifteen months before Napoleon was born. To his last days, whenever Napoleon was angry, he would lapse into his native Corsican.

FRENCH DICTATOR FROM ITALIAN NOBILITY



Napoleon Bonaparte, a Nordic racial type, born on the island of Corsica. Napoleon's family was actually Italian Genoese nobility, and Corsica had become French territory only fifteen months before he was born. A detail from the painting Bonaparte at the Bridge of Arcole, *1801, Antonie-Jean Gros.*

When the French took possession of the island, Carlo Buonaparte became a loyal French supporter. The French king, Louis XV, rewarded the loyal Corsican nobility by granting them financial aid. Consequently, Carlo was able to send his son Napoleon to a school in Autun, France, to improve his French in 1779. Later the same year, Napoleon entered a French military school, and gained a commission as a lieutenant in the French army.

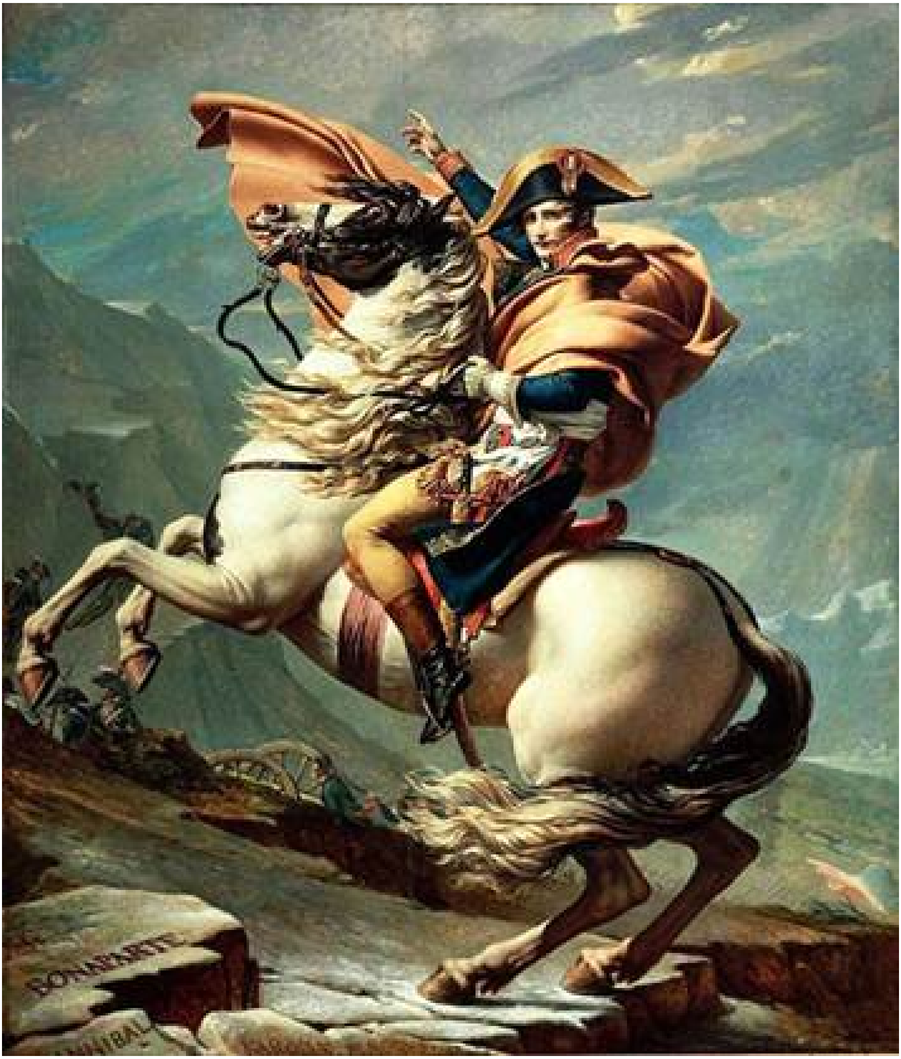
Recognized by his commanding officers as a soldier of exceptional ability, he was, by the time of the French Revolution, a general who had worked his way up through the ranks on merit, his Italian background seemingly forgotten.

The wars which have become known as the Napoleonic Wars were essentially a continuation of the wars resulting from the Revolution, through which the Habsburgs of Austria and other royal houses in Europe combined in an effort to overthrow the revolutionary government of France and restore the French monarchy.

The First Coalition—Allies Try to Stop French Revolutionary Ideas from Spreading

In the War of the First Coalition, fought from 1793 to 1797, France fought against an alliance consisting of Austria, Prussia, Great Britain, Spain, the Netherlands, and the kingdom of Sardinia. In 1796, Napoleon was appointed in charge of conducting the war against Austrian forces in northern Italy. In short order he led his troops to victory over the larger Austrian army and crossed the Alps into Italy in an epic adventure which earned him great fame at home.

MILITARY GENIUS WHO CHALLENGED OLD ORDER IN EUROPE



In the aftermath of the French Revolution, France was attacked on all sides by royalty in other countries threatened by the revolutionary idea of individual freedom. Napoleon won popular fame in France after successful campaigns against its enemies. Here he crosses the Alps as portrayed in Jean Louis David's famous panting.

Napoleon in Egypt—Beginning of Egyptology

In 1798, Napoleon was tasked with the job of conquering Egypt. The idea behind this adventure was to establish a Middle Eastern base from which the British possession of India could be attacked.

The invasion was unsuccessful, and Napoleon returned to

France. (It was at this time that the French troops discovered the Rosetta Stone, which led to the deciphering of Egyptian hieroglyphic writing.)

Although the Austrian and Egyptian campaigns took place before Napoleon took power in France, they are regarded as the first of the Napoleonic Wars.

The Second Coalition

A second coalition, consisting of Russia, Great Britain, Austria, the kingdom of Naples, Portugal, and the Ottoman Empire was formed to fight France in December 1798. The principal fighting of the War of the Second Coalition took place in northern Italy and Switzerland during 1799.

The Austrians and Russians defeated French forces in northern Italy (Napoleon was in Egypt at this time) and captured Milan (putting an end to a French-inspired republic established there in 1797) and Turin.

The French fared better in Switzerland. After an initial Austrian victory in Zurich, French forces defeated two Russian armies in quick succession.

The defeated Russians were forced to take refuge in the mountains of Grisons, where they were devastated by cold and starvation. Complaining of a lack of Austrian cooperation, Russia then withdrew from the Second Coalition in October 1799.

The Austrian Campaign

Upon his return to France, Napoleon drew up a new army of forty thousand men and, in the year 1800, crossed the Alps and attacked the Austrians, defeating them at the Battle of Marengo in June. Simultaneously, another French army crossed the Rhine and captured the city of Munich, and then pushed on to capture the city of Linz.

Faced with these catastrophic defeats, the Austrians had little choice but to surrender. The January 1801 Treaty of Lunéville settled the war.

In terms of the treaty, Austria and its German allies ceded the left bank of the Rhine River to France and recognized the Batavian (Netherlands), Helvetian (Switzerland), Cisalpine, and Ligurian (Italian) republics.

The Third Coalition

The defeat of the Austrians meant that only Britain remained at war with France. After an unsuccessful expedition into the recently declared Dutch republic of Batavia in 1799, they too made peace with France with the Treaty of Amiens in 1802.

This peace was, however, only a truce. A new war flared up over the sovereignty of the island of Malta, and in 1805, Britain joined with Austria, Russia, and Sweden in an anti-French alliance called the Third Coalition. France had also attracted allies. Ranged against the Third Coalition alongside France were Spain and the German states of Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden.

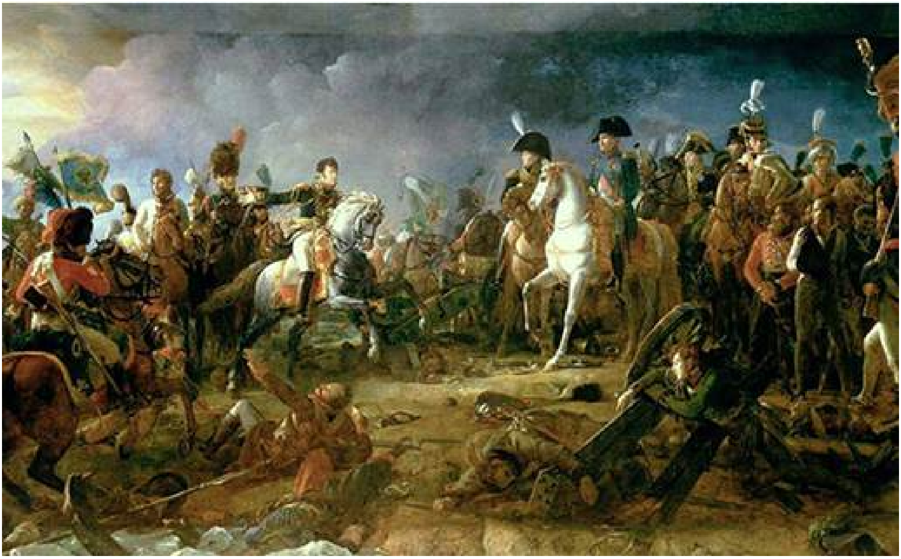
Battle of Austerlitz 1805 Crowns Napoleon's Victory against the Third Coalition

Napoleon moved against the Austrians first. In a remarkably quick series of military campaigns, he defeated the main Austrian army at Ulm and then marched his army along the Danube River, capturing Vienna in short order.

Russia sent an army to reinforce the Austrians, but Napoleon crushed that combined force in the December 1805 Battle of Austerlitz.

Austria again capitulated and in terms of the Treaty of Pressburg ceded land to France and Bavaria. In addition, Austria recognized the Duchies of Wurttemberg and Baden as independent kingdoms.

NAPOLEON'S GREATEST VICTORY—AUSTERLITZ 1805



Austerlitz, December 2, 1805, the "Battle of the Three Emperors." This contemporary engraving gives an idea of the scale of the famous battle. With characteristic military genius, Napoleon led his seventy-three thousand strong army against a numerically superior combined Austro–Russian force of eighty-five thousand men. Despite being outnumbered, the French forces routed the Austro–Russian army.

Napoleon's Brothers Crowned Kings

In Italy, Napoleon made his elder brother, Joseph Bonaparte, king of Naples in 1806. He made his third brother, Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland (the former Batavian Republic), and on July 12, he established the Confederation of the Rhine, which eventually consisted of all the states of Germany except Austria, Prussia, Brunswick, and Hessen. The formation of the Confederation put an end to the Holy Roman Empire and brought most of Germany under Napoleon's control.

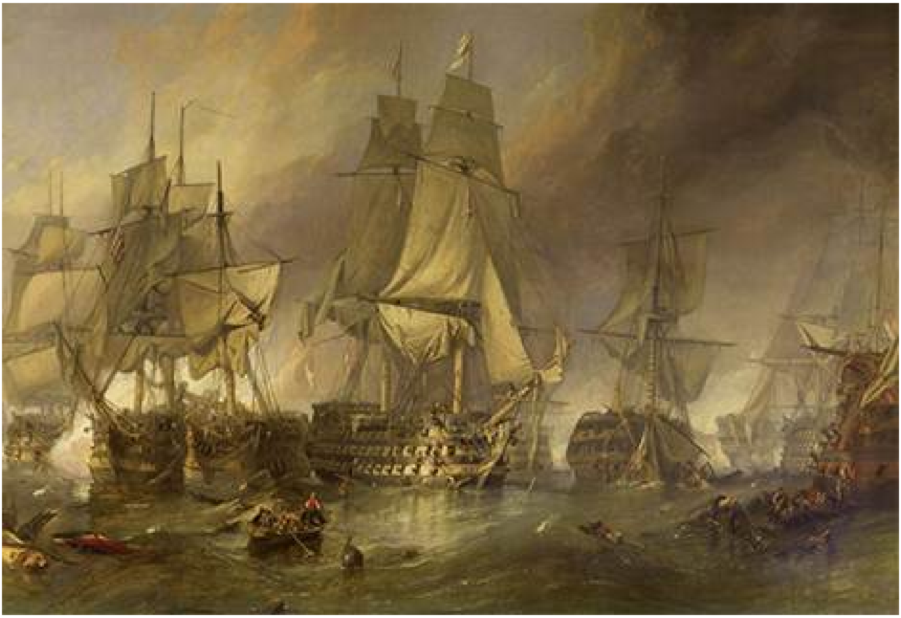
Battle of Trafalgar—Napoleon Loses His Navy

Although utterly victorious on land, Napoleon's navy was crushed by the superior English navy at the October 1805 battle off Cape Trafalgar, where the English admiral, Horatio Nelson, defeated a combined French and Spanish fleet. Nelson was mortally wounded during the battle, dying three hours after being hit by a musket bullet.

Deprived of the ability to launch a seaborne invasion, in 1806 Napoleon started what became known as the Continental System, forbidding British trade with all European nations. Great Britain retaliated with the Orders of Council, which in effect prohibited neutral countries from trading between the ports of any nations obeying Napoleon's decrees.

British mastery of the sea made it difficult for Napoleon to enforce the Continental System and resulted eventually in the failure of his economic policy for Europe.

FRENCH NAVY DEFEATED AT BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR 1805



The Battle of Trafalgar, fought on October 21, 1805, saw twenty-seven British warships defeat a combined French and Spanish fleet of thirty-three. The battle marked Napoleon's first major military reverse, with the Franco–Spanish fleet losing twenty-two ships and the British none.

Prussia Joins the Fourth Coalition

In 1806, Prussia, aroused by Napoleon's growing strength in Germany, joined in a Fourth Coalition with Great Britain, Russia, and Sweden. Napoleon crushed a Prussian army at the October 1806 Battle of Jena and followed this up by capturing Berlin.

Turning on the Russians, Napoleon then defeated their army in the Battle of Friedland, forcing them to make peace by the Treaty of Tilsit. In terms of this treaty Russia gave up its Polish possessions and became an ally of France.

Prussia was deprived of half its territory and crippled by heavy indemnity payments and severe restrictions on the size of its standing army.

“Spanish Ulcer”—The Peninsular War Saps French Power

By 1808, Napoleon was master of all Europe except Russia and Great Britain. His rule was to be short-lived, as the subject nations all attempted to throw off the French yoke. The first uprising occurred in Spain, sparked off by the ejection of King Charles IV from the Spanish throne and his replacement with Napoleon’s brother, Joseph. Incensed, the Spanish people rebelled and drove Joseph out of Madrid.

A war between the French and the Spanish followed, known as the Peninsular War (fought from 1808 to 1814). During the course of this conflict, English troops landed on the Iberian mainland, causing the war to become known as Napoleon’s Spanish Ulcer because it ate away at his military forces which should have been deployed elsewhere. Ultimately the French were defeated in the Peninsular War, severely depleting the size of Napoleon’s available army.

The Fifth Coalition

The British, safe from Napoleon’s armies because of their mastery of the sea, organized another alliance against France, known as the Fifth Coalition. This consisted of Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Sweden. The first result of this coalition was a war with Austria. In July 1809, Napoleon was forced to suppress an Austrian army at the Battle of Wagram and settled the war with the Treaty of Vienna, in terms of which Austria lost Salzburg, part of Galicia, and a large part of its southern European territory.

Napoleon also divorced his first wife, Josephine, and married the daughter of Francis II of Austria in the vain hope of keeping Austria out of further coalitions against him.

The Campaign in Russia

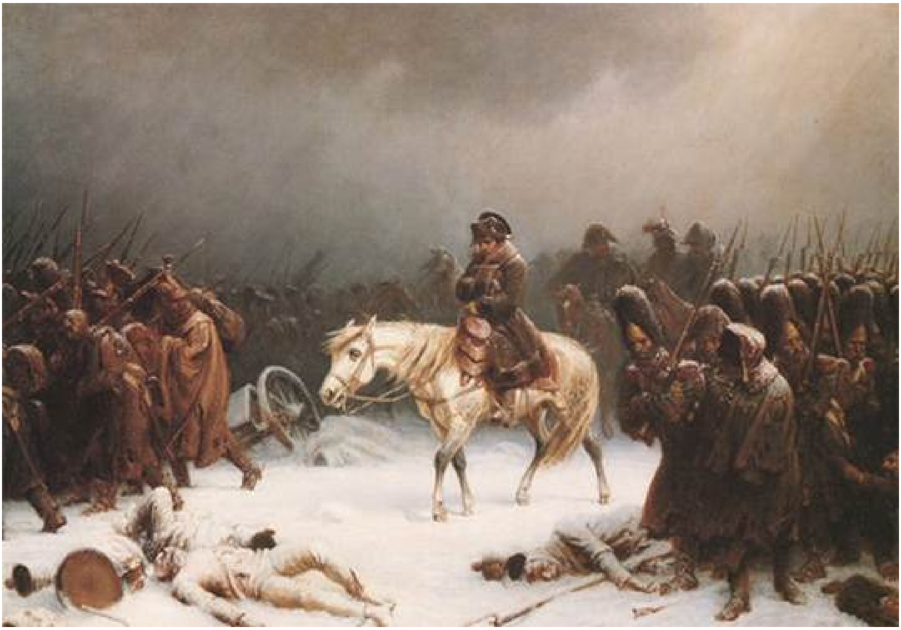
In 1812, war again broke out between France and Russia because of Russia’s refusal to enforce the Continental System. With one large army already tied down by the Spanish Ulcer, Napoleon invaded Russia with an army of 422,000 men.

The Russians were defeated at Borodino and the French army marched into Moscow on September 14, 1812. The cost to the French army was astronomical—they had lost 322,000 men by the time they reached the Russian capital.

The Russians had also burned the city, which made it impossible for Napoleon's troops to establish winter quarters there. Forced to retreat in temperatures which dropped to minus thirty degrees Celsius, the French army was destroyed.

Of the original army, only 10,000 men survived the campaign. Losing 412,000 men during the campaign for no gain whatsoever had severe consequences not only for Napoleon, but also for France. By the end of the Napoleonic Wars, France had lost approximately one million men, severely depleting its population.

THE RETREAT FROM RUSSIA—NAPOLEON LOSES 412,000 MEN



Napoleon's defeat and retreat from Russia in the winter of 1812 which had temperatures frequently as low as minus thirty degrees Celsius. Only 10,000 out of the 422,000 French soldiers who started the campaign survived to see the end of it. The losses sustained during the Russian campaign broke French military power, and within two years France was invaded and Napoleon deposed.

Battle of Leipzig—France Invaded, Napoleon Exiled to Elba

Sensing that Napoleon had overplayed his hand, the Fifth Coalition drew up its forces. In 1813, Prussia renewed hostilities against Napoleon, who, despite his army being weakened, managed to pull off the last military victory of his career, defeating the Prussians at the Battle of Dresden in August 1813.

Here, Napoleon's last great army, scraped together from France's last reserves and consisting of some 100,000 men (a quarter of the size of his army at the beginning of the Russian campaign), defeated a combined Austrian, Prussian, and Russian force of about 150,000.

The overwhelming numbers of the enemy combined with Napoleon's shrinking capacity could not hold off the inevitable.

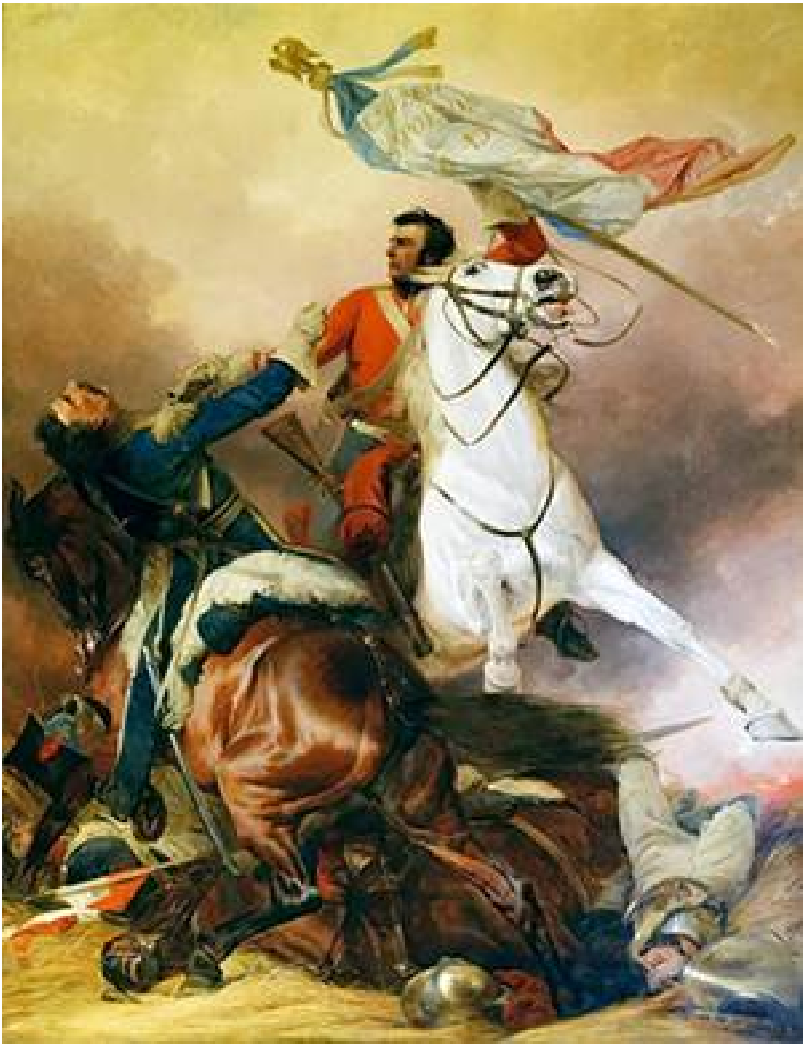
In October 1814, he was defeated at the Battle of Leipzig and forced out of Germany. France was then invaded and, by March 1815, a combined Russian, Austrian, and Prussian force took Paris. Napoleon abdicated and was exiled to the island of Elba in the Mediterranean Sea.

Waterloo—Wellington Defeats Napoleon

While the victors of the Fifth Coalition assembled at the Congress of Vienna to restore the monarchies which had been overthrown, Napoleon escaped from Elba and landed in France. There, despite the defeats he had suffered and the staggering population losses caused by his wars, he was welcomed back.

Through the sheer power of his personality he raised yet another French army and marched into Belgium to do battle with the stunned British, Prussians, Russians, and Austrians. Initially, Napoleon defeated the combined allied armies at the Battle of Ligny, but he was then defeated twice in succession, first at the Battle of Quatre-Bras, and then in June 1815 at the famous Battle of Waterloo. Captured, Napoleon was exiled to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic where he died in 1821, possibly, according to some sources, as a result of poisoning.

NAPOLEON'S LAST BATTLE—WELLINGTON'S "ENGLISH" ARMY WINS AT WATERLOO 1815



A Royal North British Dragoons sergeant Charles Ewart defends the seized standard of the French 45th regiment of the Line from a French lancer during the Battle of Waterloo, 1815. Anglocentric histories portray the final defeat of Napoleon as an English victory. In fact, approximately twenty thousand of General Arthur Wellington's army of forty-four thousand men were German mercenaries, excluding the seventy thousand strong-Prussian army under Marshal Blucher, who also fought decisively at the momentous battle.

Venerated Reburial in Paris 1840

Although buried on St. Helena, Napoleon's remains were exhumed and returned to France in 1840. He was interred in the chapel adjoining the major military hospital in Paris, called the Les

Invalides. Napoleon's tomb continues to be a major focus of adulation and is, along with other Parisian landmarks, a major tourist attraction.

Legacy of Kings, Codes, and Social Reform

The legacy left by Napoleon for Europe was considerable. As a direct result of his wars, the nations of the Netherlands and Switzerland came into existence, as well as a number of German and Italian states.

Napoleon was not only a military genius, he was also a statesman of considerable ability. French law was standardized in the Napoleonic Code and six other codes, guaranteeing equality before the law and freedom of religion. Napoleon's own personal goal for Europe was to create a single European state which he called the "federation of free peoples." He used the United States of America as his role model in this regard.

In all the lands he occupied, the Napoleonic Code was established as law. Feudalism and serfdom were abolished. Each state had a constitution with universal male suffrage and a parliament containing a bill of rights. French-style administrative and judicial systems were required. Schools were put under centralized administration, and free public schools were envisioned.

Higher education was opened to all who qualified, regardless of class or religion. Every state had an academy or institute for the promotion of the arts and sciences. Incomes were provided for eminent scholars, especially scientists.

However, his greatest legacy to France was a severe depopulation and reduction in the number of whites in that country due to the losses inflicted during the wars.

Because of the exponential nature of nineteenth century European population demo-graphics, the loss of a million Frenchmen in their prime seriously retarded France in the population stakes.

CHAPTER 27: The Isle of Influence—England, Scotland, and Wales

Even its most vehement detractors will admit that the nation of Great Britain has been one of the foremost countries of present-day Western civilization. Its achievements are legion—at one stage its empire existed on all the continents of the world except Antarctica.

Its language became the second most widely spoken language on earth (after Chinese); its writers, poets, and playwrights are acknowledged as some of the greatest of all time, and its history and culture have become ingrained in the traditions of many people on earth.

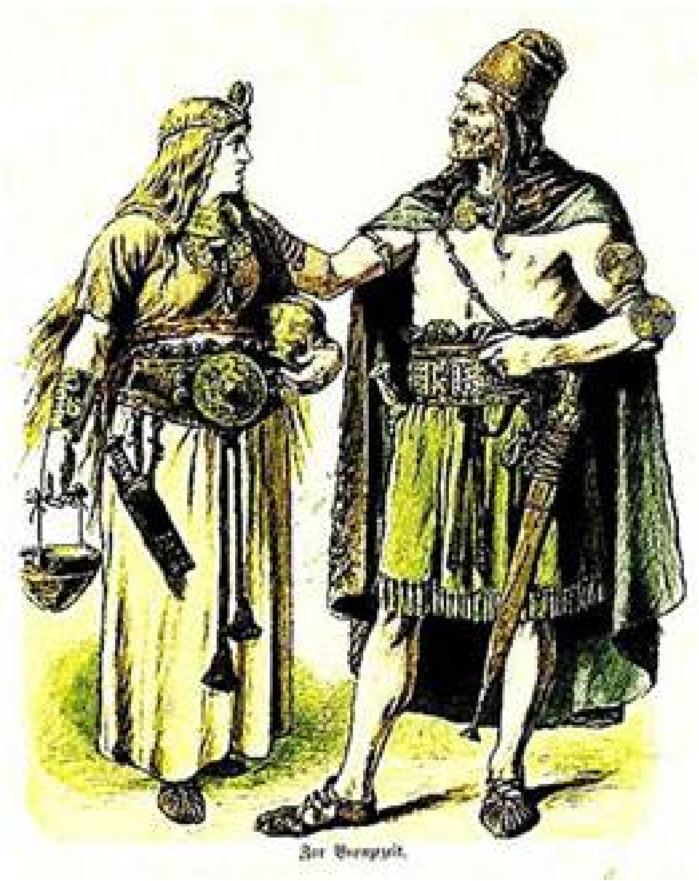
Britain was also directly responsible for the initial mass settlement of the North American continent that, together with immigrants from the rest of Europe, created the giant that became America. The Industrial Revolution, which it spearheaded, shaped the infrastructure of the current world.

Yet it is a small island, slightly more than half the size of France. The history of this island of kings and queens is a remarkable one and worthy of an overview. Unfortunately much of English history is also filled with incessant petty squabbling and infighting. Although this was no more so than in any other European nation in the forming, these squabbles were, just as often as not, to have international repercussions because of Britain's preeminent position in the world.

Ancient Britain—Old Mediterranean and Proto-Nordic Inhabitants

Ancient Britain was originally populated with the Old European peoples—Mediterraneans and Proto-Nordic types. By 3000 BC, the Old Europeans had established farms in southern England and by 2500 BC, another early white tribe, known as the Beaker folk (because of an abundance of beakers and other vessels found in their grave sites) had made their appearance in that land.

Then came the Nordic Indo-European invaders, the Celts, who arrived before 2000 BC. When the Celts overran Britain they brought horses, chariots, and iron weapons and implements—all of which gave them a military superiority over the natives. The latter were soon overwhelmed and absorbed into the Celtic population, only retaining their original subracial characteristics in somewhat diluted form in the far west of the island.



Middle Bronze Age Europeans. Every detail on this reconstruction of the dress and equipment of a man and a woman of 2000 BC is based upon contemporary material remains.

Roman Genetic and Cultural Input

Next came the Romans, who at the apex of their power stationed about one hundred thousand men in army units at York, Chester, Colchester, and Carlisle. Many of these Roman soldiers intermarried among the local Celts. No substantial racial makeup change was achieved by this intermarriage—unlike in North Africa and the Middle East, where the white Romans intermarried with all manner of nonwhite locals, precipitating the downfall of their empire.

Many of the Romans then settled in Britain once their period of army service was over (usually twenty years) and formed the core of the Romanized Briton population. Along with the rest of the empire, these Roman settlers also brought Christianity to Britain once that belief system had been adopted as the official state religion.

Unromanized Northern Celts

However, the Celts in the far north of the country—particularly a tribe of Celts called the Picts—continued to be troublesome for the Roman Britons. The emperor Hadrian finally built a wall in 122–123 AD across northern Britain to try and keep them out. After Hadrian's death, the emperor Antonius built a new wall some one hundred miles north in an attempt to extend Roman control further north. By 164, this new wall—known as the Antonine Wall—had been abandoned and the border reverted to Hadrian's Wall once again. Scotland never fell under Roman rule, and the Picts continued to be a thorn in the side of the Romans until the very end of Roman rule in Britain.

Romans Repulse German Invasions

Throughout the fourth century, Roman Britain was subjected to ever increasing raids from Saxons and other pagan Germanics. In 367, a possibly coordinated offensive by Saxons from the mainland of Europe, Scots from Scotland, and Celts from Ireland ravaged England. It took three years and a new Roman army, sent to that province, before the invasion was defeated.

However, this did not end the Saxon and Germanic raids, and after the Romans formally withdrew their armies in 406, the island lay open to further incursions.

The Roman legacy to Britain was huge. Apart from an infrastructure of roads and several great cities such as York, Colchester, and London, the Romans substantially improved the standards of education and learning. A large number of original Roman genes were also absorbed into the British population through intermarriage between Britons and the occupying Romans.

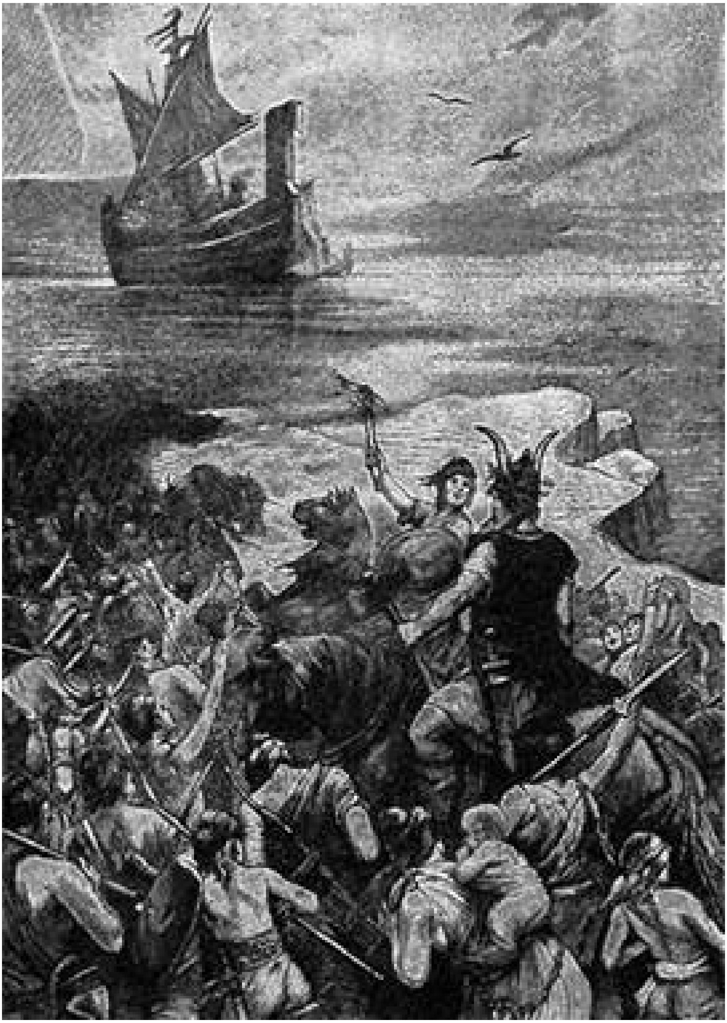
Danish Conquest—England Named after Angles

The northern Picts remained a constant problem and repeatedly raided settlements in England. Exasperated, the leader of the Romanized Britons in England, the aristocrat Vortigen, sought allies abroad to combat the Picts. In 425 he formally invited the Jutes, a Germanic tribe from Denmark, to settle in Britain. The Jutes, under their leader Hengist, agreed to move to Britain to ward off the Pictish raiders in exchange for land.

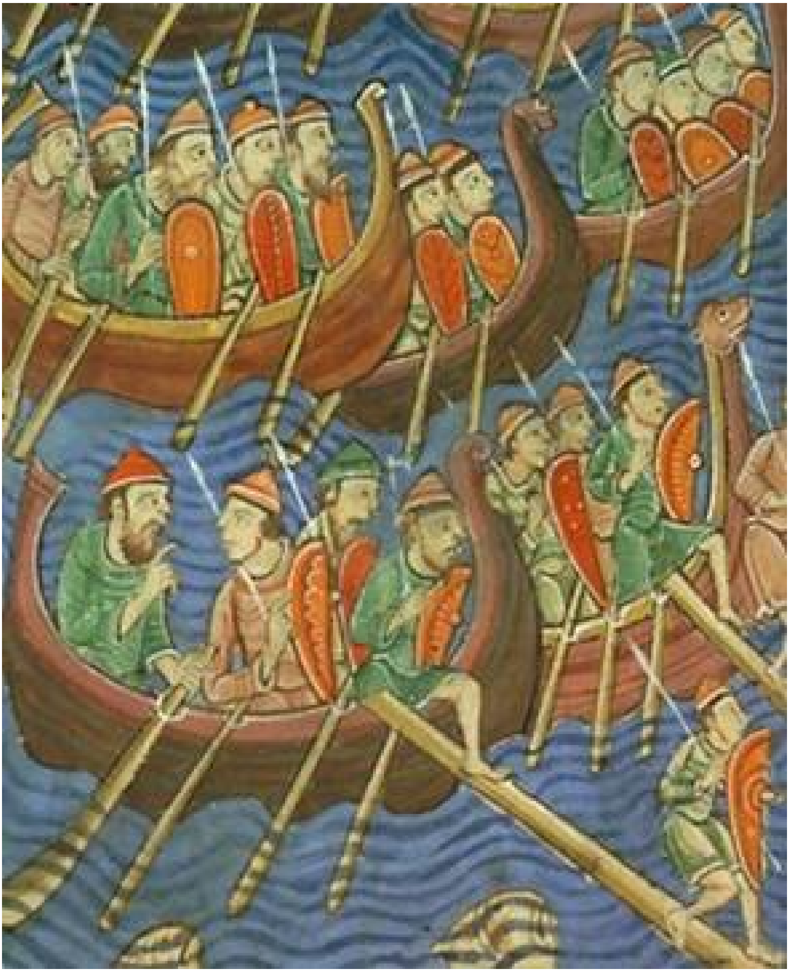
In return for their military aid, Vortigern told the Jutes he would give them land in what is now Kent in southeastern England. The Jutes brought with them a horde of their racial cousins, including the dreaded Saxons and representatives of other Germanic tribes: the Angles, Franks, and the Frisians. In an act of extreme irony, large numbers of Saxons were allowed to settle unmolested in Britain—Vortigern got a lot more Germans than he had bargained on.

The long-standing enmity between the Romanized Britons and the Germans, who were now in far larger numbers than Vortigern had wanted, soon flared up into open war. In 442 the first clashes took place, and ten years later Vortigern was defeated by Hengist. The Germanics then started to occupy and subjugate large areas in Britain, eventually displacing almost all of the Romanized Britons.

DANISH INVASION OF ENGLAND CIRCA 430



Above: The Danish conquest of England, a present-day artist's impression. Danish Viking-style ships sailing up the Humber River. For a period of nearly five hundred years from 400 to 900, waves of Germanics and northern Europeans swept into England, pushing the Romanized Britons into the westernmost reaches. Below, this illustration of a Danish invasion is taken from the Life, Passion and Miracles of St. Edmund, King and Martyr, produce at Bury St. Edmunds in England circa 1130 A.D.



The Angles and Saxons gave their name to the country they had won—Angle-land, or England. To this day the white people there are known as Anglo-Saxons, although they are a mixture of all the white peoples who had settled the island.

Germanics Flood England for Five Hundred Years

For the next five hundred years, sporadic waves of new Germanic settlers moved into Britain. The original Britons were increasingly pushed into the western reaches of the country, Cornwall and Wales.

The word "Wales," for example, is derived from the word "welsch" which was the name that the invading Germans gave to the Romanized Britons. Some Britons fled the Germanic invasion by crossing the English Channel, settling on the French coast in a region to be named after them: Brittany.

Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table

The legends surrounding a Celtic king, later called Arthur, derive from the fifth century British resistance against the Germanic invaders. Recent historical research points to Arthur having been a Welshman named Owain Ddantgwyn—but much of the exploits of his Round Table are the result of storytelling and do not have any verifiable factual basis.

Whatever resistance occurred was suppressed. By the year 600, most of the former Roman Britain had been colonized by the Angles and Saxons and their Germanic cousins. The Romano-Celtic culture—which included Christianity—was driven into the far corners of the land. Eight major kingdoms and a number of smaller principalities were established. It became customary for the leader of one of these major kingdoms to be elected as a supreme king, or Bretwalda (Britain wielder) by the nobles of all the kingdoms.

Druids Challenged by Christianity

The Celtic religions dominated Britain before the advent of Christianity under late Roman rule. The Celts practiced a form of nature worship led by holy men called druids. Certain aspects of those religions were less than savory, although the full nature of their activities has been lost in the passage of time.

With the invasion of the British Isles by the Germanic tribes, Christianity, which was the trademark of the Romanized Britons of the era, was pushed out of mainland England and corralled in the outer reaches of the land, to where the defeated Romano-Celtic peoples had been pushed: Wales, Cornwall, southern Scotland, and Ireland. The Germanics brought with them their own nature worshipping religions, distant religious cousins of the original Celts.

It was only some 150 years after the last Germanic invasions that the Christian Church dared to send any large numbers of missionaries back into Germanic-occupied England.

This occurred after one of the Bretwaldas, King Ethelbert of the kingdom of Kent, married a Frankish Christian princess from France, and she persuaded him to allow missionaries from Rome back into Britain.

Ethelbert converted to Christianity in 597. In 664, the last Germanic kingdom, in Northumbria under King Oswy, became Christian. By the seventh century, the Germanic kingdoms included

Northumbria, Bernicia, Deira, Lindsay, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Wessex, Sussex, and Kent.

The lands which were later to become Britain were still formalized into three distinct units—England, Wales, and Scotland, each developing its own traditions and distinctive characteristics.

ALFRED, KING OF WESSEX

King Alfred, king of Wessex, 871. He is still regarded as one of England's greatest kings, warding off Danish and Viking invasions and capturing the city of London from the Scandinavians. He also instituted a large number of far-reaching reforms including the creation of many schools and the first English navy.

Alfred the Great—Greatest "English" King

In 871 Alfred became king of Wessex. He did much to improve his people's living conditions, and laid particular emphasis on education. To this end he created a large number of schools which greatly increased literacy among the Britons. Alfred also created the first proper English navy.

It was his defeat of the Vikings for which he is best known. At the beginning of his reign, Viking raids into Britain were at their most severe, but in 878 Alfred defeated a large Danish army.

The defeated Danes accepted the division of England into two parts: Alfred ruled the kingdom of Wessex while the Danes ruled the areas of Essex, East Anglia, and Northumbria, which became known as the Danelaw.

The Danegeld Provokes Further Resistance

The defeated Danes were still enough of a threat that they were able to enforce what was called the Danegeld (“Danish tax”). This was a tribute tax which Britons had to pay the Danes in order to prevent further attacks—blackmail by any other language.

Under these conditions, conflict soon broke out. Alfred once again attacked the Danes and captured the city of London. The final conquest of the Danes was completed by his grandson King Edgar in 991, an event which saw the creation of the first united kingdom in England. It was only then that the Danegeld was abolished. The most powerful component state of the new united kingdom was Wessex. The king ruled over all with the assistance of a council of princes and nobles called the witenagemot.

End of Anglo-Saxon Rule—Danes Rule Again

During the reign of King Edgar’s son, Ethelred, Danish raids on England increased once again. After several inconclusive battles, Ethelred ordered the killing of all Danish men in England on St. Brice’s Day, November 13, 1002.

This policy provoked a furious response from the Danes. Ethelred was caught off guard by a renewed Danish invasion and was driven from the throne by the Danish king Sweyn I. Ethelred was apocryphally given the title “Ethelred the Unready” possibly as a result of this surprise. Although he was unready, he was, however, lucky. He was able to reclaim the throne in 1014 after Sweyn died unexpectedly.

When Ethelred died in 1016, his son, Edmund Ironside, was defeated by Sweyn’s son, Canute II, and all of England came under Danish rule once again in a combined kingdom consisting of Denmark, England, and Norway. Canute’s sons were unpopular rulers.

Eventually another of Ethelred’s sons, Edward, was called by the princes in England from his exile in Normandy and peacefully retook the crown.

William the Conqueror—A Dramatic Shift in English History

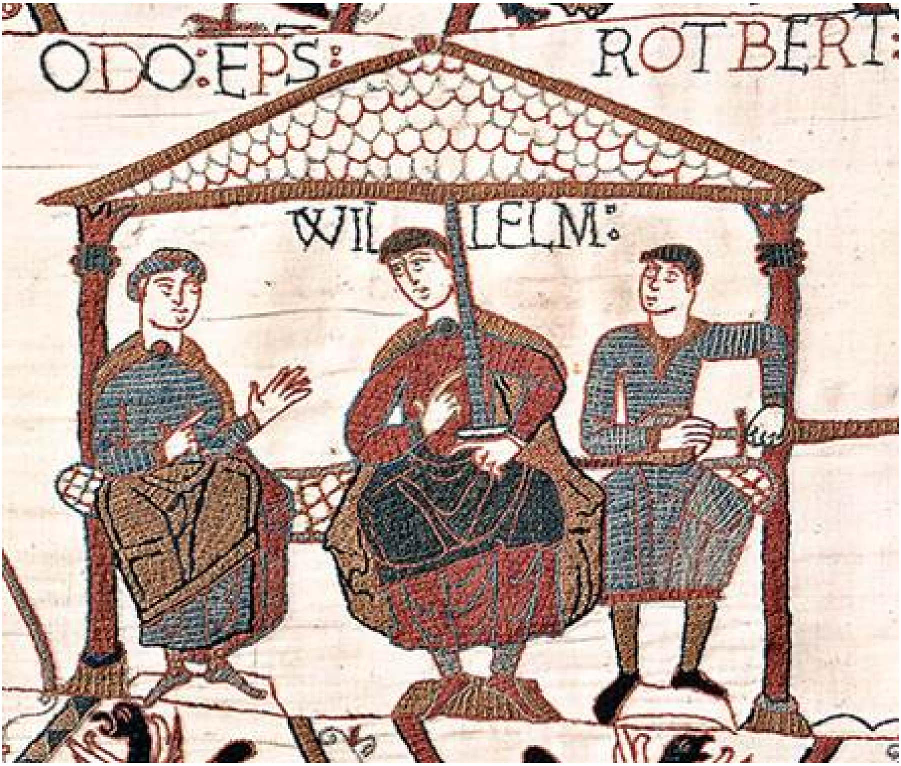
Edward died heirless and the witenagemot chose Harold, Earl of Wessex, to be the new king, although his only claim to the throne was his availability. Other claimants were the last Viking king, Harold Hardraada (the Hard Ruler), of Norway, and Duke William of Normandy.

Both William and Hardraada sent armies to Britain to claim the throne. William’s fleet crossed the English Channel in a great fleet-borne invasion known to history as the Norman Conquest, while Hardraada drew up his army from Danes in the north of England. Hardraada was defeated and killed by Harold at the Battle of Stamford Bridge in September 1066.

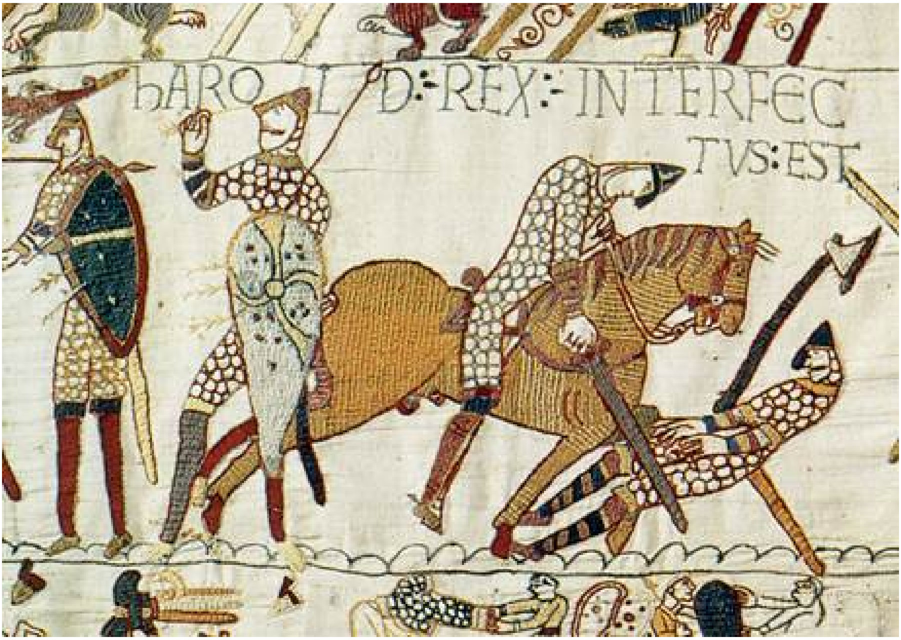
Exhausted, Harold then turned his army south to meet the Norman invasion. The Battle of Hastings followed and ended in defeat for the Britons. William, called the Conqueror as a result of his victorious invasion, established a new kingdom in England and was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day, 1066.

The invasion of England by the Normans marked a dramatic shift in English history. From that time on, Britain was influenced by France rather than Scandinavia, and relations with the French became the dominant theme of English history for the next six hundred years. Never again would England be subjected to an invasion on that scale —at least not until the twentieth century, when it was subjected to a mass invasion by millions of nonwhites from all over the world.

BATTLE OF HASTINGS 1066—DECISIVE TURNING POINT IN ENGLISH HISTORY



William of Normandy as depicted on the Bayeux Tapestry, made to commemorate the successful invasion. William was a direct descendant of Rollo the Viking, who settled in France at the invitation of the French in an attempt to stave off further Viking attacks. Due to a series of family links, William ended up being a claimant for the English throne when the reigning English king Edward died heirless. Leading a Norman (French-speaking) army across the English Channel, William landed in southeast England. At the Battle of Hastings, he defeated the English claimant to the throne, Harold of Wessex. In this way, a Viking descendant became king of England.



The Death of King Harold at the Battle of Hastings in the Bayeux Tapestry. Harold was either struck in the eye by an arrow (left) or killed by a sword blow (right) or both.

Norman Kingdom of England and Normandy

One of William the Conqueror's first undertakings was a survey of England. This resulted in the famous Domesday Book which was a full account of all property and wealth in that country at the beginning of the eleventh century. The occupation of England by the Normans also created a joint kingdom of Normandy and England, a situation which would last until the Hundred Years' War between France and England.

NORMANS VALUED ALL OF ENGLAND AT £73,000 IN 1086

The Domesday Book was a compilation of the total worth of all the goods and property in England. Drawn up on the order of William the Conqueror, the detailed survey was meant to be a record of the country's wealth and a measure of progress under Norman rule. Its detail is staggering, including even the smallest villages; the number of mills, fisheries, animals; and the sizes of all woodlands and meadows.

The First Civil War, Invasion of Ireland, and Anti-Jewish Unrest

The first of three major English civil wars broke out in 1135 over succession to the English throne. This war ended in 1154 when the leading nobleman from the Plantagenet family, Henry, took the throne and crushed all dissenters.

Among the more famous victims of Henry's reign was the leading Christian clergyman in England, Thomas Becket (the Archbishop of Canterbury) who was murdered in his cathedral in 1170.

It was during Henry Plantagenet's reign that Ireland was first occupied by the English. This conquest was extended over the entire island in 1603, opening a festering political sore which has plagued English/Irish relations to the present day. English control over parts of France was also extended during Henry's reign.

In 1189, the first anti-Jewish riot took place in London, which soon spread to York, where 150 Jews were killed by a mob after they took refuge in a local building, Clifford's Tower, the ruins of which still stand.

Robin Hood—Myth and Reality

Henry was succeeded to the throne by his son, the famous Richard Lionheart, who won renown for spending most of his time outside of England fighting in the crusades.

It was during the absence of Richard that the story of Robin Hood originates. This quaint English character did not actually exist. While the stories of “robbing from the rich to pay the poor” were largely invented, it was true that in some areas bands of criminals and political dissenters engaged in localized rebellions against the despotic rule which took hold in Richard’s absence.

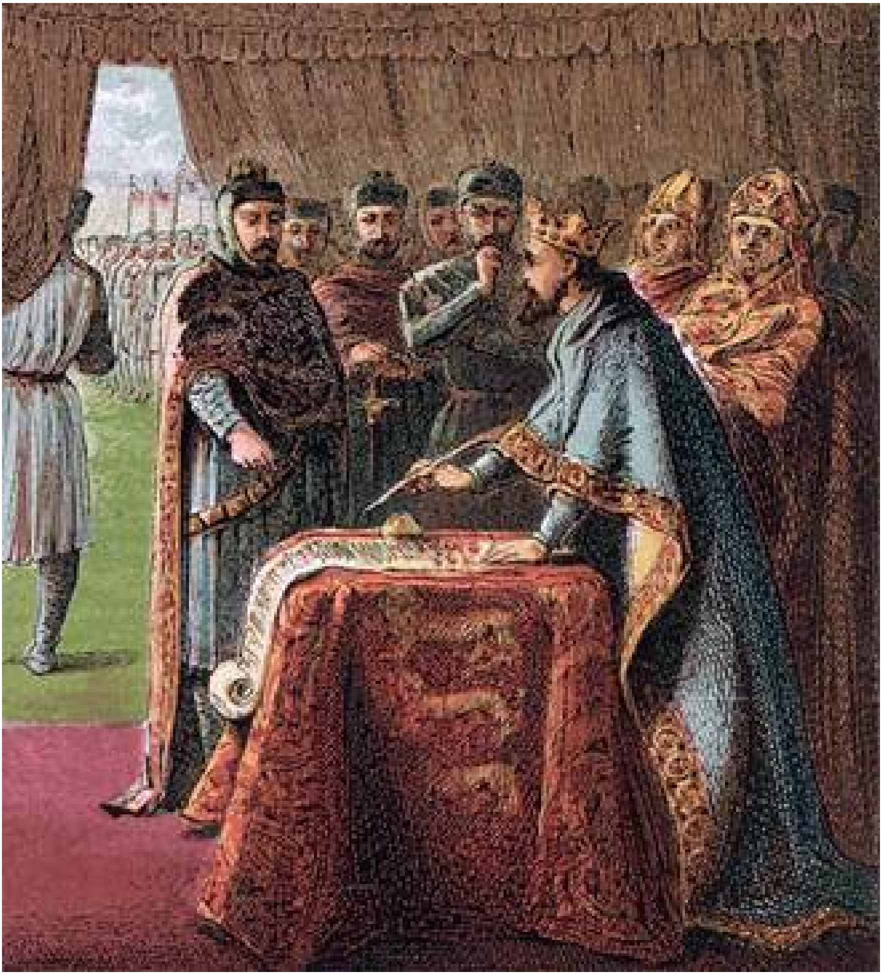
The Magna Carta—First Attempt at Equality before the Law

Richard was succeeded by his brother John, who won fame for losing control of Normandy after a French attack in 1204 and for the signing, against his will, of the Magna Carta in 1215. This was a decree whereby the monarchs of England undertook to be subject to English laws, equal to all citizens of the realm. The Magna Carta also guaranteed an accused person the right to a trial, which was a new concept at that time.

King John (who was known as John the Bad), only signed the Magna Carta under duress, knowing full well that the English nobles would have overthrown him had he not given his assent.

The nobles then created what was at first an informal committee to ensure that the king did not go back on his word and to ensure that the decree was enforced. This committee was the origin of the House of Lords and the House of Commons parliament in Britain.

THE MAGNA CARTA—EQUALITY BEFORE THE LAW 1215



King John signing the Magna Carta in 1215, guaranteeing equality before the law for all citizens of his realm. John signed the decree under the threat of force—this woodcut accurately depicts his nobility standing around, quite literally threatening him with retribution should he not sign.

Accelerated Cultural and Population Growth

The thirteenth century saw England prosper, with agriculture and trade increasing exponentially. London became the largest city in Europe and the advances in English society were reflected in the establishment of the great university colleges at Oxford and then later at Cambridge. The total English population increased from an estimated 1.5 million to about 3 million at this time.

However, the infighting so characteristic of all the early European countries also plagued England. Another short civil war in 1264 saw the English king expelled, although he was to return after a year.

Anti-Jewish sentiment also grew. Finally, in 1290, King Edward I ordered the expulsion of all Jews from England, accusing them of exploitative financial practices related to their dominance of the banking business. King Edward I also established the first English parliament in 1295, formalizing the committee established at the time of the signing of the Magna Carta. The new council was expanded to include a number of barons, bishops, abbots, and representatives of counties and towns.

Wales Conquered but Scots Defeat English

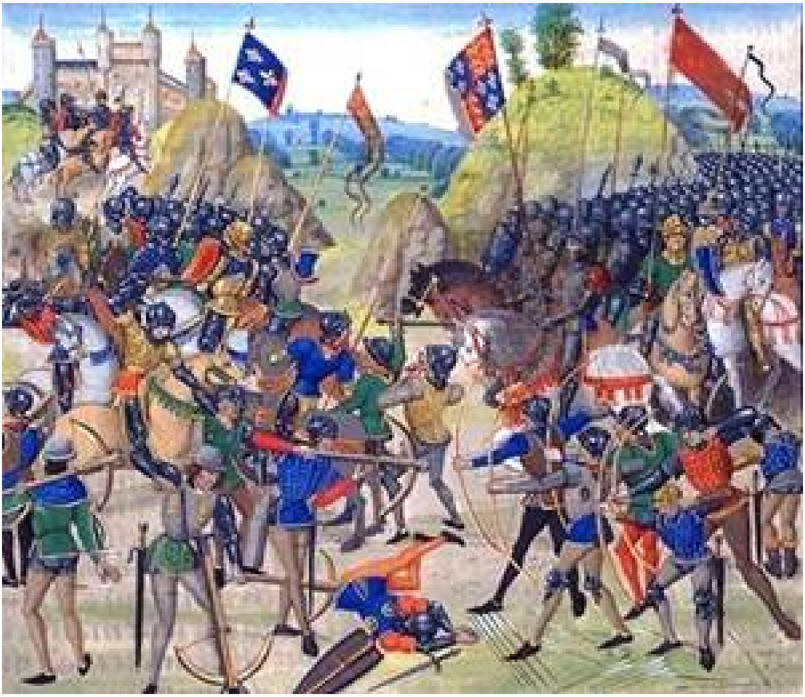
Edward also conquered northwest Wales, adding this region to the English realm. After adopting the superior Welsh longbow as a weapon in the English army, Edward tried to pacify the Welsh by naming his son, the crown prince, as the Prince of Wales, a title which has persisted to the present day. Although Edward tried to conquer Scotland, the Scots put up stiff resistance. Edward's son, Edward II, finally gave up campaigning in the north after the 1314 Battle of Bannockburn, when the Scottish king Robert the Bruce decisively defeated an English army.

Hundred Years' War—England Versus France

In 1337 King Edward III initiated the Hundred Years' War with France over the issues of British territorial possessions on the Continent and his claim to the French throne. Initially, the English achieved victories at the battles of Crecy in 1346 and Poitiers in 1356, where they used their secret weapon, the Welsh longbow, to devastating effect. By 1396, however, the French had retaken almost all of the regions they had lost.

In 1415, King Henry V won a famous victory over the French at the Battle of Agincourt, again using the longbow to rain down arrows upon the French to decimate their ranks before actual hand combat could be joined. It seemed for a while that the English might win the war, and the 1420 Treaty of Troyes brought about a temporary halt. The French, however, inspired by the sacrifices of Joan of Arc, fought back and finally cornered the last English army in Calais.

THE LONGBOW—ENGLAND'S SECRET WEAPON AGAINST THE FRENCH



The longbow was the secret weapon which enabled England to win at least two important battles with France. Developed in Wales, it was capable of firing an arrow over a much greater distance than with a conventional bow. This illustration purports to be that of the Battle of Crecy in 1346, where the English defeated the French with the use of the longbow. English longbow archers on the right face the French crossbow archers on the left. The illustration is inaccurate, as the longbow archers stood far behind the front ranks, out of danger's immediate reach—and showered the French with arrows long before they could reply. About five thousand English longbowmen took part in the Battle of Crecy. As a good bowman could fire seven arrows per minute, this meant that the French were showered with thirty-five thousand arrows per minute, cutting down men and horses and traveling with enough velocity to pierce all but the heaviest armor. Contemporary accounts have it that "arrow flights darkened the sky" and this must have been very close to the truth. Only with the rise of firearms was the longbow finally made redundant.

Wars of the Roses

The desperate military situation in France and growing discontent with the ineffectiveness of the youthful King Henry VI caused the most devastating English civil war of all. Known as the Wars of the Roses, this conflict began in 1455 and continued until 1485. The Wars of the Roses were fought between two branches of the royal family, the Lancastrians and the Yorkists. Finally, after the powerful Earl of Warwick switched sides, the Lancastrians won and Henry VI was reinstalled as king after a period in exile.

The Yorkists, however, overthrew Henry VI once again and replaced him with their own man, who was in turn deposed by Henry Tudor, who asserted a weak Lancastrian claim to the throne. The Battle of Bosworth Field in 1485 ended the Wars of the Roses with Henry Tudor, called Henry VII, ascending to the throne and starting the Tudor dynasty.

The Wives of Henry VIII and the Anglican Church

Henry VIII is most famous for his wives and the break with the Catholic Church, with both being directly related. His first wife, the Spanish Catherine of Aragon, daughter of the famous Spanish monarchs Ferdinand and Isabella, bore him six children, with only their daughter Mary surviving infancy. Seeking a male heir, Henry divorced Catherine and married a young lady-in-waiting to the queen, Anne Boleyn.

When the Catholic Church refused to grant him a divorce, Henry abolished the power of the Catholic Church in England and set up the Anglican Church with himself as spiritual head. Although regarded as a Protestant church, the establishment of the Anglican Church actually had nothing to do with Protestantism and everything to do with Henry's desire to get divorced.

Henry married Anne Boleyn in 1533, but she bore him another daughter, Elizabeth. Enraged, the King had Anne beheaded for alleged adultery. He then married Jane Seymour, who died giving birth to Edward, his only son. Three later wives, one of whom he divorced and another of whom was beheaded, had no children.

Bloody Mary—the Catholics Come Back

Henry VIII was succeeded by his sickly son Edward VI, who died at the age of sixteen. Henry's half sister, Mary I, the daughter of the Spanish Catholic Queen Catherine of Aragon, inherited the throne through the rules of succession.

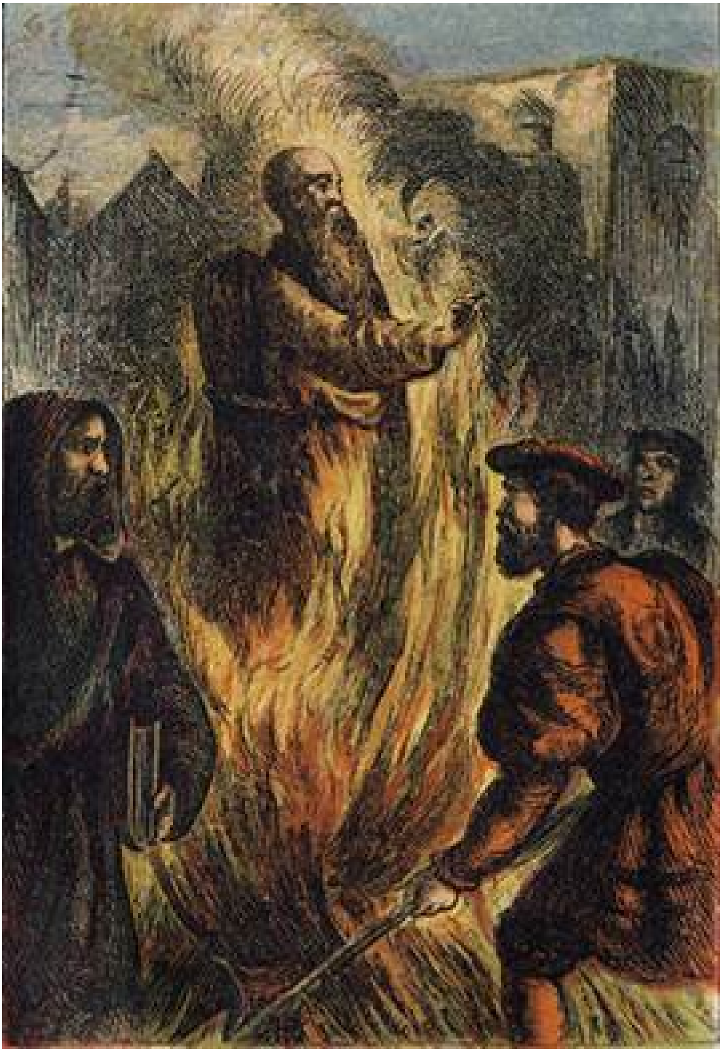
As a fervent Catholic, Mary I restored the Roman Catholic Church in England, violently suppressing the Anglicans and ordering three hundred leading members of that church burned at the stake. Mary's marriage to her cousin, Philip II of Spain, was interpreted by the French as an attempt to create an alliance against France, and war broke out. The French captured the last English outpost on the Continent, Calais, ending England’s toehold there.

Mary’s blood-thirsty revenge upon the Anglicans earned her the title of Bloody Mary and her reign was particularly unpopular. In 1554, a series of unsuccessful uprisings against Mary’s rule took place. Although it failed, the rebellion (known as Wyatt’s Rebellion because it was led by one Thomas Wyatt) caused enough concern to Mary that she ordered the arrest of all those suspected of conspiring against her.

Those arrested included her half sister, Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. The arrest of Elizabeth was of particular significance because the laws of inheritance meant that if Mary died childless (as seemed to be inevitable), Elizabeth would be next in line for the throne. Imprisoned in the Tower of London, Elizabeth escaped being executed and was instead placed under house arrest. Mary died in 1558, and Elizabeth finally took the throne of England, becoming Queen Elizabeth I. Her ascension was bitterly opposed by the Catholics, who regarded her half sister, Mary Tudor (daughter of Henry VIII by his first wife) as the only legitimate heiress. A Spanish Catholic plot against Elizabeth’s life was uncovered, the details of which included putting Mary Stuart, Catholic daughter of the Scottish king James V, on the throne once Elizabeth had been assassinated.

Mary Stuart was arrested and found guilty of treason. Although her execution in 1567 ended that rebellion, she is still remembered in the English speaking world through the nursery rhyme “Mary, Mary quite contrary. . .”

Protestants Martyred by Catholics under Mary



Three Anglican bishops, Hugh Latimer, Nicholas Ridley and Thomas Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury, were burned at the stake in Oxford at the height of the last Catholic attempt to stamp out Protestantism under Queen Mary. Above, Cranmer's execution.

The Elizabethan Age—Beginning of English Ascendancy

Elizabeth I's reign was marked by the emergence of England as a world power. She re-established Anglicanism and subdued the Scots by assisting the Protestant and pro-English faction there. She also assisted the Protestant rebels in the Spanish Netherlands, which led to war with Spain and the famous attempted invasion of England by a combined French and Spanish fleet known as the Spanish Armada.

The Spanish Armada Defeated 1588

In 1588, the English navy, under the able command of Sir Francis Drake, decisively defeated the Spanish fleet in the English Channel. Spain's army at that time was in the Netherlands so the Spanish navy was sent to pick them up and transport them to England onboard a large invasion fleet.

The first part of the plan went awry when the Protestant Dutch—who were fighting a war of independence against Spain—blockaded the ports of Holland to prevent the Spanish fleet from picking up the main body of its army. The Spanish fleet was then set upon by the well-trained English navy which benefited from better designed warships.

After three days of battle, the English dispersed the Spanish Armada by launching flaming drone ships into the center of the Spanish fleet. It then broke up in confusion, and the swifter English ships were able to destroy the invading force.

Culture and Exploration

Elizabeth I's age was also the time of the greatest playwright and writer the world has ever known. William Shakespeare's works were written and first performed during this Golden Age, and have never been bettered by any playwright or poet. His works remain some of the most widely read and studied literature in the world and are certainly the most translated plays in history.

Elizabeth I also presided over England's rise to glory abroad and the start of a massive colonization drive which would not only create wealth in Britain, but would ultimately lead to the establishment of the United States of America.

ELIZABETH I EXPELS BLACKS FROM BRITAIN IN 1601

Elizabeth 1, queen of England, who ordered the deportation of all blacks from London in 1601, after objecting to the presence of approximately twenty thousand black slaves in the capital city. This single act ensured that Britain had no large-scale black presence until the late twentieth century.

Blacks Slaves Imported and Then Expelled 1601

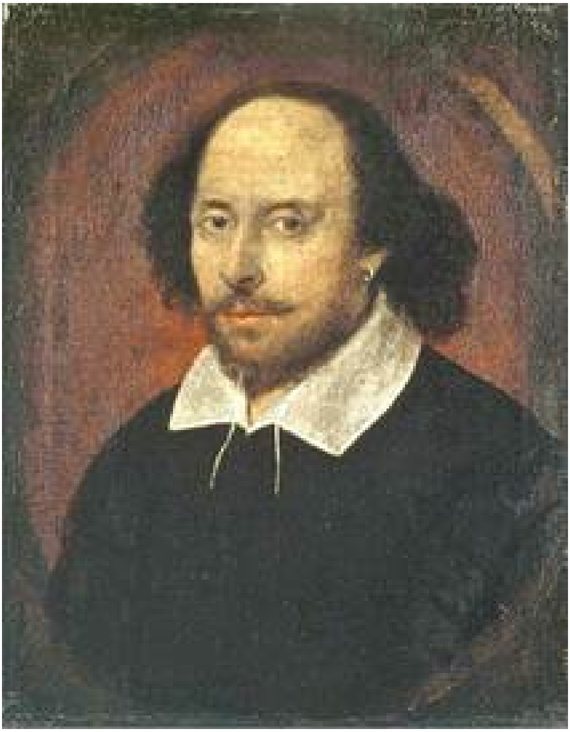
The expansion into new lands also started the Trans-Atlantic slave trade. In 1555, the first black slaves were imported into England, with the towns of Liverpool and Bristol becoming the major English slave trading ports.

By 1601, there were officially twenty thousand blacks in London. Queen Elizabeth I was greatly disturbed at the number of black slaves in England and in 1596 ordered the deportation of a number of them to Spain in exchange for British prisoners of war held there.

In 1601, Elizabeth ordered the expulsion of all blacks from

England. This single act—a remarkable but little known incident—meant that there was never again a significant black presence in England until the late twentieth century.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE



William Shakespeare, the genius of the written word, was born in England in 1564 and died in 1616. He is still an icon of the theatrical and literary world.

England and Scotland—Religious Conflict

Elizabeth I died childless in 1603 and in an act of irony, was succeeded by James I, the son of Mary Stuart, whose execution Elizabeth had ordered in 1567. James I, as heir to the Scottish and English thrones, ruled England, Scotland, and Ireland, calling himself King of Great Britain. James's rule was marked by religious disputes between Catholics and Protestants and the emergence of extreme Protestantism which sought to distance the country still further from Catholicism.

Guy Fawkes and the Gunpowder Plot

In 1605, a Catholic plot to blow up the English (Anglican-dominated) parliament, with a massive gunpowder bomb at the Hall of Westminster in London, was foiled at the last moment. This became known as the Gunpowder Plot, and one of the conspirators, Guy Fawkes, was arrested *in flagrante delicto* as he was setting the charges. He and his fellow conspirators were tortured, hanged, and burned.

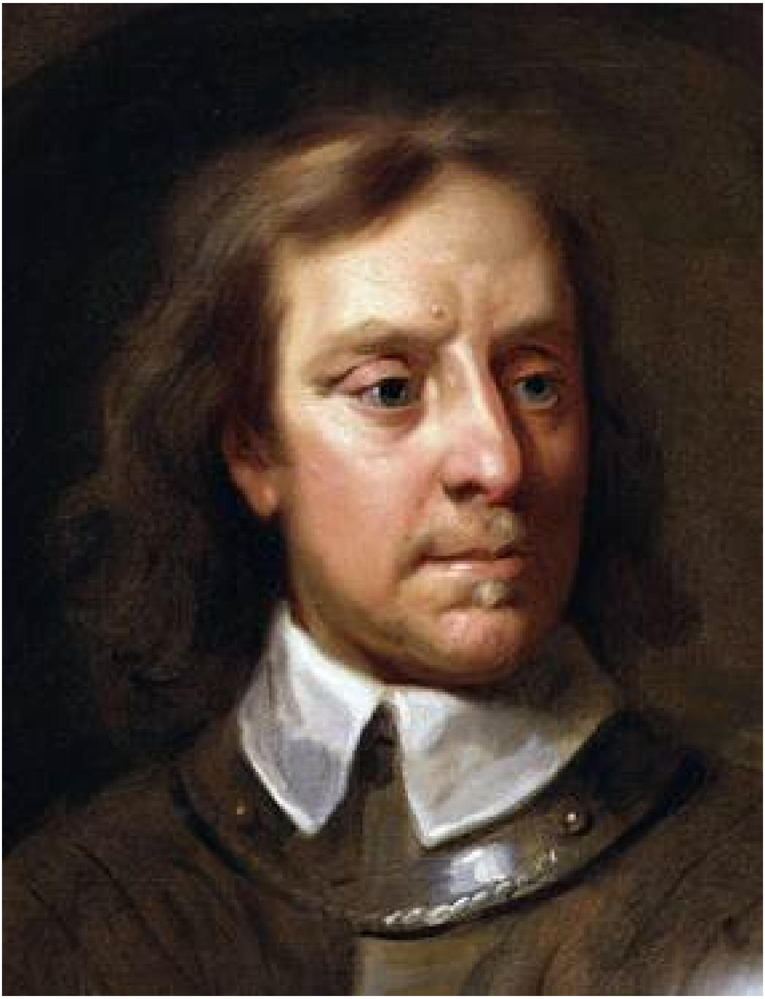
These events are still celebrated in many countries as Guy Fawkes Night with fireworks, although the meaning of the fireworks and the bonfire is lost on most.

The English Revolution and Republic—The Beheading of the King

The growing dissent between Catholics, Anglicans, and extremist Protestants, combined with the attempts by Charles I, the son of James, to rule without parliament from 1629 to 1640, led to the next English civil war and the English Revolution. After conflicts over laws in parliament which aimed to limit the power of the Anglican Church, Charles withdrew his supporters, who were known as Cavaliers, from parliament.

The extremist Protestant remainder of parliament, called Roundheads, then declared war on the royalist forces. In 1642, the first battle of the great English Civil War was fought at Edghill in Warwickshire. The Roundheads, or parliamentarians, eventually defeated the royalists after much of the country was laid waste in the resulting conflict. Charles was captured and beheaded in the main street of Whitehall in London in 1649, the only English monarch to meet such a public end. The English parliament then declared England a “commonwealth” and abolished the monarchy.

THE COMMONER WHO ESTABLISHED THE ENGLISH REPUBLIC—OLIVER CROMWELL



Oliver Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament in 1653. The parliament had originally consisted of supporters of the English king, Charles I, and his opponents, with the latter being in the majority. After expelling the Charles supporters, the remainder of the parliament, also known as the Rump Parliament, ordered the execution of the English monarch. Although Cromwell dissolved the Long Parliament in 1653, it reconvened in 1660 just prior to the restoration of the monarchy.

Cromwell's "Commonwealth" and Legacy

The dominating personality of the time of the English "commonwealth" was Oliver Cromwell. From 1649 to 1651, Cromwell acted like an imperial king without ever declaring himself one. He conquered all of Scotland and Ireland, bringing then into the "commonwealth."

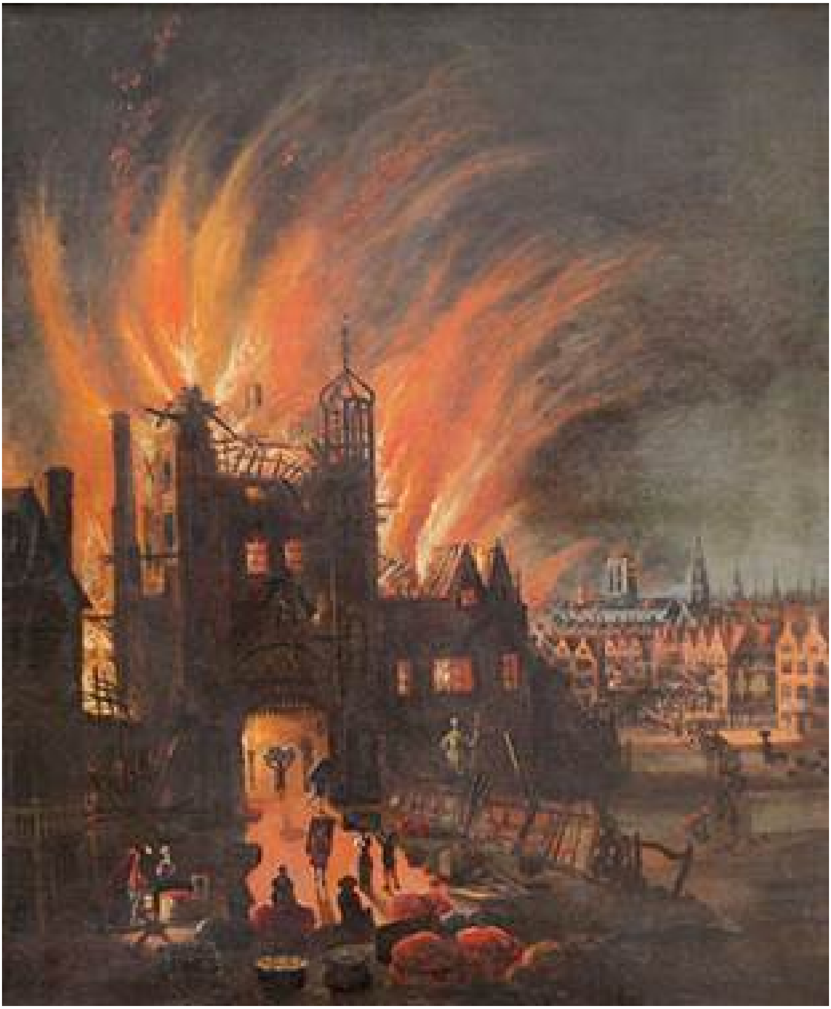
England also expanded its colonial possessions, seizing the island of Jamaica from the Spanish in 1655. After a deputation of Dutch Jews came to see him in 1655, Cromwell also ruled that Jews could be allowed back into England in 1656, the first time since their expulsion in 1290.

The Restoration—Cultural Expansion

After Cromwell's death the commonwealth collapsed. A period of constitutional confusion followed until Charles II, the son of the executed king Charles I, was recalled to the throne in 1660. Thereafter followed a further expansion of English culture and influence.

This period produced famous writers such as John Locke, John Milton, John Bunyan, and Samuel Pepys. The latter author left a famous diary which described in detail not only cultural and social life in London, but also an account of the Great Fire of London.

The Great Fire of London



The Great Fire of London burned down almost all of the houses and buildings located within the boundaries of the ancient Roman city walls over a period of nearly five days in early September 1666. At least 13,200 houses and nearly one hundred churches, including St. Paul's Cathedral, were destroyed in the blaze which left seven-eighths of the city's population homeless.

The destruction of much of the old architecture in this blaze provided the scientist and architect Christopher Wren with an opportunity to redesign and rebuild many parts of the city.

The new St. Paul's Cathedral, conceptualized and built under Wren's direction, was completed in 1708 and has been a London icon ever since. Wren also designed fifty-two other churches in London which were built after the fire, as well as a large number of government buildings.

Dutch William of Orange Bolsters Protestants

In 1688, the English king James II issued a Declaration of Indulgence, allowing Dissenters and Catholics to worship freely. The Anglican dominated parliament, fearful of the return of Catholicism, invited William of Orange, a Protestant from the Netherlands and husband of the king's elder daughter, Mary, to bolster the Protestant camp.

When William landed, James fled, his army having deserted to William, who was given temporary control of the government. This was formalized in 1689 when parliament granted the crown to Mary and William to share, entrenching the Protestant grip on England. War with the French and the Spanish followed, mostly in an attempt to check the territorial ambitions of the French king Louis XIV but also linked to a desire to prevent a return to Catholic influence in England.

Isaac Newton—Intellectual Giant

This period also produced one of the greatest scientists the world has ever known, Isaac Newton, who lived from 1642 to 1726. Newton was a prestigious natural philosopher and mathematician who invented the mathematical system known as Calculus and was author of the laws of motion and of gravitation.

Newton's works, combined with the efforts of philosophers such as John Locke, Thomas Hobbes, and others, saw England dominate the world's stage with scientific and intellectual thought—a situation of eminence which contributed greatly to the domination of the physical world by the British.

Formal Union in 1707

In 1707, England and Scotland were finally formally united by an Act of Union. This was done to prevent the possibility of a Scottish Catholic ever becoming king or queen, with preference being given to the closest Protestant royal family members who were in Germany. The Act of Union between the kingdoms of Scotland and England created the "United Kingdom" of Great Britain.

SCOTLAND

The original population of Scotland was, like most other regions in northwest Europe, a mix of proto-Nordic and Old European. The oldest dwellings found in Scotland date back 9,500 years, and the earliest large settlements date to 6,000 years ago, with the village of Skara Brae in Orkney being the best preserved. There are also numerous stone structures and circles in the Northern and Western Isles which all date from Neolithic times.

These Neolithic populations remained undisturbed until Scotland was occupied by a tribe of Celts, called the Picts, around the year 1100 BC. This tribe quickly assimilated the original Old European inhabitants and created the basis of the present-day Scottish population.

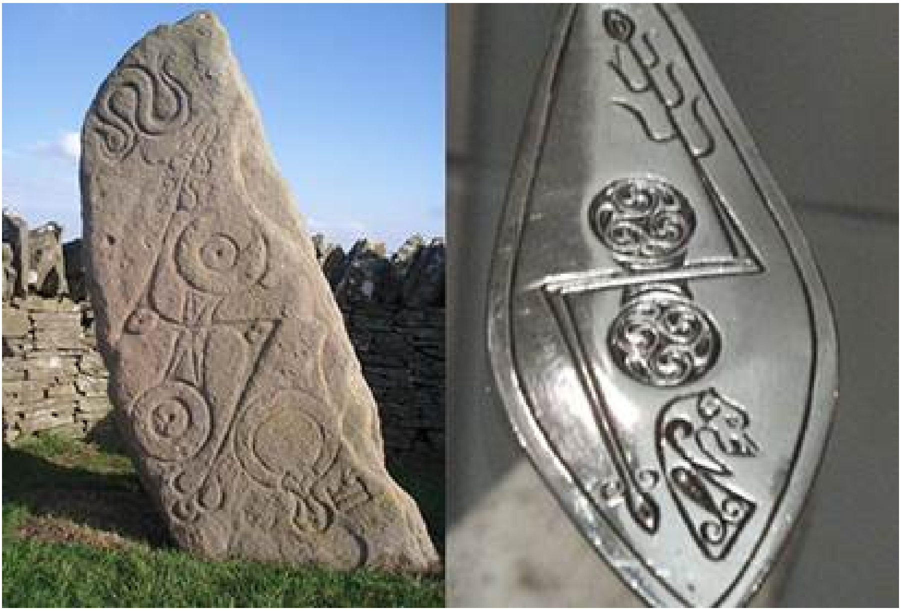
The arrival of the Romans roused these Pictish tribes into armed insurrection. The savageness of their resistance—echoing that of their Germanic cousins on the Continent—held the Romans at bay. Eventually the legions gave up trying to conquer Scotland, and by 123 AD, the Roman emperor Hadrian had ordered a wall to be built across northern England to keep the Picts out. This came to be known as Hadrian’s Wall.

Pictish Raids—Danes Invited for Protection

The withdrawal of the last Roman legions after 406 allowed new waves of Pictish raiders to attack the largely Romanized Britons in the north and midlands of England. These raids grew so severe that the Britons invited Danish settlers into the island to help stem the Pictish tide. The Danes brought with them a number of other Germanic tribes (the Angles, Saxons, and others) and together they put an end to the raids. The lands north of the old Roman border remained independent.

The Irish Celts Invade—Sixth Century

Around the end of the sixth century, a wave of Irish Celts, called the Scots, invaded from across the Irish Sea. This new wave of Celts soon dominated the entire region to the point where their tribal name became synonymous with the land—Scotland. In many regions the Picts and Scots merged into one, being of virtually identical subracial stock.



How little is known of the Pictish culture is best illustrated by the mystery of the "double disc" and "z-rod" symbols found on so many Pict artifacts, such as (above left) the runestone in Ablerlemmo, Angus in Scotland, and above right, the silver plaque from Norrie's Law, Fife. Their exact meaning still eludes historians.

Northumbria—Germanics Invade 560

The southernmost part of the Pictish lands, north of Hadrian's Wall to the Firth of Forth, was quickly overrun by the Angle and Saxon newcomers. They established their own kingdom in what became known as Northumbria. The arrival of the Germanic tribes also saw a great revival in paganism. By 563, Irish Christian missionaries were hard at work in Northumbria, supplemented between 655 and 664 by Scottish missionaries.

It did not take long for the kingdom of Northumbria to take the offensive against the Scots. In 685, the lands north of the Firth of Forth were invaded by a large Northumbrian army. The Northumbrians were defeated, which led to a weakening of that kingdom from which it never truly recovered. As a result, Scottish control spread ever further south.

MacAlpine Drives off the Norsemen

Scottish rule had become settled in Northumbria when the great Viking raids of the mid-eighth century started. In 844, Kenneth

MacAlpine, a nobleman from the region of Dalriada, and a descendant of the Pictish royal family, was declared king of the Scots. He united the disparate tribes of the north into the first united Scottish kingdom, officially known as the Alban. With the aid of the Northumbrians, the Albans managed to halt the Viking raids.

Once the Viking raids had been warded off, the war between the Scots and the Northumbrians resumed. The latter were finally defeated at the Battle of Carham in 1018 and the southernmost borders of Scotland were established under King Duncan I.

Macbeth—The Real King

Duncan I’s reign was marked by a series of disastrous wars and internal strife. It was ended in 1040 with his assassination by Macbeth, steward of Ross and Moray, who then became king of Scotland. Macbeth was a successful king and held the throne until 1057, when he was defeated and killed by Duncan’s son Malcolm Canmore.

The story of Macbeth was later used as the basis of a play by the great English playwright, William Shakespeare. As a result, Macbeth is possibly one of the better known Scottish kings, although certainly not the most important one.

England Invades Scotland 1292

The period from 1138 to 1237 was marked by a series of border conflicts between the Scots and the English over the disputed region of Northumbria. The Scots were defeated and Northumbria was incorporated into English territory once again.

Thereafter followed about fifty years of relative peace. In 1286, however, the Scottish king Alexander III died, leaving as his only heir the infant Margaret. Thirteen distant family members claimed the crown, resulting in a melee which plunged the country into chaos. Finally in 1292, the English king Edward I invaded Scotland and placed one of the claimants, John de Baliol, on the throne.

The English intervention sparked off bitter resentment among the Scots. In 1295, Baliol formed an alliance with France, despite having gained the throne due to English intervention. As the French were at war with the English, this was in effect a declaration of war against England. An English army marched north and engaged the Scottish rebels at the Battle of Dunbar in 1296. The Scots were defeated, Baliol was deposed, and all of Scotland was placed under English military occupation.

William Wallace—Hero of Scotland

In 1297 the Scottish nobleman William Wallace recruited a fresh rebel Scottish army and led a new revolt against the English. His forces defeated an English army at the Battle of Stirling that year, but the victory was short-lived. The English struck back and in 1298 defeated Wallace at the Battle of Falkirk.

The Scots resorted to guerrilla warfare against the occupying English and in 1304 Wallace was declared an outlaw by the English. He was betrayed by fellow Scots in 1305 and handed over to the English, who executed him in London.

WILLIAM WALLACE—SCOTTISH HERO

William Wallace, the national hero of Scotland. This colossal statue is

Aberdeen. There is a two hundred foot high Wallace Monument at Stirling, Scotland where the great Scotsman's sword is also kept. After waging a guerrilla war against the English, Wallace was captured and executed in 1305.

King Robert the Bruce Defeats the English at Bannockburn

Robert Bruce, a descendant of an early Scottish king, was formally crowned Robert I, king of Scotland, in 1306. Robert took up the mantle of Scottish resistance to English rule from Wallace, and recruited a new Scottish army.

Robert's forces suffered several major defeats, and was only saved by the decision of the English king Edward II to abandon the conquest of Scotland. Edward withdrew the main body of the English army, leaving behind only a few garrisons and a handful of pro-English Scottish noblemen to rule the country.

Undeterred, Bruce began a guerrilla campaign against the pro-English nobility and the remaining English garrisons in Scotland. Between 1307 and 1314, Bruce defeated the English a number of times and was eventually powerful enough to invade northern England. In response, Edward II led an army north but was routed at the Battle of Bannockburn, when the Scots inflicted one the worst defeats ever suffered by any English army in history.

The conflict then continued at varying levels of intensity for more than a decade, ending only in 1328, when the Treaty of Northampton recognized Scottish independence.

ROBERT THE BRUCE LEADS RENEWED STRUGGLE

King Robert the Bruce, a statue at Stirling. The figure looks toward the battlefield of Bannockburn, scene of his greatest triumph over the English in 1314.

Two Hundred Years of Strife—Scotland Occupied by the English

This was not the end of the wars with England. For more than two hundred years, Scotland was wracked by internal dissension over succession to the throne. The English added to the confusion by invading several times, culminating in a Scottish defeat at the Battle of Berwick-Upon-Tweed in 1333.

Thereafter the English occupied a large part of southeastern Scotland, but the outbreak of the Hundred Years' War with France allowed the Scots to seize back large parts of the occupied territory, including the symbolically important city of Edinburgh.

These gains were negated by a new English invasion of 1346 which followed an alliance between the Scots and France. This time almost all of southern Scotland was reoccupied by the English.

The remaining northern Scottish kingdom fell into a period of chaos with pretenders to the crown being murdered in an endless cycle of violent factionalism. Finally one Scottish king, James IV, subdued the infighting and was recognized as supreme leader of the

Scots. By 1502, he had made peace with the English, but in 1513 the English, under Henry VIII, invaded Scotland once again.

James IV was forced to declare war and marched south with an army, but was defeated and killed at the Battle of Flodden Field in northern England that year.

Mary, Queen of Scots—Last Catholic Queen Executed in London

The granddaughter of James IV, Mary, had been sent to France as a child since her mother was of French royal blood. She had married the French crown prince and reigned for a short while as queen of France until her husband died after less than two years on the throne.

By this time the Anglican and Protestant revolution had started to take hold in Scotland. Mary's upbringing was strictly Catholic and her marriage to the Catholic future king of France caused considerable anxiety among the increasingly Protestant Scottish nobility.

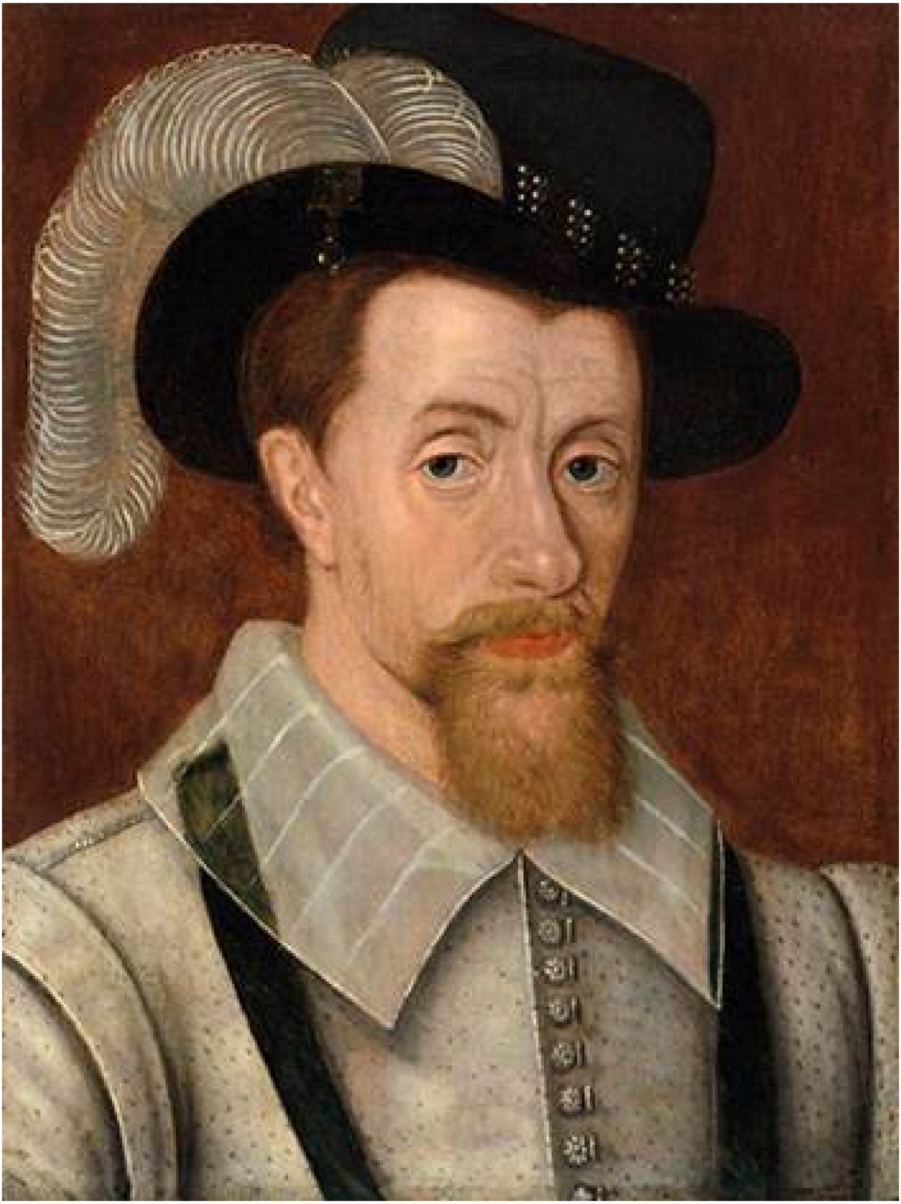
In 1559, following a denunciation of Protestants as heretics by Mary's French mother, the Scottish Protestant leader, John Knox, and his followers resorted to open rebellion. Elizabeth I of England seized the opportunity to provide aid to the rebels, and in 1560 the Catholic Church was officially abolished in Scotland and replaced with a Calvinistic Protestant church.

In 1561, Mary, now formally queen of Scotland, returned to her native land. Raising an army, she met the Protestants in battle but was defeated and forced to abdicate in favor of her infant son, James VI. Mary was captured but escaped and fled to England, where she was imprisoned and later executed by Elizabeth I.

James VI was raised as a Protestant and took the throne in 1587, following the execution of his mother in London. Upon the death of Elizabeth I in March 1603, James VI inherited the crown of England and became known as James I.

Despite sharing a monarch, the English and Scots retained separate parliaments. This arrangement was abolished by Oliver Cromwell during the period of the English Revolution, but was restored along with the monarchy in 1660.

JAMES I—KING OF SCOTLAND AND ENGLAND



James I, the only son of Mary, queen of Scots, was proclaimed king of Scotland as James VI in 1567, at the age of one. In 1603 he ascended to the English throne, thereby uniting the crowns of the two countries and establishing the country today known as the United Kingdom.

Scotland in the United Kingdom

In 1707, the Scottish parliament voted itself out of existence and Scotland became part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain. Some Highland Scots refused to acknowledge the union, and rebellions broke out in 1708, 1715, 1745, and 1746—all of which were suppressed.

Scottish Achievement—Disproportionately High

During this time the Scots remained almost completely racially homogeneous. They produced a disproportionately large number of the greatest men of the British scientific, cultural, and intellectual revolution which put the United Kingdom on the road to world dominance. Prominent Scots included the economist Adam Smith, the philosopher David Hume, the writers James Boswell and Robert Burns, and the author Sir Walter Scott—to name but a few.

Scotland's textile, steel, and shipbuilding industries contributed largely to Britain's dominance during the days of the empire, and Scottish soldiers played significant roles in many military exploits.

WALES

The Old European Mediterranean peoples were among the first inhabitants of Wales, and traces of their descendants can still be seen among the Welsh people to the present day. The Celtic invasions of Britain saw a mixing between these people, and by the time of the Romans these two subracial types had been almost completely assimilated and were speaking the Celtic Gaelic tongue, calling themselves the Cymry.

Celts Flee from Romans to Wales

Many Celts fled from the Roman occupation of southern England, entering the Welsh mountains which the Romans never succeeded in subduing. Wales was then divided up into several tribal areas, including Gwynedd, Gwent, Dyved, and Powys.

After the Angles and Saxons came to dominate England, one of the Anglo-Saxon kings, Offa of Mercia, built an earthwork rampart along almost the entire length of the Welsh border to isolate the Welsh from England. Parts of this rampart, called Offa's Dyke, can still be seen today.

OFFA'S DYKE BUILT AGAINST WELSH 780

The still standing Offa's Dyke remains silent testimony to the power and resources of the Germanic Anglo-Saxon invaders of England. Built by the Saxon king of Mercia, Offa (759–796), as a defense against the Welsh, the dyke was a fortified ditch which ran virtually the length of England's border with Wales.

Wales Subjugated by England 1064

In 1064 an English army under Harold Godwinson overran most of Wales, a conquest which was extended by the Normans under William the Conqueror. The Welsh continued to launch occasional raids, forcing the Normans to build a number of castles along the border. These castles were manned by Norman lords and their vassals who became known as Marcher Lords, the word march meaning border or frontier.

Unrest and rebellion against the English continued to sputter on for nearly three hundred years. An 1136 Welsh rebellion temporarily drove the English out, but they returned under King Henry I who once again subdued the western reaches of Wales. The prince of North Wales, Llewellyn ap Gruffydd, led several rebellions against the English, which led to a great invasion in 1276 by King Edward I.

Llewellyn evaded capture and organized another rebellion in

1282. This also ended in failure when he was killed in battle with the English near Builth Wells in December that year.

The English soldiers beheaded his corpse, and according to several accounts, it was sent back to London and put on public display for fifteen years. Llewellyn's brother, David ap Gruffydd, took up the struggle for Welsh independence, but was betrayed and captured by the English in June 1283. David was publicly tortured to death in the town of Shrewsbury and after his death Wales fell completely under English rule. Finally, in 1284, Edward I completed the conquest of Wales and the country became an English principality in terms of the Statute of Rhuddlan.

DOLWYDDELAN CASTLE—FORTRESS OF LLEWELLYN THE GREAT

The castle of Dolwyddelan, located deep in Snowdonia, northern Wales, was built between about 1210 and 1240 by Wales's most powerful medieval prince, Llewellyn the Great. A key mountain stronghold, Dolwyddelan was the scene of many clashes during the thirteenth century wars between the Welsh and Edward I. It fell to English forces in 1283 and was refortified, probably with a second rectangular tower which today stands in ruins. It is remarkable in another sense in that it is the only surviving Welsh-built castle in Wales—all the other famous sites were built *by the occupying English.*

Origin of the "Prince of Wales"

Seeking to appease the Welsh, Edward I in 1301 devised a plan which pacified much of that country. His eldest son, who had been born in Wales, was given the title Prince of Wales. In this way he satisfied for the greatest part the Welsh demands for recognition. Only one further important Welsh rebellion occurred, this time in 1402 under the leadership of Owen Glyndwr. Despite several English campaigns in Wales, the revolt was not suppressed until the death of Glyndwr in 1416.

In 1536 Wales was formally absorbed into a union with England. The Welsh, however, were not keen to convert to the Puritanism of Oliver Cromwell, who sent armed expeditions to keep the Welsh in line. Nonetheless, the Welsh remained loyal subjects of the United Kingdom, and produced a number of famous British leaders, including the famous Liberal Party leader, David Lloyd George.

THE UNITED KINGDOM

Great Britain Included Calais

The union of Scotland and England in 1707 created the United Kingdom of Great Britain (which included Wales). This became a political entity which dominated huge stretches of the world and played a formative role in shaping much of the character of the New World in North America, Australia, and New Zealand. The name "Great Britain" actually dates from the time when Britain possessed parts of northwestern France. The province around Calais was known as "Little Britain" and the British island itself as "Great Britain."

By the time of the creation of the union, the English had, along with the Spanish, Portuguese, French, and Dutch, been leading the way in exploring the New World and in establishing colonies in the new lands. The opportunities afforded by new lands saw many hundreds of thousands of Scots, Welsh, Irish, and English emigrate, principally to North America but then also later to Australia and New Zealand.

The Treaty of Utrecht and the Right to Trade in Slaves

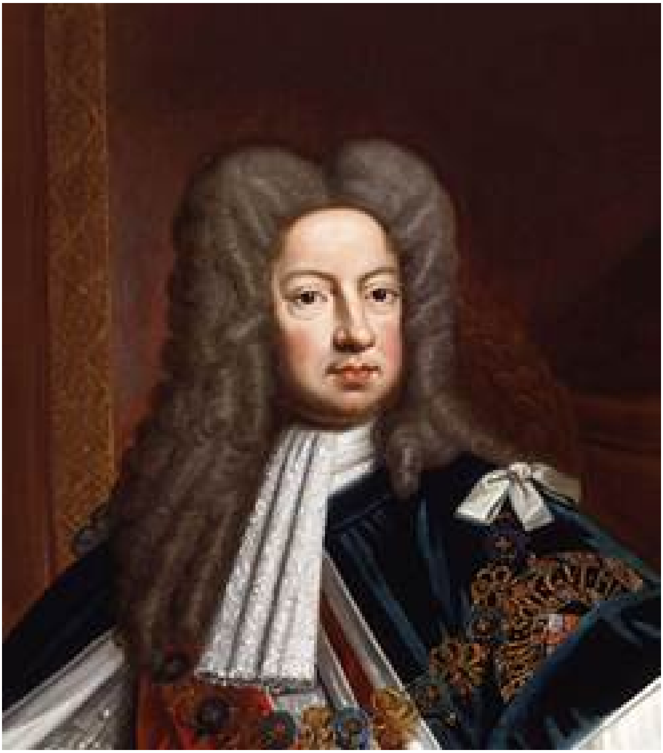
The first act of the new union was to make peace with the French, bringing to an end one of the string of wars between those two countries. The Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, which ended the War of Spanish Succession, saw Britain give up trying to prevent a Bourbon (French) king from taking the Spanish throne. In return, France ceded to Britain the North American areas of Hudson Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland. Spain ceded Gibraltar to Britain and granted to British merchants a limited right to trade with Spain's American colonies, including the "asiento"—the right to import black slaves into Spanish South America.

George I—First German King of Great Britain

The first monarch of the new union, Queen Anne, died childless. In terms of the Act of Settlement, her nearest Protestant relative was offered the crown. In this way, in 1714, the elector of Hanover in Germany became King George I of Britain. The British royal family ever since has actually been German.

The arrival of the German kings coincided with two decades of relative peace and development. The embryonic forms of a democratic government were created, with the right to vote being gradually extended and the Conservative and Liberal Parties coming into being as the main contenders for political office. By 1739, however, Britain was once again at war—first with Spain and then against a combined French and Prussian alliance which had attacked Austria, a British ally, in what became known as the Austrian War of Succession. Britain and France also fought at sea in North America and India.

GEORGE I—GERMAN KING OF BRITAIN



George I (1660–1727), elector of Hanover and the first German king of Great Britain and Ireland. In terms of the British succession laws, designed to prevent a Catholic from ever becoming regent, when the British crown fell vacant, it went to the nearest Protestant relative of the deceased monarch. In this way a German became the British king, and ever since then the British Royal Family has actually been from the Hanover line. George I was educated as a soldier and took part in his first great battle at the age of fifteen. Afterward he fought in the great race war against the Turks alongside the famous Polish warrior king John Sobieski. Although not overtly hostile to his English subjects, he never achieved great popularity among them, with the result that when he died (while on a visit to Germany), he was buried in his hometown of Hanover.

Bonnie Prince Charlie—Last Stuart Attempt at the Throne

In 1745, a group of Scottish nationalists took advantage of Britain's involvement in the continental wars to launch an attempt to place a Stuart back on the throne. Prince Charles Edward ("Bonnie Prince Charlie") landed in Scotland and won the allegiance of thousands of Scottish highlanders.

He captured Edinburgh and proclaimed his father to be King James III. Marching south with his army, Charles came within a hundred miles of London but failed to attract many English supporters. In December he retreated to Scotland and was defeated at the Battle of Culloden. In 1746 he fled into exile in France.

Wars of Expansion—North America and India

In 1756, war on the Continent broke out once again in the never ending merry-go-round of alliances. This time Britain was allied with Russia against France and Austria, in what was called the Seven Years' War. The British navy defeated the French fleet off the coast of Portugal and the English East India Company triumphed over its French counterpart in India, setting the stage for the eventual occupation of nearly that entire subcontinent by the British.

In North America, British troops captured large slices of French Canada. The end result of this war was that Britain succeeded in substantially extending its colonial borders at the expense of France. In addition, Spain, which had entered the war on the French side in 1762, ceded Florida to Britain. The addition of this territory ensured that all of America's East Coast fell under British rule. The Treaty of Paris, which ended the Seven Years' War, saw Britain's empire at the zenith of its territorial conquests.

Population Growth—Eleven Million in Fifty Years

By 1801, the official census showed a British population of sixteen million. This had leaped to twenty-seven million by 1851, with the increase linked to the rapid development of society during the Industrial Revolution.

The increased population also propelled forward Britain's colonial expansion policies overseas as increasing numbers of Britons sought better opportunities in the New World.

By 1780, the Scottish scientist James Watt had perfected the steam engine, enabling mechanization on a scale never before seen. Further inventions created mass spinning, weaving, clothing production factories, and the dawn of mass consumerism. By 1830, the Industrial Revolution had turned Britain into the foremost industrial power in the world.

The effects of the Industrial Revolution were not all positive. Unscrupulous capitalists exploited the working classes pitilessly, using children as laborers for inhumanely long hours and in dangerous jobs. Frightful slums sprang up in many British cities and towns.

London had a population of 2.5 million in 1851, making it the largest city in the world—an indication of the scale of the urbanization which had taken place.

WORLD'S FIRST IRON BRIDGE SIGNIFIES BRITISH LEAD IN INDUSTRIALIZATION

The world's first iron bridge, built across the Severn River in Shropshire, England. It was the first arch bridge in the world to be made out of cast iron. The brainchild of architect Thomas Farnolls Pritchard, the bridge was cast by a local ironmaster, John Wilkinson. Being the first in the world meant that there was no precedent and Pritchard had to design the construction method from scratch. The largest parts of the bridge span seventy feet each and the entire structure rises to sixty feet above the water. Opened on New Year's Day, 1781, the bridge was a miracle of engineering which in many ways represented Britain's lead in the industrialization process. The bridge remained open to vehicles until 1934, when for preservation purposes it was closed to all but pedestrians.

The American and French Revolutions Cause Social Reforms

By 1779, Britain had lost its most important colonial possession. The thirteen colonies on the east coast of America had won their independence in a three year war. The ideals of the American Revolution then spread back to France, whose navy had played a major role in forcing the British surrender at the hands of the colonial rebels. By 1789, the French Revolution had occurred, and its ramifications were keenly felt in Britain.

Responding to demands for reform to ward off a French Revolution-style uprising in Britain, the prime minister, William Pitt the Younger, inaugurated a period of political reform. This was interrupted by the outbreak of hostilities first with the French revolutionary government and then with Napoleon Bonaparte. The Napoleonic Wars ended with the extinction of many of the more radical ideas of the French Revolution, but the issue of social reform remained high on the agenda.

Post-Napoleonic War Britain suffered from economic depression—but this was not to be the worst ill affecting that society. The Industrial Revolution had also created an urban underclass, permanently locked into working class status with no realistic hope or opportunity of improvement. Growing social unrest led to a resumption of social reform programs in the 1830s. These included laws extending the franchise, limitations on working hours, and the use of children in factories.

British Involvement in India Leads to Racial Mixing

In 1837, the eighteen-year-old Queen Victoria ascended to the throne. One of the longest reigning British monarchs, Victoria oversaw a renewed growth in the British Empire and the reformation of the political system. The British occupation of India also reached its height under her reign and she was declared empress of that country.

The occupation of India led to a significant amount of racial mixing between British officers stationed there and Indian women. Many of these Indian wives were taken back to Britain (and Ireland, as Irishmen served in the British army at that time). The product of these mixed unions can still sometimes be detected among the present-day British and Irish populations. This admixture is, however, most evident in an Indian-origin blood disorder which is now found in Britain.

QUEEN VICTORIA—WHITE EMPRESS OF INDIA

The white empress of India. Queen Victoria, the longest reigning British monarch (reigned 1837–1901), was declared Empress of India in 1876. This imposing statue was erected in Calcutta.

British Industrial Supremacy

The Great Exhibition of 1851 in London symbolized Britain's industrial supremacy. The British railways—Britain was the home of the train—led the rest of the world in its sophistication. The telegraph provided instant communication and inexpensive steel was made possible by Henry Bessemer's 1856 invention of the first process to mass produce steel. The first large-scale production of steamships, which dramatically reduced intercontinental sailing times, was started in the 1860s.

Benjamin Disraeli on Race and History

Politics in Victorian Britain became dominated by the liberal party under William Gladstone and the Conservative Party under Benjamin Disraeli, who traded places as prime minister and opposition leader twice during their long careers.

Disraeli was a Christianized Jew whose writings on race are so profound that they are today largely ignored by politically correct present-day historians. In his book *Tancred,* published by Frederick Warne, London, in 1868, Disraeli wrote:

"All is race—there is no other truth" (page 106); and in his book *Endymion,* published by Longmans, London, he wrote: "No man will treat with indifference the principle of race. It is the key to history and why history is so often confused is that it has been written by men who were ignorant of this principle and all the knowledge it involves . . . Language and religion do not make a race—there is only one thing which makes a race, and that is blood" (pages 249–250).

Disraeli led British expansion during his time as prime minister. In 1875, Britain gained effective control over Egypt through a protectorate over the newly built Suez Canal which linked the Mediterranean with the Red Sea. In 1876, Disraeli had Victoria declared Empress of India and he annexed the Boer Republic of the Transvaal—an act which would later spark off the First Anglo-Boer War.

Emigration—Workers Flee the Slums

Victorian England, however, was not all progress. The price it paid for the industrialization process was the creation of urban slums. As a result, millions of Britons emigrated to the colonies, reaching a total outflow of more than two hundred thousand people per year during the 1880s. Most went to North America, although a considerable proportion went to Australia and New Zealand. Despite this, the population of Britain continued to increase to almost forty-one million by 1911.

Alliances Provoke World War I

Relations between Germany and Britain were cordial prior to the outbreak of World War I. The British royal house was, after all, originally German and the outbreak of that war came as a surprise to most observers.

During the war, some members of the British royal family anglicized their German-sounding names. For example, the Battenbergs changed their name to Mount Batten, which was the literal English translation.

Familial links aside, an alliance of Britain, France, and Russia had been created by 1914 to counter an alliance of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey. Under the provisions of the agreement between the British, French, and Russians, any outbreak of hostilities with one of those nations would see the other two declare war on the belligerent nation—which was obviously directed at Germany or Austria-Hungary.

The subsequent outbreak of hostilities between Russia and Germany then caused the French and the British to declare war and a British expeditionary force was sent to France to fight on the Western Front. Here they suffered fearful losses in the protracted trench warfare which followed, although the war finally resulted in an Allied victory.

Irish republicans seized the opportunity afforded by the distraction of the Great War to launch a renewed bid for independence, and in Easter week 1916 launched an armed uprising. The British army was forced to suppress this uprising with violence, and a large part of central Dublin was destroyed in the fighting.

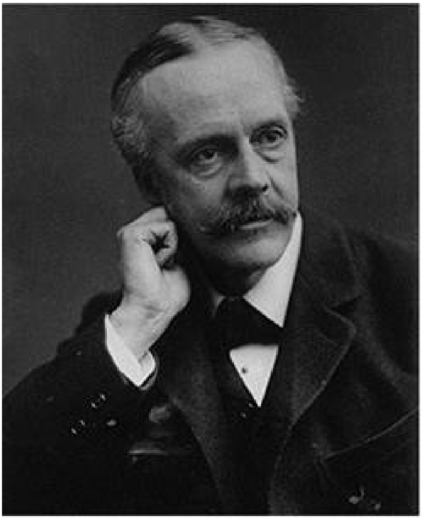
The Treaty of Versailles which ended World War I saw the former German colony in east Africa (today called Tanzania) handed over to British rule. In addition, the former Ottoman Turkish regions in the Middle East, including Iraq and Palestine, were placed under British control. These additions once again expanded the empire's borders.

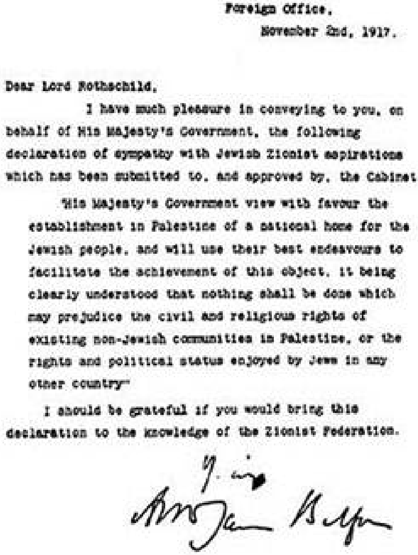
The Balfour Declaration

The acquisition of Palestine by the British from the Turks was of particular significance. The World Zionist Congress had extracted an understanding from the British government in 1917 that it would work for the creation of a Jewish state in Palestine in return for world Jewry supporting the Allied cause against Germany and Turkey. This undertaking became known as the Balfour Declaration, so named after the British foreign secretary Lord Arthur Balfour who made the public announcement.

At the end of the war, the British also finally addressed the issue of Irish independence. The suppression of the Easter Uprising had not suppressed violent Irish resistance to British rule and rather than continue with a civil war, all but six counties (which became the British province of Northern Ireland) were granted self rule in 1921. Later this became full independence.

THE BALFOUR DECLARATION AND WORLD WAR I





Foreign Office,
November 2nd, 1917.

Dear Lord Rothschild,

I have much pleasure in conveying to you, on behalf of His Majesty's Government, the following declaration of sympathy with Jewish Zionist aspirations which has been submitted to, and approved by, the Cabinet

"His Majesty's Government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavours to facilitate the achievement of this object, it being clearly understood that nothing shall be done which may prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine, or the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country"

I should be grateful if you would bring this declaration to the knowledge of the Zionist Federation.

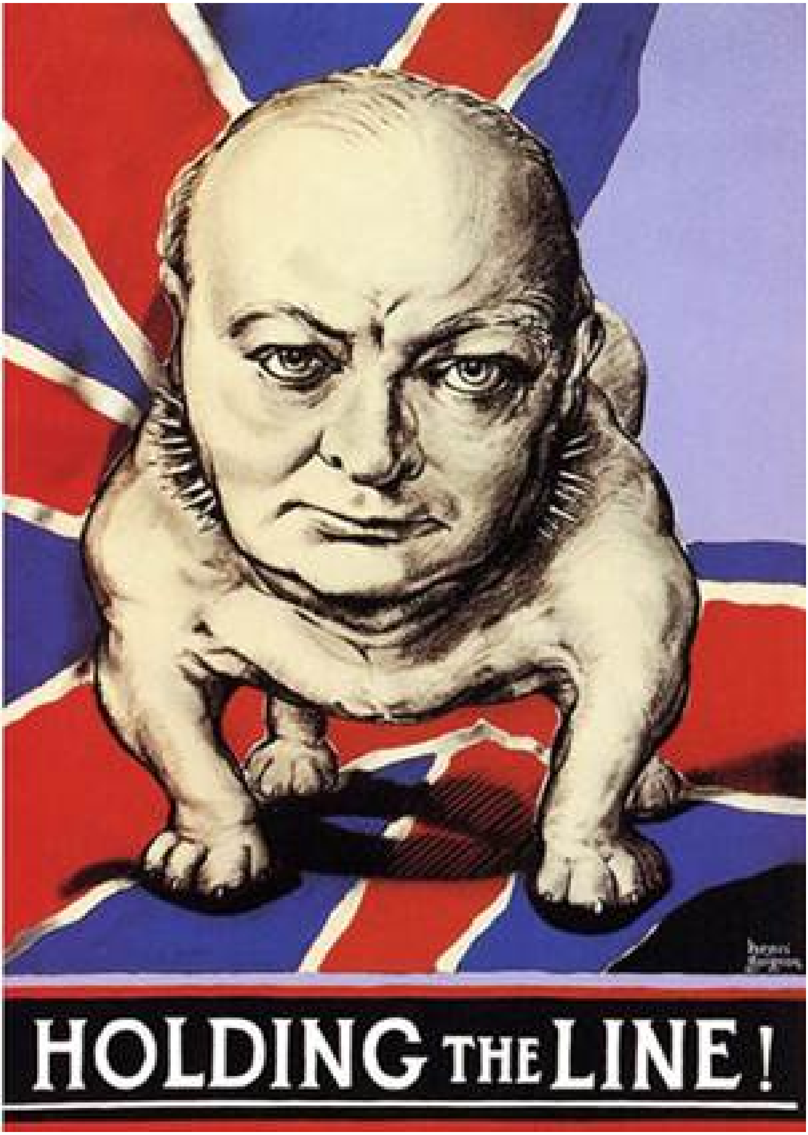
The First World War saw British troops seize most of the former Ottoman Empire's territory in the Middle East, including Palestine. This territory had been identified by the Zionist movement as a homeland for the world's Jews. As a result, the British government was lobbied by the British Jewish community to make a public commitment in this regard. This task fell to the British Foreign Secretary, Arthur James Balfour (1848–1930), who in October 1917, issued what became known as the Balfour Declaration. This note was a formal statement of policy by the British government stating that "His Majesty's government view with favour the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people, and will use their best endeavors to facilitate the achievement of this object..." The unwritten part was an understanding that world Jewry would then bring its influence to bear against Germany, even though many thousands of German Jews were fighting loyally for that nation in the war. Ironically, the British government then backed down from the undertaking after the war.

World War II—America Saves Britain

As could be expected, Britain did not welcome the outbreak of the Second World War. When Germany overran all of continental Europe, Britain was left as the only significant power in Europe not to have been beaten by Germany.

The exploits of the Royal Air Force, who staved off a desultory German air offensive became legendary, with the famous Spitfire and Hurricane fighters playing a major role in the successful air defense of Britain. After several bombing attacks on German cities by Royal Air Force bomber fleets, Germany retaliated by launching a full-scale bombing attack on the major British cities. The resulting Blitz, V1, and V2 rocket attacks saw sixty thousand British civilian deaths and the destruction of many cities. Ultimately, and mainly thanks to American industrial power, Germany was defeated, and Britain became one of the victorious Allied powers who occupied what was left of Germany.

BRITAIN'S MOST FAMOUS PRIME MINISTER


HOLDING THE LINE!

This wartime poster of Winston Churchill (1874–1965) as a British bulldog summarizes the British spirit during World War II. He served in the British army in India and the Sudan before becoming a war correspondent during the Anglo-Boer War. Elected to parliament in 1900, he served as a

Conservative and Liberal MP. During the First World War, he served as First Lord of the Admiralty, a post from which he resigned after the disastrous Gallipoli campaign. Following service as a battalion commander in France, he joined Lloyd George's coalition cabinet. He was elected prime minister on May 10, 1940. He succeeded in ensuring American aid, and when Germany attacked the Soviet Union in 1941, he maneuvered Britain into supporting the Communist giant. By 1945 he was admired throughout the world, his reputation disguising the fact that Britain's military role in the war was secondary to that of the US. Churchill's government was swept from power at the first election after the war. He was reelected to the prime ministership of Britain from 1951 to 1955, but advancing age and poor health prevented him from providing dynamic leadership. Resigning in 1955, Churchill devoted his last years to painting and writing. He died on January 24, 1965.

Socialism and Decolonization

Immediately after the war, Britain elected an overtly socialist Labour government. This shaped the face of present-day British society by creating the social welfare system and a number of state controlled institutions such as the nationalized health service, the nationalized coal industry, and other similar state enterprises.

Some of these nationalized industries were dismantled by the Margaret Thatcher government in the 1980s, causing much social unrest.

The end of the Second World War also saw the dissolution of the British Empire. Independence was granted to India and Pakistan in 1947 and to Burma and Ceylon (Sri Lanka) in 1948. Within another decade and a half, all of Britain's African colonies had also been granted independence.

The most important feature of post-World War II Britain has been the large immigration into it from the Third World, a process which sped up during the last quarter of the twentieth century.

CHAPTER 28: Civil War and Emigration—Ireland

It has been said that Ireland's greatest export has been people, and this is most certainly true. In all of the New World, the Irish presence has been felt, influencing the racial makeup of three major continents.

Ireland is also of importance for it remained the site of one of the longest running white civil wars in history, with the Irish and English fighting for over five hundred years. This, combined with its massive emigration history, makes Ireland more than worthy of study.

NEWGRANGE BARROW TOMB—4,500-YEAR-OLD MEGALITH GIANT

Newgrange barrow mound in County Meath, Ireland. Constructed in approximately 2500 BC, it is one of the finest passage graves in Western Europe, 250 feet (76 m) across and 40 feet (12 m) high. It was so constructed that at noon on the winter solstice, the sun shines through a specially made slot just above the entrance, directing rays into the furthest recesses of the tomb. The splendid construction is a tribute to the early white builders of Neolithic Ireland.

Ancient Ireland—Name Derived from "Aryan"

The island of Ireland was, like Britain, initially inhabited by tribes of Old Europeans and Proto-Nordics. These people were either overwhelmed or assimilated by the first Indo-European invaders to reach the island in the first millennium BC. The Celts settled the island in large enough numbers to feature in the writings of the classical Greeks. The first written reference to Ireland occurs in a Greek poem dating from 450 BC where mention is made of the land of "Ierne." Later classical Roman and Greek writers referred to the country as

Hibernia and Juverna.

The Indo-European origin of Ireland is most clearly represented in the traditional name for the island which finally became its official name: Eire, derived from the same root word as Aryan.

Scots Originally Irish

Great underground megalith tombs and aboveground megalith structures can still be found in abundance in Ireland. These show evidence of a once flourishing Neolithic society which was comparable with anything in the rest of Europe at the time.

According to Irish folklore, the Celts established four major kingdoms, known in the Gaelic language as Nemedians, Fomorians, Firbolgs, and Tuatha De Danann. One powerful Celtic tribe, the Scots, left Ireland for reasons unknown. They settled in the far north of Britain and eventually gave their name to Scotland.

St. Patrick—English Missionary and Irish Saint

Other Irish Celts continued to raid and harass Roman occupied Britain, with advance parties even reaching the coast of France to search for booty. During the reign of the Celtic king MacNeill (428 to 463), a Romanized English missionary, Patrick, entered Ireland in an attempt to convert the pagan Celtic natives away from their traditional Indo-European religions.

Patrick was not, as is commonly believed, completely successful. Nonetheless he did enough to ensure that Christianity—or Catholicism—became the dominant religion a century after his death in 461.

In the sixth century, extensive monasteries were founded in Ireland and it was from these centers that missionaries were sent all over the known world, including back into England when that land fell under pagan Germanic rule.

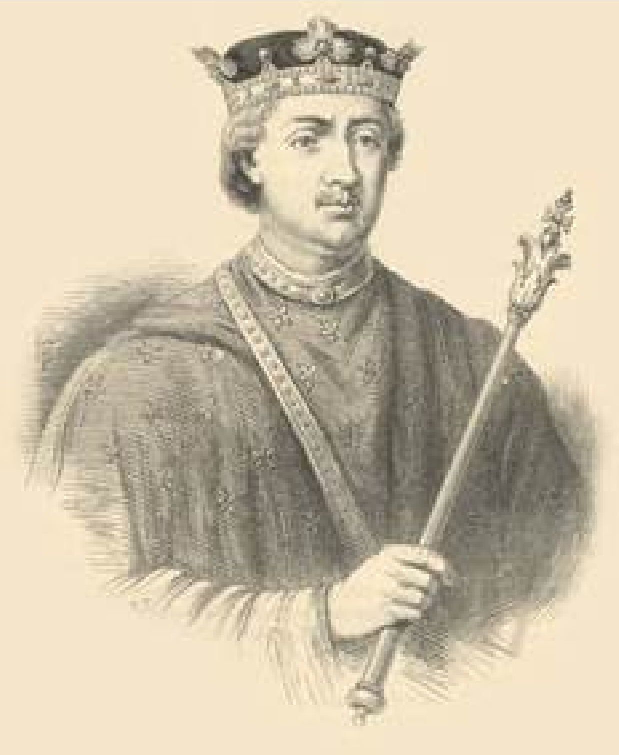
Viking Raids and Settlements

During the eighth century, Ireland was, along with almost all of France and Britain, thrown into confusion and panic by the Viking invasions. The Vikings were particularly fond of raiding Ireland, finding the Celtic tribes generally too busy fighting with each other to offer organized resistance. They liked Ireland so much that they soon established permanent settlements on its east coast, raiding ever deeper into the interior of the island.

Finally the Viking raids were brought to an end when the Irish king, Brian Boru, decisively defeated a large Viking force at the Battle of Clontarf, near Dublin, in 1014.

The Vikings caused the first important population shift in Ireland since the time of the Celtic settlement. They brought with them a fresh wave of Nordic blood to the land which mixed easily with the already existing subracial characteristics of the native population.

ENGLISH INVASION UNDER HENRY II



The English king Henry II who started the English intervention in Ireland with an 1169 invasion. Claiming to have received sanction from the pope for the invasion—a highly dubious claim—Henry allowed Norman lords to settle in the land, creating a festering political sore which has plagued the English for just under one thousand years.

Henry II Invades with Dubious Papal Authority

The first English invasion of Ireland took place under King Henry II, who claimed to have received official authorization for the conquest of the island from the pope. The authenticity of this order has long been called into question, but the upshot was that by 1169, an English army had entered Ireland in support of a deposed local Irish king, Dermot MacMurrough of the Irish kingdom of Leinster, who had asked the English for help in subduing his rebellious subjects.

In 1172, when Normandy and England were united kingdoms, the English king Henry gave permission to a large number of Norman lords to settle in Ireland. As the Normans were originally Vikings, this shift saw a further influx of Viking-descended peoples enter the Emerald Isle. Quickly they struck up a rapport with their distant subracial cousins already in Ireland, and soon alliances between the Normans and the Irish were formed to the detriment of the English.

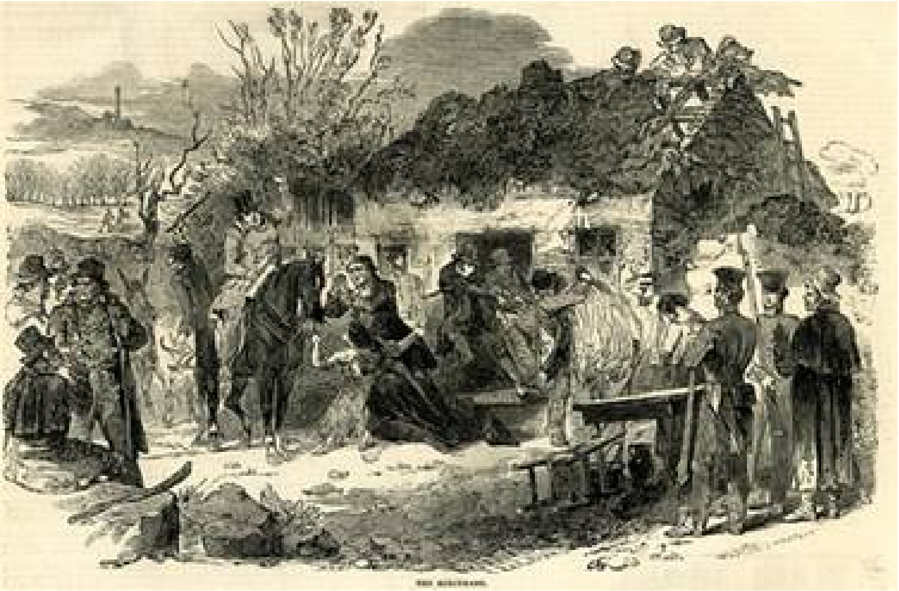
English power was further challenged by the 1314 invasion of Ireland by Edward Bruce, the younger brother of Robert the Bruce, king of Scotland, who attempted to throw the English out of the ancient home of the Scots. The enterprise failed, but the English population in Ireland was decimated.

Statute of Kilkenny Forbids Norman Alliances

The English authorities recognized that integration between the Normans and the Irish would eventually result in trouble.

In 1366, the Anglo-Irish parliament passed the Statute of Kilkenny, which punished all those who “followed the custom of, or allied themselves with” the native Irish. Such action was punishable by excommunication and heavy fines. This law was useless, however. The process was already so far advanced that by the fourteenth century the Irish were coalescing as a nation in their own right, despite a new English invasion. This was emphasized during the English War of the Roses, when English settlements in Ireland decreased to a small coastal strip around Dublin. This strip became known as the English Pale.

ENGLISH/IRISH BITTERNESS BREWS



Sowing the seeds of hatred—English police evicted Irish peasants during the 1880s from their homes for not being able to pay their rent. Every English law was seen, sometimes justifiably, as an affront to Irish nationalism. Such moves always drew a counterreaction from the Irish nationalists. This, combined with the clear Catholic/Protestant division between the English settlers in the north and the native Irish in the south, served to make a lethal brew which has not been fully resolved to the present day.

Irish Laws Declared Invalid without English Approval

In 1494, the English soldier and diplomat, Sir Edward Poynings, was appointed by the English monarch to look after and extend English interests in Ireland. Acting on royal authority, Poynings revived the Anglo-Irish parliament and the Statute of Kilkenny, which compelled the English and Irish to live apart and prohibited Irish law and customs in regions inhabited for the larger part by English settlers.

All state offices were filled with appointments made by the English king and English law was declared to be valid for large parts of the island. Finally, Poynings introduced the act known as the Poynings' Law, which made any law passed by the Irish parliament invalid until the English king had given his assent.

Anti-Catholic Drive

The English king Henry VIII had overthrown the Catholic Church in England—then he attempted to extend this to Ireland. The monasteries were disbanded and a great many destroyed. Much of the riches they had hoarded was distributed among Irish nobles, and their support for the English king was thereby quite literally bought.

Henry also wisely extended the right of home rule to the Irish. The result was a period of relative peace, and in 1541, the Irish parliament declared him king of Ireland in recognition of this achievement.

Although the English queen Mary was Catholic (and she tried hard to contain the Anglicans in England), she was the first monarch to begin the large-scale colonization of Ireland by English settlers.

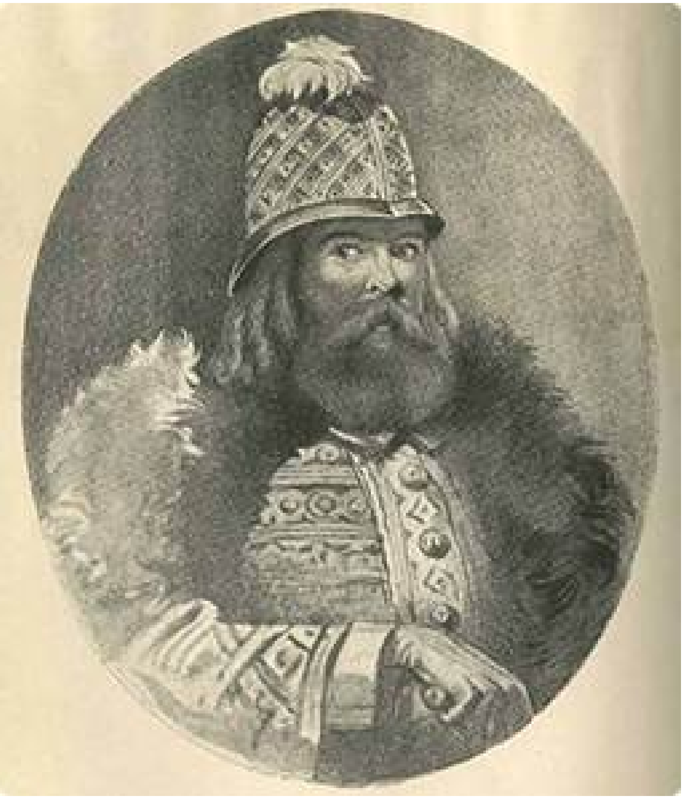
At first conciliatory toward the Irish, a rebellion in Ulster led by the Irish chieftain of that region, Shane O'Neill, drew "Bloody Mary" to more drastic measures. An act was passed dividing all Ireland into counties under English rulers invested with military powers, which they used with cruelty against the native Irish.

Anglicanization Sows Seeds of Hatred

The reconversion of England back to Anglicanism under Queen Elizabeth I caused a number of Irish Catholic rebellions. After one unsuccessful uprising, an English army was defeated at the Battle of Blackwater in 1602. During these wars, the English engendered great hatred toward themselves. Villages, crops, and cattle were destroyed to try and root out native resistance—thousands of Irish were executed out of hand. When English soldiers fell into Irish hands, they could, therefore, expect no mercy and many were tortured in turn. The greater part of Munster and Ulster was destroyed, and more Irish died from the resulting famine than from the war. The extension of the Anglican Church into Ireland was associated with English political control, and by default the vast majority of Irish were reconfirmed in their support for the Catholic Church. Religion became a way of demonstrating political opinion.

Six Counties Become "Northern Ireland"

During the reign of King James I, English law was declared to be the sole law of Ireland and approximately one hundred Irish chieftains were forced to flee. They then went to Rome where they sought the protection of the pope in 1607. The lands of these chieftains—six counties in the north—were confiscated. They later became the six counties of Northern Ireland. Increasing numbers of English and Scottish settlers were encouraged to settle in these confiscated counties.



Rory O'More

Irish Rebellion—Thirty Thousand English Slaughtered 1641

A local Irish chieftain, Rory O'More, then hatched a rebellion in 1641 to seize Dublin—the castle there being the main center of English rule in Ireland—and drive the English out.

The rebellion succeeded and the Irish took a terrible revenge upon the English settlers in Dublin, killing, by some estimates, up to thirty thousand, with only the Scots spared. The rebels were soon joined by the Catholic Irish nobles in the Pale. Together they elected a new Irish parliament to rule the island. The cooperation between the rebels and the nobles of the Pale came to an end in 1647 when the English promised the Pale inhabitants that the Catholic Church would be allowed to dominate in Ireland if they assisted in the English reconquest of Ireland.

Protestant Cromwell Invades in 1649

In 1649, the English Puritan leader Oliver Cromwell invaded Dublin. With a ten thousand-strong army, he retook Dublin Castle, executing all two thousand rebels who surrendered. After that, one more rebel Irish army attacked the English, but was defeated. The extremist Protestant soldiers of the English army were rewarded with large tracts of land in Munster, Leinster, and Ulster.

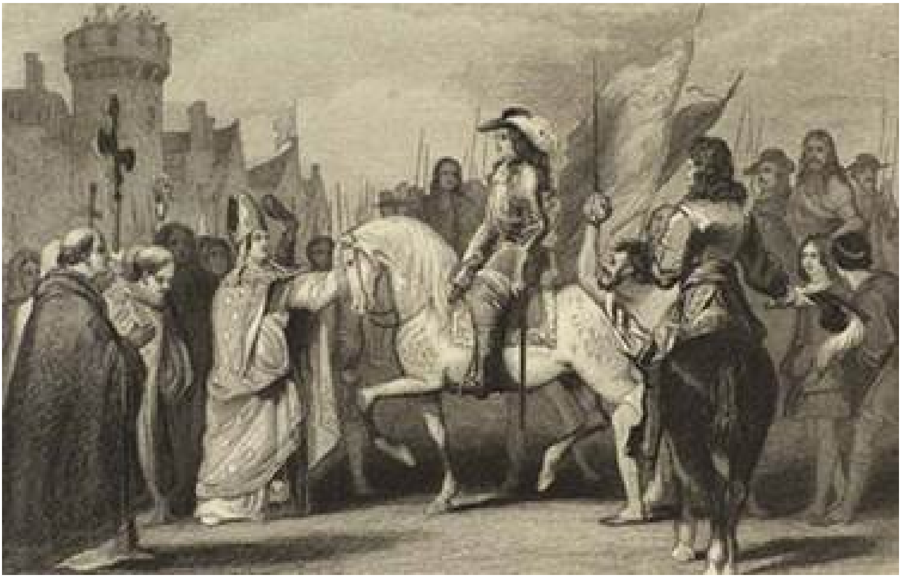
Catholics were forbidden from holding any important offices of state and were made completely subject to the English invaders. This policy was reversed by the English king James II, who had already alarmed the Protestant parliament in London with his slow attempts to resuscitate the Catholic Church in England. Under James II, Catholics were once again promoted to high offices in Ireland.

This proved beneficial for James in 1688 when he was welcomed in Ireland after fleeing England following the arrival of the Protestant William of Orange. Protestant settlers in Ireland were once again driven from their homes and took refuge in the heavily defended Protestant towns of Enniskillen and Londonderry. Although now in command of a large Catholic Irish army, James was unable to take those cities as he had no artillery with which to knock down the large city walls.

James summoned the Irish parliament and in an act designed to engender further loyalty, he restored all the lands confiscated since 1641. The Protestants, however, did not leave him alone, and in 1689, the new English king, William of Orange, followed James into Ireland.

James was defeated at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690 and forced to flee once again. William then tried—and failed—to take the city of Limerick but his artillery was destroyed outside the city. A new English army invaded the next year and this time was successful in taking Limerick.

CATHOLIC ENGLISH KING WELCOMED IN DUBLIN



The English king James II entering Dublin, cheered by the Catholic Irish residents. Although English, he favored the Catholic Church, and as such, received support from the by then staunchly Catholic Irish population. James could rely on a large Catholic Irish army when he fought the English Protestants under William of Orange at the Battle of Boyne in 1690. Despite this, he was defeated and forced to flee.

The Penal Laws—Deliberate Destruction of Irish Economy

The English parliament then exacted severe punishment on the Irish—instituting the Penal Laws which restricted the rights of the Catholic Church in Ireland. Laws passed in 1665 and 1680 effectively killed Irish commerce and industries by banning the export of Irish cattle, milk, butter, and cheese.

In 1699 the export of Irish woolen goods was forbidden. These measures effectively caused Ireland to be placed under an economic blockade, resulting in steady economic decline and serious poverty.

The most important effect of these laws was that it created the first wave of Ireland's largest export: people. Impoverished under the English blockade, hundreds of thousands of Irish started leaving the island, some going to France, but most going to North America in search of freedom from direct English rule.

The emigration of the Irish to almost all parts of the world would in time become the dominating foreign affair of Ireland, with as many as a million leaving the land because of the dire conditions created by the Penal Laws and their aftermath.

Continued Dissent—Catholics Denied the Vote

The American Revolution was greatly admired in Ireland, but viewed with great concern by the British establishment which feared that it would spark yet another Irish rebellion.

Consequently in 1778, the Irish parliament, which consisted of only Protestants (Catholics were not allowed to vote), passed the Relief Act, removing some of the most oppressive anti-Catholic measures. The English parliament then followed suit and repealed the Poynings' Law and much of the other anti-Catholic legislation.

The outbreak of the French Revolution sparked off a rebellion in Ireland, and in 1798 the Society of United Irishmen led a rebellion which nearly captured Dublin. They were, however, too lightly armed to defeat the regular Protestant army, and the landing of a French force of one thousand men in Ireland came too late to save the rebels.

By this time the stage had been set for a long lasting and bloody duel between the Irish and the English—a conflict which would last to the present day.

Union between Ireland and Great Britain 1801

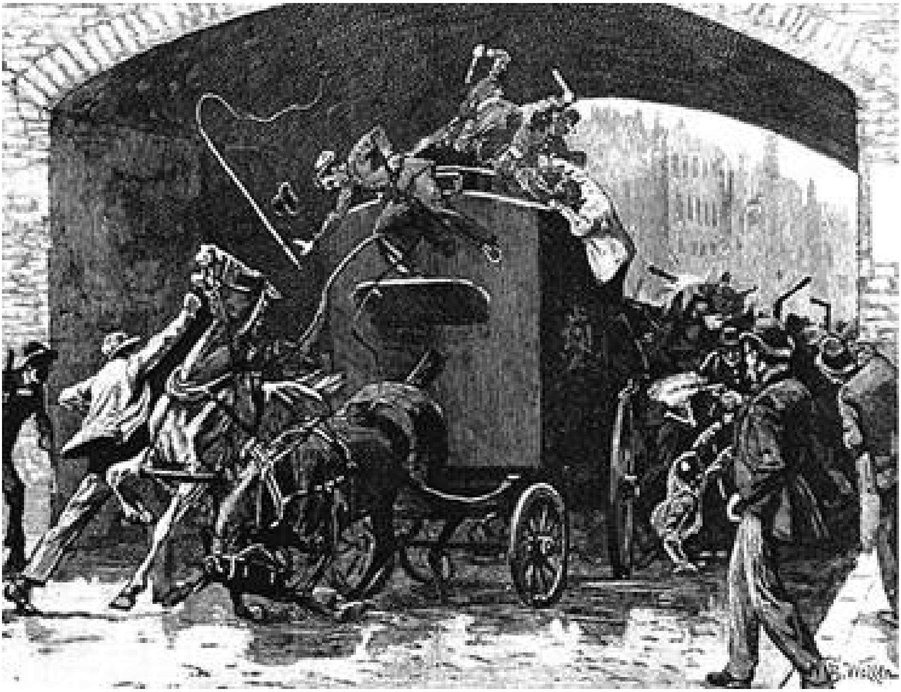
The British prime minister, William Pitt the Younger, then enacted the union of Great Britain and Ireland in an attempt to strike a balance between the continual Roman Catholic Irish rebellions and the anti-Catholic Protestant minority in Ireland.

The union of Great Britain and Ireland was officially proclaimed on January 1, 1801. In exactly 121 years it would be dissolved. The union was two years old when the first rebellion broke out: in 1803, Robert Emmert led a brief and unsuccessful uprising which was easily suppressed.

In 1823, the Catholic Association was founded. It demanded, and finally obtained, complete Roman Catholic emancipation in Ireland. In 1828, Roman Catholics were permitted to hold local office, and in 1829, they were allowed to sit in parliament for the first time.

These reforms came despite a new war over the compulsory payment of tithes to maintain the Anglican Church. This was required of all the inhabitants of Ireland whether they were Catholic or Protestant. Both sects fought each other with great cruelty during the Tithe Wars, as they were called, which ended with the conversion of the payment of the tithe tax into rent charges.

FENIAN BROTHERHOOD VIOLENTLY RESISTS ENGLISH



Springing prisoners, 1865 style. Discontent with English rule in Ireland took on renewed violence in 1865, with Irish nationalists forming a "Fenian Brotherhood" dedicated to Irish independence. The Fenians set themselves to the organization of armed rebellion, and many of their number were arrested by the English. This picture shows an armed attack on a prison van in Manchester on the English mainland.

Potato Famine—Population Declines

During the five years from 1845 to 1850, the potato crop in Ireland failed. It led to a disastrous famine which caused a second massive wave of Irish immigrants, again mainly to America. Through emigration and death from famine, the Irish population declined by as much as two million during this period.

Rebellion Brews

The Irish nationalists did not accept the Union. In 1867, another revolt broke out in Dublin and Kerry which had to be suppressed by British force of arms. Soon it became as normal for

British soldiers to serve in Ireland as in any part of the empire. The fact that England needed to deploy troops in Ireland proved that the land was a colony and nothing more.

In 1902, the Irish political leader and journalist Arthur Griffiths founded a group which morphed into the organization later known as Sinn Fein. This was to become the most important Irish nationalist force of the time and ultimately led Ireland to independence from Britain.

The Easter Rebellion 1916—Uprising in Dublin

Sinn Fein organized a military wing, as did many main Protestant groups, and by 1914 civil war seemed inevitable. The outbreak of the First World War overshadowed events and led to the British parliament postponing a piece of legislation allowing for Irish home rule.

The suspending of the home rule bill saw three small nationalist groups: the Citizen Army, an illegal force of Dublin citizens; the Irish Volunteers, a national defense body; and Sinn Fein, draw together with their military wings and organize what became known as the Easter Uprising.

At midday on April 24, 1916, about two thousand Irish nationalists seized control of the Dublin Post Office and other strategic points in the city. The leaders of the rebellion then proclaimed Irish independence, and by April 25, they controlled most of Dublin city. The British launched a counteroffensive on April 26, and martial law was proclaimed throughout Ireland. Bitter street fighting took place in Dublin, and the better armed British forces slowly dislodged the Irish nationalists from their positions.

By midday of April 29, the post office building, site of the rebel headquarters, was under attack by such overwhelming British army numbers that the last rebels were forced to surrender. About 440 British troops and a similar number of Irish rebels were killed in the uprising. Fifteen of the rebels were executed. The American-born Irishman, Eamon de Valera, leader of Sinn Fein, was also sentenced to death. His sentence was, however, commuted to life imprisonment, and then he was granted amnesty the next year.

EASTER UPRISING, DUBLIN 1916

The remains of the Dublin Post Office building, headquarters of the Easter Rebellion, 1916, after the battle.

Although unsuccessful, the rebellion had been supported by a large number of the Irish people, and public revulsion at the execution of fifteen of the rebels caused an upsurge in electoral support for Sinn Fein. In the 1918 election, Sinn Fein candidates won 73 of the 106 seats allotted to Ireland in the British parliament.

Independence—De Valera Becomes President

With such overwhelming support, the Sinn Fein members of parliament met in Dublin in January 1919 and declared Ireland's independence, appointing Eamon de Valera as president. The armed wing of Sinn Fein, called the Irish Republican Army (IRA), then launched a bitter guerrilla war against the British troops still in Ireland, particularly against an auxiliary police force known as the Black and Tans. This guerrilla war was waged with great ferocity on both sides, finally forcing the British parliament to agree to Irish independence with the Government of Ireland bill in 1920.

This bill provided for the division of Ireland into two. The majority of the land in the south (twenty-six counties) was to be an independent state with status similar to that of Canada, and the six counties of the north retained their status within Britain and became the province of Northern Ireland. Sinn Fein split over the division. De Valera was opposed to the partition of Ireland and was supported by fifty-seven MPs against the sixty-four who were in favor of the bill. De Valera resigned as president and was replaced by the founder of Sinn Fein, Arthur Griffiths.

Michael Collins, the Irish patriot who had virtually singlehandedly created the IRA, came out in favor of the settlement and became chairman of the provisional government.

The Irish Free State Formed 1922

A civil war broke out in Ireland between those supporting the partition and those opposed to it. Hundreds were killed in the war, including Michael Collins. The civil war did not halt the establishment of the Irish Free State, and in December 1922, a new constitution became effective through which the state formally came into being. The next year, the civil war was ended when De Valera agreed to accept the partition of Ireland as a compromise. He was elected to parliament, and by 1932 he had once again been voted into power as president of Ireland.

De Valera then instituted a series of measures designed to further reduce the last vestiges of British influence. Finally in 1937, a new constitution was adopted which further loosened British control and formally created the republic of "Eire." De Valera was elected prime minister.

DE VALERA—FIRST PRIME MINISTER

FOR PRESIDENT
VOTE 1 DE VALERA

Eamon de Valera, the first prime minister of Ireland, who was born in America of a Spanish father and an Irish mother. After moving to Ireland, he became involved in Irish nationalist politics and was arrested and condemned to death for his part in the Easter Uprising. His American citizenship saved his neck and he was then released, carrying on his struggle, becoming prime minister of an independent Ireland no less than three times.

Ireland Condoles Hitler's Death

Officially, Ireland remained neutral during the Second World War, but the population was divided ideologically. Many Irish worked in British factories, replacing British men called up for active service, while others either openly sympathized with Germany or actively tried to aid the German war effort.

In this way Eire became the only country in Europe to send an official telegram of condolence to Germany after the death of Hitler in April 1945. It seems likely, however, that the Irish actions were motivated more from dislike for the British than from support for the Germans.

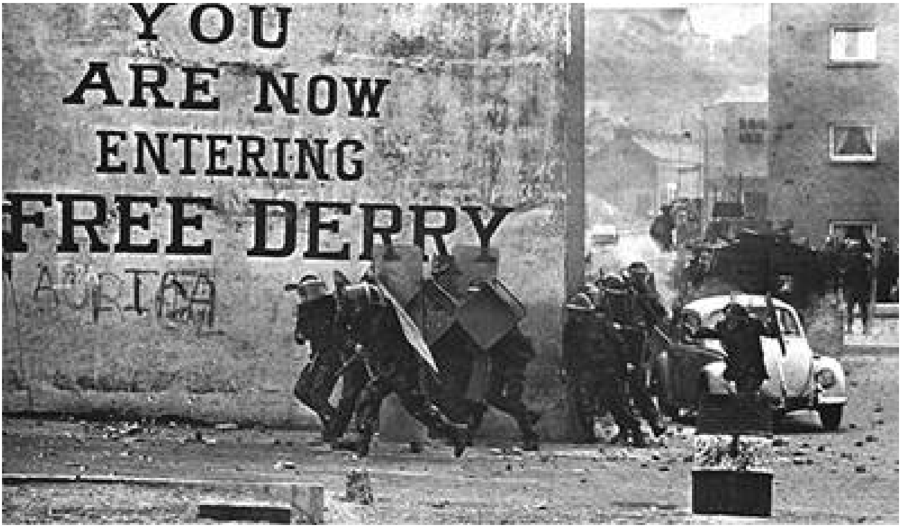
On Easter Monday, April 18, 1949, the anniversary of the Easter Rebellion, Eire became the Republic of Ireland, formally free of allegiance to the British crown and no longer a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

IRA Revived—British Mainland Targeted

Although it had never been formally disbanded, the IRA was revived during the postwar period as violence between Catholics and Protestants in the six counties of Northern Ireland increased during the 1960s.

The IRA then launched a new war to drive the British out of Northern Ireland. The issue was not as clear-cut as it had been in the southern part of the island due to the very large number of loyal British Protestant subjects in the six counties. The Protestants were, in fact, the majority and viewed Catholicism as synonymous with Irish nationalism. In this way the loyalist/republican divide was created in Northern Ireland along religious lines.

BRITISH BATTLE CATHOLIC REPUBLICANS IN LONDONDERRY



British soldiers, clad in riot gear, rush down a street in "Free Derry"—an Irish republican Catholic enclave in the town of Londonderry, 1972. Below, the same scene photographed in 2005.

YOU
ARE NOW
ENTERING
FREE DERRY

Attacks on Protestant civilians led to the loyalists forming their own paramilitary organizations. Soon many towns in Northern Ireland divided into distinct Catholic and Protestant areas. It became dangerous for Catholics to venture into Protestant areas and vice versa—the end result of a mixture of religious conflict and a clash between Irish and British nationalism. During the 1970s, the IRA moved on to bomb strategic and civilian targets on the British mainland. This caused outrage when bars and public places were bombed without warning.

During the late 1990s, the warring factions were brought to the negotiating table and the beginnings of a settlement were thrashed out. By 2009, a peace accord had been signed and all the significant warring factions had agreed to settle the question constitutionally.

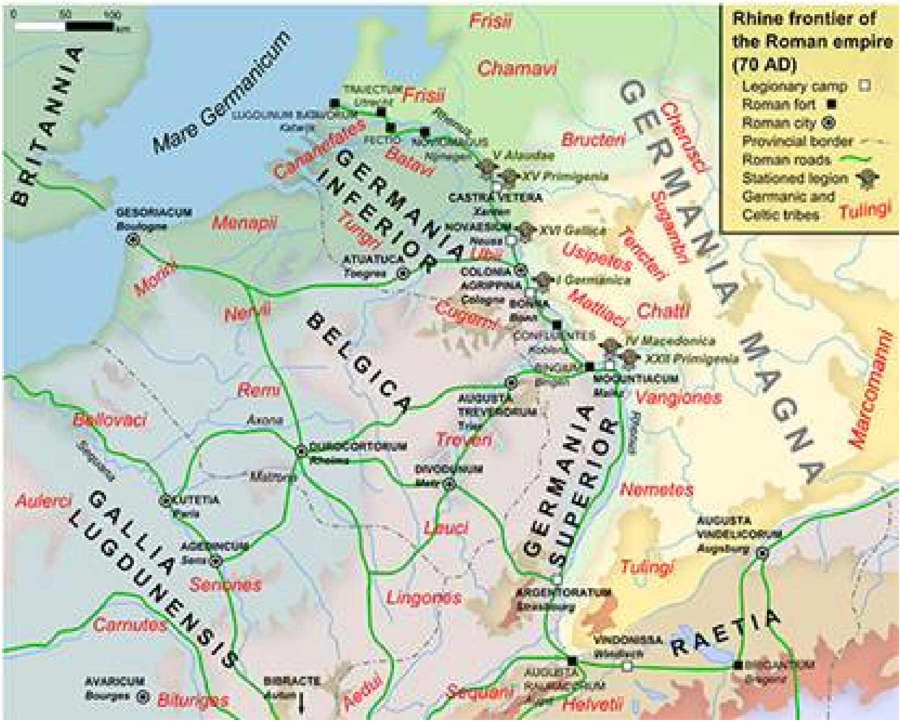
Twentieth Century Nonwhite Influx

Ireland has, like all Western European countries, been the target of increased nonwhite immigration since the last decade or so of the twentieth century. The racial homogeneity which preserved Ireland’s culture is therefore under threat, and this issue is dealt with in detail later in this work.

CHAPTER 29: Small yet Significant—the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg

Despite their small geographic size, the nations called the Low Countries—the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg—have played an important role in European and world history, influencing culture, science, and colonialism in proportions completely out of significance to their population base.

The story of these remarkable Low Countries is, therefore, of interest in comparative values, and, like those of many European nations, does much to destroy the "environmental" theory of the advancement of civilization.



0 50 100 km
Rhine frontier of the Roman empire (70 AD)
Legionary camp
Roman fort
Roman city
Provincial border
Roman roads
Stationed legion
Germanic and Celtic tribes
Tulingi
BRITANNIA
Mare Germanicum
Frisii
Chamavi
Frisii
TRAIECTUM Utrecht
LUGDUNUM BATAVORUM Katwijk
FECTIO
NOVIOMAGUS Nijmegen
Canninefates
Batavi
Bructeri
Cherusci
GERMANIA MAGNA
V Alaudae
XV Primigenia
CASTRA VETERA Xanten
GERMANIA INFERIOR
Sugambri
GESORIACUM Boulogne
Menapii
NOVAESIUM Neuss
XVI Gallica
Tencteri
Usipetes
Tungri
ATUATUCA Tongres
Ubii
COLONIA AGRIPPINA Cologne
I Germanica
BONNA Bonn
Mattiaci
Chatti
Morini
Nervii
BELGICA
Cugerni
CONFLUENTES Koblenz
IV Macedonica
XXII Primigenia
BINGIUM Bingen
MOGUNTIACUM Mainz
Vangiones
Marcomanni
Remi
AUGUSTA TREVERORUM Trier
Bellovaci
Axona
Treveri
DUROCORTORUM Reims
Sequana
Matrona
DIVODURUM Metz
Rhenus
Nemetes
Aulerci
GALLIA LUGDUNENSIS
LUTETIA Paris
GERMANIA SUPERIOR
AUGUSTA VINDELICORUM Augsburg
AGEDINCUM Sens
Leuci
Tulingi
Senones
Lingones
ARGENTORATUM Strasbourg
Carnutes
VINDONISSA Windisch
RAETIA
AVARICUM Bourges
Bituriges
BIBRACTE Autun
Aedui
Sequani
AUGUSTA RAURICORUM Augst
Helvetii
BRIGANTIUM Bregenz

Ancient Period—Celts Mix with Old Europeans

The area now known as the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg was, like much of ancient Europe, first occupied by Old Europeans and proto-Nordics. The region has a number of Neolithic-era settlements, although it was sparsely populated. This was probably due to the low-lying coastal nature of the land which did not make it the easiest upon which to settle. The northeastern part of Europe was also influenced by the Celts during the second millennium BC. This laid the basis for the present-day racial makeup of the Low Countries which remained mostly unchanged until the last part of the twentieth century.

Caesar Subjugates Belgae

Roman armies led by Julius Caesar overran the Celts of northwestern Europe during the first century BC, subjugating all the tribes in the area. This included a tribe referred to in Roman records as the “Belgae”—from which the word “Belgium” would originate. The Roman invasion did not alter the racial makeup of the population, being of the same basic racial stock. Under Roman rule, relative peace and prosperity prevailed for more than 250 years, and the land was slowly built up into an agricultural center.

Repeated Germanic Invasions

The decline of the Roman Empire paralleled the rise in attacks and invasion by Germanics in the last part of the second century AD. Northwestern Europe was no exception and as Roman power declined, swathes of that territory were lost to the new invaders.

In the north of present-day Holland, one Germanic tribe, the Frisians, settled along the northwestern coast and later gave their name to a province of that country, Friesland. In addition, Saxons invaded from the east while Franks invaded from the west and south. The influx of these Germanic tribes had the effect of further strengthening the Nordic racial element within the population makeup.

THE NETHERLANDS

The rise of the Frankish Empire after the collapse of the Roman Empire saw Christianity being introduced—often by the sword—to the Germanic and Celtic tribes of northeastern Europe. In this way, the area fell under the sway of Charlemagne, king of the Franks. After Charlemagne died, his empire was divided among his sons and the Netherlands became part of the middle kingdom, Lotharingia (also called Lorraine).

New Nordic Infusion—the Vikings

Frankish rule was disrupted by the Viking invasions of the eighth century. Many settlements along the western European coastline were invaded or sacked by bands of Viking raiders, a process which left two major legacies in the Netherlands.

These were the erection of walled and fortified cities (a first for that region) and a further slight addition to the Nordic gene pool in the area. Finally, some less violent bands of Vikings also settled there, with the biggest and most formal group settling in a nearby region of France to become the Normans.

WINDMILLS—EARLY DUTCH INGENUITY

Dutch inventiveness reflected in windmills in the countryside. Although windmills have come to be associated with the Netherlands, they were first built in France and England in the twelfth century and then quickly spread throughout Europe. These early wooden structures, called post mills, were rotated by hand around a central post to bring the sails into the wind. The tower mill was developed in France during the fourteenth century. Taking advantage of their windy North Sea coastline, the Dutch perfected the windmill and by the nineteenth century had built an estimated nine thousand. Besides milling grain and irrigating farmland, the Dutch adapted their windmills to a variety of other tasks, including pumping sea water from land below sea level, sawing wood, making paper, pressing oil from seeds, and grinding many different materials. Of the major improvements on the windmill, the most important was the fantail, a mechanism invented in 1745 that automatically rotates the sails into the wind. In 1772 the spring sail was developed. This type of sail consists of wood shutters, the *openings of which can be controlled either manually or automatically to maintain a constant sail speed in winds of varying speeds.*

Foremost Trading Empire

Once the worst of the Viking raids were over, the Netherlands settled down to three centuries of relative peace. During this time it became an important trading center. This status as a trade nation has persisted to the present day, with the Port of Rotterdam still being the world's largest port.

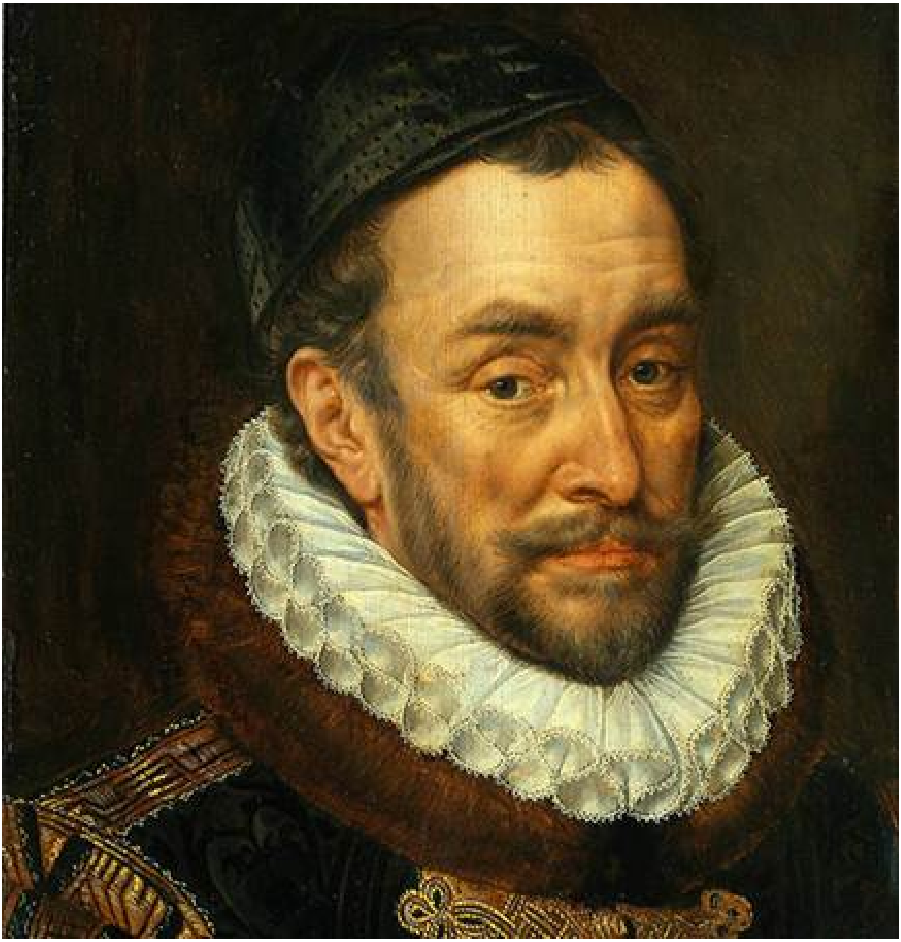
Habsburg Rule—German Control

The sixteenth century saw the rise of the German House of Habsburg. This royal family controlled many parts of Europe, including the Netherlands, and was one of the most influential royal dynasties on the Continent. In 1555, the emperor, Charles V, granted direct control of both Spain and the Netherlands to his son, Philip II.

The Dutch War of Independence from Spain

The Dutch objected to their country being ruled by Spain, and soon launched a war for independence. This conflict continued for eighty years before the Spanish were forced to withdraw. During the course of that conflict, the Netherlands also became involved with the Protestant Reformation which further alienated the staunchly Catholic Spanish. As a result, the war for independence became firmly linked to the Catholic/Protestant conflagration which consumed much of Europe at that time.

When the Spanish attempted to spread the Inquisition to the Netherlands in an attempt to suppress Protestantism in 1566, anti-Catholic riots broke out in many Dutch cities. A number of Catholic churches and other church properties were smashed by angry Protestant mobs and the Spanish sent new troops to avenge these attacks. The harsh rule imposed by these Spanish troops resulted in further rebellion, and by 1568 a state of open war existed between the Dutch and the Spanish.



William of the House of Orange, who led the first major revolt against Spanish rule.

William of Orange Opposes Spanish Rule

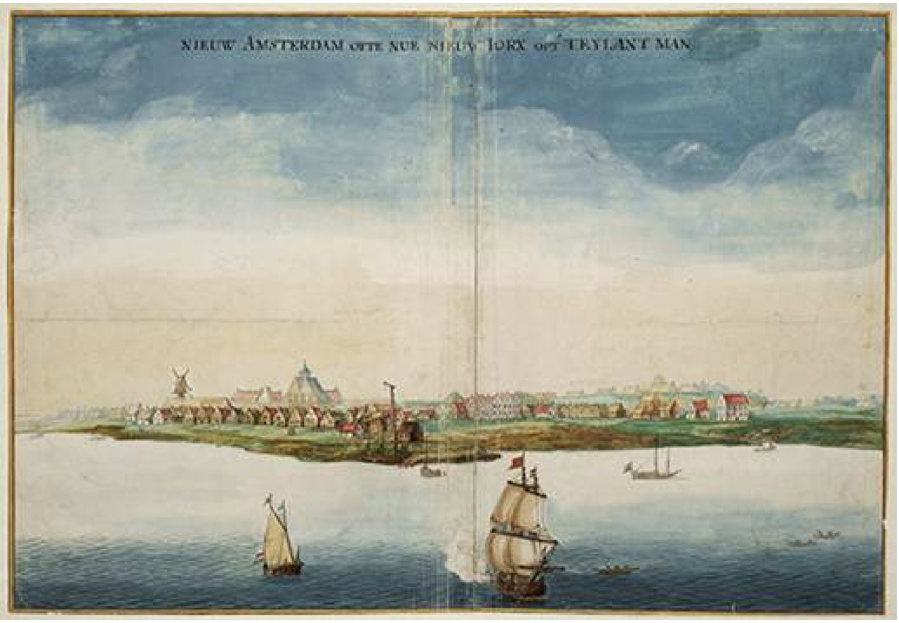
A leading Dutch noble, Prince William of the House of Orange (also known as the Prince of Orange), led the 1568 revolt which soon seized control of most of northern Holland. In 1579 William was crowned King William I of a new union of previously disparate Dutch states called the Union of Utrecht. The provinces which joined the union became the Netherlands and those that did not join up became Belgium.

In 1581, the Union of Utrecht proclaimed independence from Spain, provoking yet another furious invasion from the latter country. At first the conflict went poorly for the Dutch, who suffered many reverses including the murder of William in 1584.

By 1585, the Spanish had reconquered a large part of the areas it had previously lost, including the city of Antwerp. For a while it seemed as if the Spanish would reconquer all of the Netherlands, but England's timely intervention turned the tide. The English destruction of the Spanish Armada in 1588 weakened Spain's ability to wage war abroad, and by 1600 the last Spanish troops had been driven out of the Netherlands.

In 1648, the Dutch and Spanish signed the Treaty of Munster, in terms of which the Netherlands became independent for the first time since the Roman occupation.

DUTCH "NEW AMSTERDAM" BECOMES NEW YORK


NIEUW AMSTERDAM OFTE NUE NIEUW IORX OPT TEYLANT MAN

The American city today known as New York was founded by Dutch explorers who called their seventeenth century fortified settlement New Amsterdam. The first Dutch families arrived on Manhattan Island in 1624 upon instruction from the Dutch West India Company (DWIC) and the town was formally established in 1625 by Willem Verhulst. DWIC employee Peter Minuit signed a treaty with Manhattan Indians in 1626 which legally transferred possession of the island to the Dutch. It became the largest Dutch colonial settlement of the New Netherland province, now the New York Tri-State Region. It remained a Dutch possession until 1664, when it fell to a British attack. The city was then held by the English until 1673 when an avenging Dutch fleet seized it back. Finally, it and the colony of New Netherland were ceded permanently to Britain in 1674. The city was renamed New York and in its heyday became symbolic of

American capitalism. By the early twenty-first century, the city had been almost completely overrun with Third World immigrants.

Exploration and a World Empire—New York Founded in 1624 as "New Amsterdam"

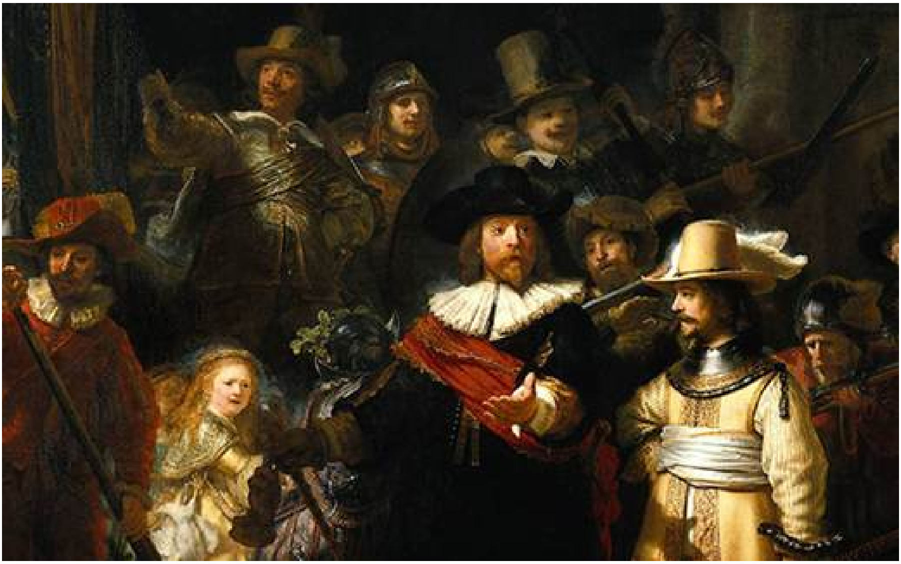
The Dutch had long been a maritime nation, and, once independent, soon built their navy, both civilian and military, into a force which rivaled any major European power. Closely following the exploration routes mapped out by Portugal, the Dutch sent exploration and trading missions to the New World. By 1600, the first successful trading mission had been established in Indonesia in Southeast Asia. This marked the beginning of what became a massive Dutch trading and colonial empire.

Many hundreds of thousands of Dutch people left the Netherlands at the height of its colonial era. A significant number went to America where they founded the city of New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island. This city would later be renamed New York after Manhattan was lost to the English.

Many Dutch, Germans, and French also settled in the colonial outpost on the southernmost tip of Africa. There they mixed and became the Boers. The full extent of the Dutch voyages of exploration can be seen in the names given to geographic points all over the world which originate from that language: Spitsbergen to Cape Horn, Staten Island in New York, Tasmania, and many others.

In addition, the Dutch founded two companies (the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company) which were formally empowered by the Dutch government to establish bases in Africa, the Americas, and Asia. Both companies were also given the right to wage war.

NORDIC DUTCH RACIAL TYPES IN ART 1642

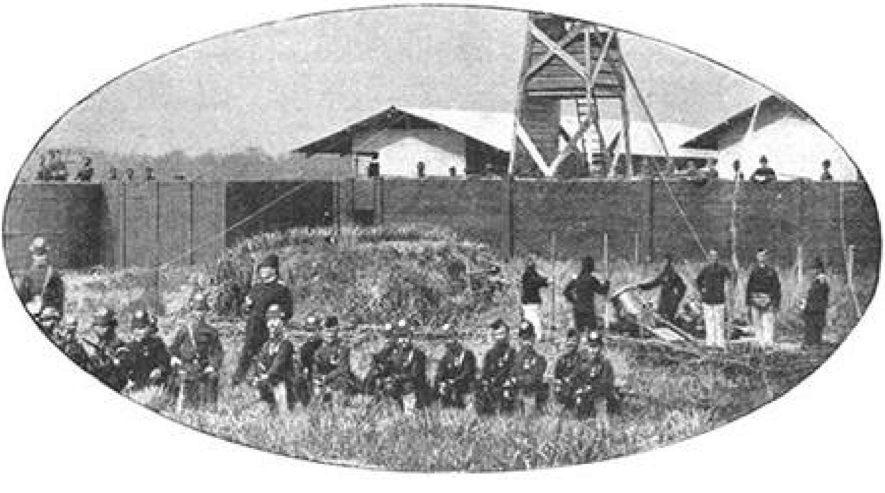


A detail from The Company of Captain Frans Banning Cocq, *better known as the* Night Watch, *1642, by Dutch Renaissance master painter, Rembrandt. It accurately depicts a good spread of Dutch racial types.*

Small Malay Strain Enters Dutch Population

As a result of the Dutch colonial expansion into Asia, a small Malay strain was introduced into the Dutch population through sailors taking Malay wives. A limited number of slaves were also imported from Southeast Asia. Although largely dissipated, signs of this racial mixing can sometimes still be seen in “throwback” genetic effects in Holland.

DUTCH COLONIES EXPAND IN EAST INDIES



Dutch soldiers and two mortar squads photographed in position in one of the Dutch forts on the Far East island of Bali in the early 1900s. Wars with the Bali natives lasted more than thirty years.

Anglo–Dutch Wars 1650 to 1667

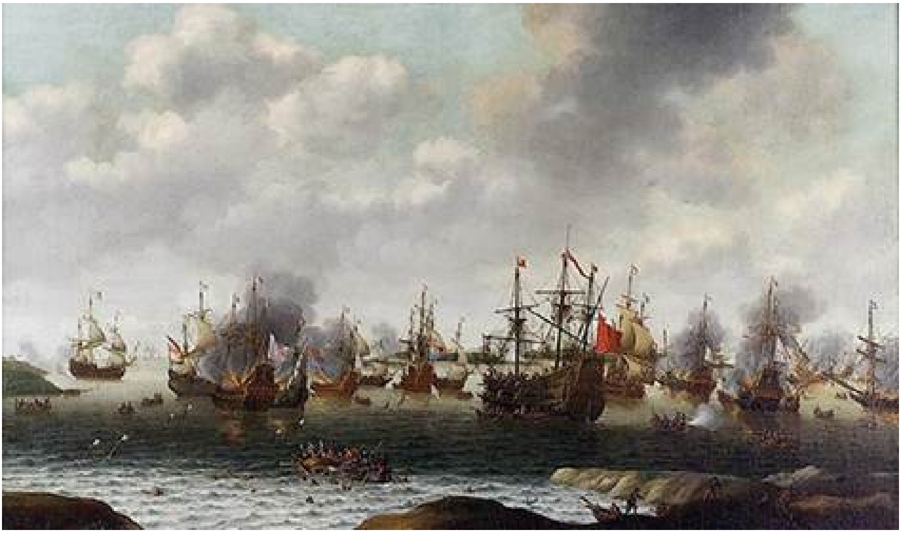
The sudden expansion of Dutch power following independence from Spain inevitably brought the Netherlands into conflict with England, which was the other major European power expanding its commercial and colonial interests in the New World.

The First Anglo–Dutch War was fought entirely at sea from 1652–54. It started when the English navy attacked Dutch merchant ships and quickly escalated into a full-blown conflict. The English navy gained the upper hand and the Dutch were forced to accept the provisions of the Navigation Acts, a series of laws which forbade the use of non-English ships being used for trade between England and its colonies.

The Second Anglo–Dutch War was fought from 1665 to 1667 and was an attempt by the English to end Dutch domination of world trade. After initial English successes, the war ended in a Dutch victory. During this conflict, a Dutch naval unit sailed up the Thames River to raid England in an attack which became England's greatest naval defeat.

Under command of the Dutch admiral, De Ruyter, a Dutch fleet destroyed most of the heavy English ships which were laid up in the river mouth. This defeat forced the English to negotiate a peace treaty with the Dutch and the war came to an end.

DE RUYTER CHALLENGES ENGLAND 1667



The Dutch war with the English: the Dutch fleet in the Thames River. The Dutch navy seriously challenged the might of the English fleet twice. In 1666, a massive engagement took place near the mouth of the Thames River, which saw six thousand Englishmen and eight hundred Dutch killed. The English navy lost twenty-three vessels in what became the single greatest defeat for that force in its long history. The next year the Dutch, under the great Admiral De Ruyter, sailed up the Thames as far as the town of Gravesend, destroying English ships as they went.

As soon as the English navy had been rebuilt, it was once again put into service against the Dutch, this time in alliance with the French during the Franco–Dutch war of 1672. This third Anglo–Dutch War was fought over Holland's refusal to wage war against Spain and saw the English attempt to invade Holland from the sea.

A skillful Dutch defense under De Ruyter ended this invasion attempt, and the English were driven off. The English parliament then forced their king, Charles II, to sign another peace treaty with the Dutch.

The fourth and final Anglo–Dutch war was fought between 1780 and 1784. Initially sparked by colonial competition between England and Holland, the conflict was exacerbated by the advent of the American Revolution.

England feared—correctly, as it transpired—that the Dutch would join with France in supporting the colonial rebels in North America.

The war dragged on until 1783, when Holland joined the cease-fire between Britain and France. In terms of the agreement, written down as the 1784 Treaty of Paris, Britain gained some of the Dutch colonies and was also granted the right of free trade with part of the Dutch East Indies.

Independence Lost—Napoleon's Brother Rules

Domestically, Dutch political unity was shattered by the eruption of a conflict between those who wanted democratic reforms (inspired by events in North America and France) and those wanting to keep the old order. These groups became known as the Patriot Party and the House of Orange respectively.

The Orangists were supported by a Prussian invasion in 1787, but in 1795 a combination of French revolutionary troops and a council of Dutch republicans had counterattacked and established a new government, known as the Batavian Republic.

The Batavian Republic existed until 1806, when Napoleon occupied the country and put one of his brothers onto the vacant Dutch throne. This only lasted four years, and in 1810 the Netherlands was incorporated into the French Empire.

At this time, the British, fearing that the Dutch alliance with France would see the southern African Cape of Good Hope refueling station fall into Napoleon's hands, seized that region, starting the British colonization of southern Africa.

Napoleon's defeat saw Dutch independence restored in terms of the Congress of Vienna in 1815 which rearranged much of Europe after the nearly twenty years of war following the French Revolution.

The new kingdom of Holland also included the territory now known as Belgium. The Belgians were, however, a divided people—half spoke French while the rest spoke a Dutch dialect, Flemish. As a result, the Belgians launched a rebellion against the Dutch in 1830. A Dutch counterattack suppressed the rebellion, but international pressure forced both sides to accept Belgian independence in 1839.

Liberalism and Refuge—Dutch Tolerance

The Netherlands had long been known for its tolerant attitude toward dissenters in Europe. Many great thinkers of the Reformation and Renaissance, when pursued by angry Catholic zealots, found refuge in the Netherlands. In addition, a large number of Jews who fled the Spanish Inquisition were also given refuge in the small country. This tradition continued throughout the nineteenth century. Social reform and democratization in the Netherlands set the pace for much of Europe.

World War I Sees Dutch Neutrality

The Netherlands remained neutral when the First World War broke out in 1914. As a result, although the war was literally fought on her doorstep, the Netherlands was spared the great loss of life which affected the combatants.

THE AFSLUITDIJK—A TWENTY MILE WONDER

Nowhere is the Dutch genius better illustrated than with the technological wonder of the Afsluitdijk, or the "closing off dike." The incredible twenty mile (thirty-two km) long dike, built straight across the North Sea in just five years (from 1927 to 1932), closed off an entire section of the sea and allowed massive land reclamation. Below, a satellite image of the Afsluitdijk.

The Afsluitdijk—Twenty Mile Wall against the Sea

The Netherlands recovered from the deprivations caused by the First World War and quickly resumed its pattern of economic growth. By the end of the 1920s, the Dutch had mastered the art of containing the sea behind artificial dikes and had started reclaiming huge areas of land from the sea. This project allowed the Netherlands to expand its land surface area by nearly a third. Most of the new territory was (and still is) below sea level.

The largest of these projects was the Afsluitdijk, or "closing off dike" which was opened in 1933. It cut off a huge stretch of the North Sea and created an inland freshwater sea known as the Ijsselmeer. It is from the Ijsselmeer that large land areas were reclaimed in a still ongoing process.

World War Two—German Occupation

The Netherlands once again declared itself neutral when the Second World War broke out. This was to no avail, as Adolf Hitler's plan to beat France included a swift invasion through the Netherlands to outflank the main French army which was concentrated along the Franco-German border. The greatest single blow to the Netherlands occurred when the German air force bombed the city of Rotterdam in a show of might. After that the Dutch had little choice but to surrender and German occupation followed from 1940 to 1945.

The end of that war saw an increase in Dutch colonial rebellions and demands for independence. Indonesia was granted independence in 1949 after nationalists there defeated the Dutch. Other colonies quickly followed suit: Netherlands New Guinea gained its independence in 1962 and Suriname in 1975. The Netherlands did retain an interest in the Caribbean islands of Antilles and Aruba.

After the Second World War at least five hundred thousand Dutch emigrated mainly to North America and Australia.

Immigration—Third World Invasion

Partly as a result of its colonial citizenship policies which allowed large numbers of Indonesians, Surinamers, and other Southeast Asians to settle in the Netherlands, and partly because of the generally tolerant attitude of the Dutch, the country became a focus for Third World immigration during the last part of the twentieth century. This development and its implications are covered later in this work.

The Significant Dutch Contribution

The Dutch have produced a large number of the leading minds of Western Europe, including:

- The Renaissance Humanist thinker Desiderius Erasmus, who had wide influence in the sixteenth century;

- The lawyer Hugo Grotius, who wrote tracts on law which are still standard texts in the study of local and international law to the present day;

- The scientist Christiaan Huygens, who first discovered the surface markings of the planet Mars and also Saturn’s rings. He established the Huygens’ Principle governing waves and the wave nature of light;

- Well-known Dutch artists Rembrandt, Jan Vermeer, Frans Hals, and Jan Steen.

BELGIUM

The region known as Belgium was originally occupied by a Celtic tribe known as the Belgae. It was named by the Romans when they occupied the area. The Roman region of Gallia Belgica (Belgian Gaul) included what is now Belgium, northern France, the Netherlands, and part of Switzerland.

Frankish Rule—United with Netherlands

Belgium’s territory was then overrun by the Germanic Franks following the collapse of Rome. By the eighth century, it formed an integral part of Charlemagne’s empire, as was the case with the entire Low Country region. The fortunes of Belgium then mirrored that of the Netherlands and the areas were physically united until 1839, when the Belgians wrested independence from the Dutch.

Expansion and Colonization into Africa

The newly independent Belgians lost no time in catching up with the other European countries. A period of rapid industrialization took place followed by a number of colonial acquisitions, with the most remarkable being the seizure of a huge tract of land in central Africa by the Belgian king, Leopold II.

With the assistance of the famous English explorer Henry Morton Stanley, the Belgian king signed treaties with the native tribes and gained effective control of the region then known as the Belgian Congo, which is today called the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

This remained the king’s private property until his death, whereupon he bequeathed it to the Belgian state. It remained in Belgium’s possession until 1960, when black nationalists seized control of the country, committing some of the most bloody anti-white atrocities in all of Africa.

LEOPOLD II PERSONALLY OWNED AN ENTIRE COUNTRY IN AFRICA

J'AI ENTREPRIS LOEUVRE DU CONGO
DANS L'INTÉRÊT DE LA CIVILISATION
ET POUR LE BIEN DE LA BELGIQUE
LEOPOLD II
1835
1909

Leopold II, king of Belgium, founded the African country now known as the Democratic Republic of the Congo. It became his private possession and was formally recognized as such in 1885. Upon his death he willed it to the Belgian state and it remained in that nation's possession until 1960. Above is a monument to Leopold, with the inscription: I have undertaken the work in the Congo in the interests of civilization and of Belgium.

European Battleground—World Wars

Belgium continued to expand and grow economically until the advent of the First World War. Invaded by the Germans, Belgium became the setting for many of the bloodiest battles of the Western Front, particularly in the northern region known as Flanders. Belgium was devastated as a result and was compensated at the end of the war by being given a portion of German territory which created a tiny German-speaking minority there.

No sooner had Belgium started to recover from the First World War than it was invaded by Germany again in 1940. The Germans remained in possession of Belgium until the end of the war.

Flemish and Walloons

The dual language nature of the Belgian state (Flemish and

French) has caused tension in the past and serious riots during the 1960s. As a result, separate regional government units for the Flemish and the Walloon (as the French-speaking region is known) regions were set up in 1974. Further development of power to these regions occurred in 1993.

BRUSSELS—UNOFFICIAL CAPITAL OF EUROPE

Brussels serves as the effective capital of the European Union because it is where all the major political institutions of that body are located. It is where the European Commission, which is the executive branch of the EU sits and also where the legislative Council of the European Union is located. The city also shares sittings of the European parliament with the French town of Strasbourg. By the early twenty-first century, it was estimated that 56 percent of Brussels' population was non-European in origin.

The European Union

Belgium became one of the six founding members of the

European Coal and Steel Community in 1951. It also joined both the European Atomic Energy Community and the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1957. The EEC has developed into the European Union (EU), which has its head offices in Belgium. Immigration by Third World peoples has also occurred in a significant level in Belgium. This development is covered later in this work.

LUXEMBOURG

The territory known in the present day as the state of Luxembourg originated with the building of a fortress on a large rocky outcrop known as the Bock by the German Count Siegfried of Ardennes in 963 AD. The fortress was expanded over a period of centuries and became known as the “Gibraltar of the North.”

By the fifteenth century, the rulers of Luxembourg had become powerful regents in their own right, and many were appointed Holy Roman Emperors of the Germans. This line came to an end in 1437, when there was no male heir to the throne, and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg was sold to neighboring nobles. Over a period of centuries, the city and its fortifications passed through the hands of all the great royal houses of Europe, including the Bourbons, Napoleon, the Habsburgs and the Hohenzollerns. After the defeat of Napoleon, Luxembourg was allied to the Netherlands and Prussia, but in 1839 the French-speaking part of the Duchy of Luxembourg was transferred to Belgium.

Continued international crises, mainly centered on arguments around the military threat posed by the Luxembourg fortress, nearly led to war between Prussia and France in 1867. An international treaty averted war, on condition that the fortress was dismantled. Its impressive facade can however still be seen and a large part of its underground tunnels are open to the public.

Luxembourg came under German occupation in both World Wars, but suffered relatively little infrastructure damage. The city-state was a founding member of the United Nations in 1946, of NATO in 1949, and of the European Economic Community (which later became the European Union) in 1957.

CHAPTER 30: The Fourth Great Race War—Bulgars, Avars, Magyars, and Khazars 550–950

The Fourth Great Race War was waged for centuries over large parts of the present-day states of Russia, Turkey, and the southeastern Balkans. The combatants were various white tribes ranged against an assortment of Asiatic, Mongol, and mixed-race Muslim invaders.

These wars started around 550 and only stopped when an Asiatic alliance known as the Magyars was defeated some four hundred years later while trying to invade Bavaria in 954. This massive struggle against Asian-origin hordes can rightly be grouped into one heading, even though different players acted in the drama.

If these combined groups of Asiatic invaders had not been turned back from eastern Europe, then it is likely that the Moorish invasion of western Europe would have succeeded. Europe might well have been crushed by nonwhite invaders on two fronts between the Asiatics and the Moors—but it was not.

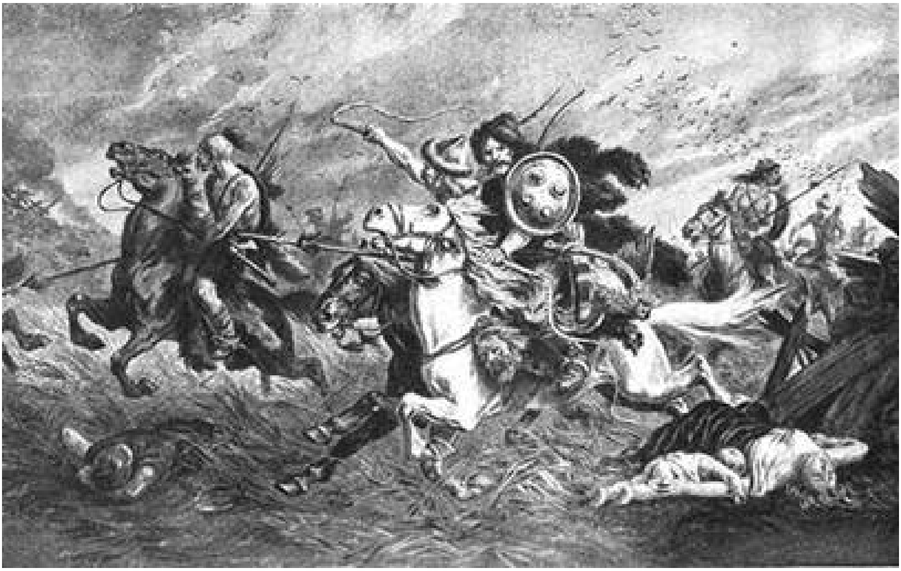
Russia—Bulgars from the Sea of Azov

In the year 372, the easternmost white peoples in what is today Russia were the Alans. This group was closely related to the ancient Medes, Persians, and Aryans, all of whom had penetrated southward and slowly become mixed with the darker inhabitants of the regions they conquered.

The Alans were also the last Indo-European tribe to emerge from the ancestral Nordic homeland between the Caspian and Black seas. For a time they also ruled a large part of present-day Russia, but their sway had been challenged by the Ostrogoths sweeping down from the north.

For more than a century, the Ostrogoths mixed with the Alans and the Slavs. Because they were all originally of the same Nordic stock, they largely retained their racial characteristics. The Alans and Ostrogoths were then decimated before the Asiatic Hunnish invasion, with the white survivors fleeing both south and west. After the Germans had warded off the Hunnish invasion in 454 (covered in earlier in this work), the Huns retreated to the area around the Sea of Azov, where in the course of time they acquired a new name—the Bulgars.

ASIATIC MAGYAR RAIDERS INVADE EASTERN EUROPE



Magyars raiding a white settlement. The Magyars were an Asiatic race who burst over the Danube River at the close of the ninth century, ravaging wide areas of central Europe. Although they were ultimately driven out, a small number of their genes remained behind in the areas they subjugated—the origin of the small number of slightly Asiatic-looking southern Slavs. This process was by no means complete, and of course huge numbers of Slavs retain the characteristics of their Indo-European forebears. Nonetheless, the impact of the Magyars was so great that, in the Hungarian language to this day, the name for Hungary and Hungarian is still Magyar—although the original Asiatic Magyars have long since vanished.

The Avars—Asiatic Invasion Halted by Franks

In the middle of the sixth century, a new wave of Asiatics, the Avars—possibly descendants of the Bulgars—swept into Europe from the east. They reconquered the Slavs as they proceeded west, and caused the movement of many Indo-European tribes westward, including the Lombards who then moved into Italy. The Avars were halted by the Franks in one of the openly racial wars which had followed the collapse of the Western Roman Empire.

Remnants of the Avars wreaked havoc in central Europe, on German and Slav alike. At their apex they had occupied large areas of present-day Eastern Europe: Hungary, Russia to the Volga River, and a strip of territory reaching right up to the Baltic Sea. As they progressed westward, their numbers became fewer until they were completely outnumbered by the Slavs who they had attempted to subject. As a result, it was inevitable that they lost control of their empire. In 626 an Avar assault on Constantinople was repulsed and most of the Slavic nations rose up in rebellion and overthrew them.

Extermination by the Sword and Absorption

The Avars then vanished from the scene either through their physical expulsion, or in some cases, their biological absorption, contributing to the (falsely claimed) “Slavic” look which can still be found in parts of Eastern Europe. This is not to say that all present-day Slavs are of mixed ancestry—huge numbers are not—but what is regarded as the typical “Slavic” look has its roots in the absorption of the various Asiatic invaders. As any traveler to Eastern Europe or Russia can vouch, this look is not very common, and is mainly confined to the southeastern reaches of Russia.

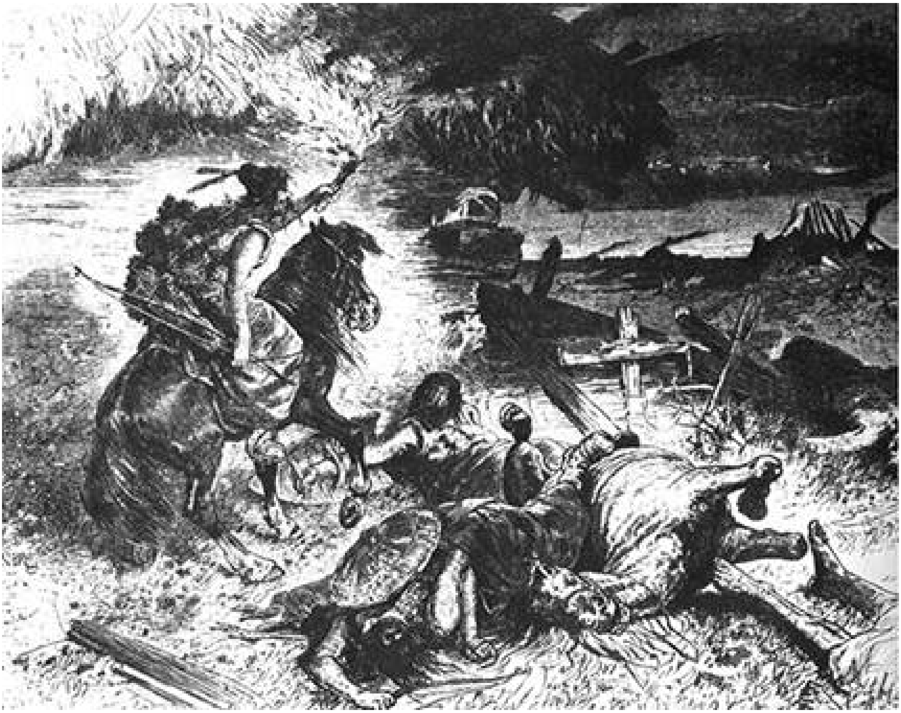
Khazars Force Bulgars into Bulgaria 650

In 576, a new force invaded from the east—a mixed-race group who called themselves Khazars. They occupied territory on the northwestern shore of the Caspian Sea in southern Russia.

Originally from Asia Minor (Turkey), the Khazars were the product of the integration process which had taken place in the Middle East over the centuries. Made up of Old European, Semitic, and Mongoloid elements, they physically resembled many other peoples in that region.

The Khazars began to expand their territory westward, occupying the land east of the Dniester River by 650. In this process they drove the Bulgar Huns from the territory around the Sea of Azov. The Bulgars migrated to the region now known as the country of Bulgaria, which they ruled for around 150 years, giving their name to that country.

MAGYAR RAIDERS DESTROY GERMAN SETTLEMENTS



Magyar raiders set fire to a German homestead. The Magyars were eventually defeated, but small traces of their gene pool remain in a minority of the Slavic population. This is particularly evident in present-day southeastern Russia.

Magyars—Mongoloid/Asiatic Tribe

At this stage there were three major groups of Mongols and mixed-race Asiatics in eastern Europe: the Bulgar Huns, the Avars, and the Khazars. Their numbers were slightly bolstered by the remnants of another Mongol people who had originally settled in Finland (and whose descendants to this day form the Lapp people in that country), but who had either wandered or been driven south. These groups eventually coalesced into an alliance which was at first informal, and then later official. Calling themselves Magyars, this confederation of Mongoloid/Asiatic tribes began moving westward in the eighth century, setting the stage for yet another racial struggle between white Europeans and Asiatic and mixed-race invaders from the east.

Khazars and Judaism

The Khazars had also undergone a transformation during this period. After wandering aimlessly for centuries, waves of Jewish Semites who had fled north from Palestine following the Roman–

Jewish Wars and Diaspora of 70 AD, finally reached southern Russia around the beginning of the seventh century.

At the precise time of their arrival, the Khazar king was looking for a religion to adopt as the formal Khazar belief, and decided upon Judaism.

The Khazar link to Judaism was confirmed by a 2003 study in the *American Journal of Human Genetics* ("Multiple Origins of Ashkenazi Levites: Y Chromosome Evidence for Both Near Eastern and European Ancestries," Behar D et al, *AJHG* Volume 73, Issue 4, October 2003, pp. 768–779), which revealed that 52 percent of Levites of Ashkenazi origin had a particular genetic signature that originated in Central Asia.

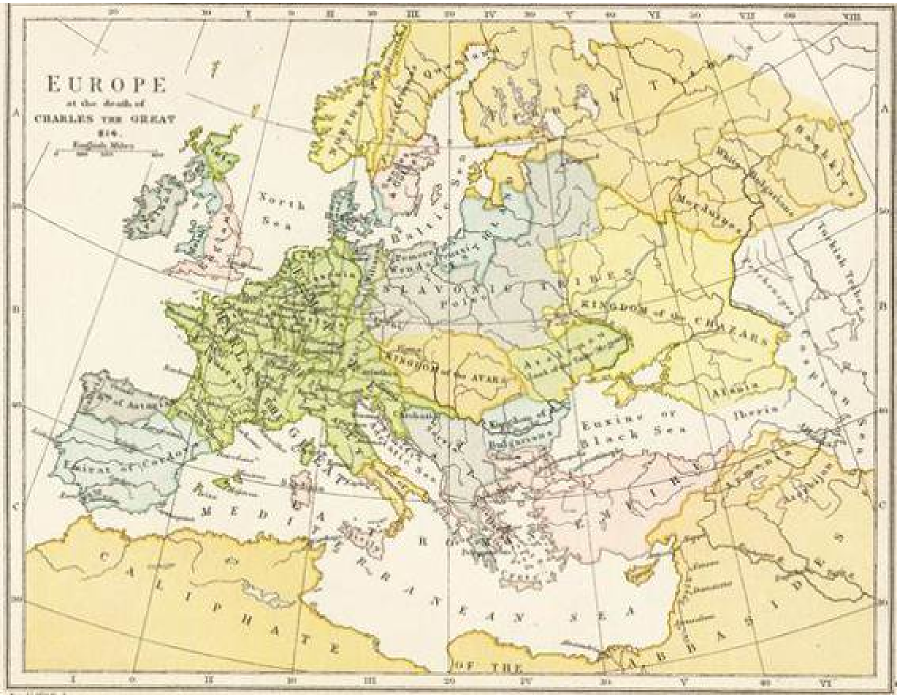
The genetic research showed that the Cohanim, a paternally inherited Jewish priestly caste, share a recent common ancestry irrespective of the geographically defined post-Diaspora community to which they belong, which is a finding consistent with common Jewish origins in the Near East.

In contrast, the study showed, the Levites, another paternally inherited Jewish caste, display evidence for multiple recent origins, with Ashkenazi Levites having a high frequency of a distinctive, non–Near Eastern haplogroup (the "Khazar" group).

It would not, however, be correct to assume that all European Jews are of Khazar origin, as the DNA evidence shows that this gene string appears only in one particular Jewish caste, and is not found in any of the others. In total, the "Jewish Khazar" strain is in less than 6 percent of all present-day Jewish DNA, and 12 percent of Askhenazim Jewery.

Khazar Slavers—Origin of the Word "Slave"

The Khazars, like the Huns and other Asiatics, were active slave traders. The Slavs, however, bore the brunt of the Khazar slave catching expeditions—so much so that the word slave was derived from the word Slav. With the Khazar conversion to Judaism, an association of Judaism with slave trade in the East became firmly established.


EUROPE
at the death of
CHARLES THE GREAT
814.
North Sea
Baltic Sea
SLAVONIC TRIBES
Poles
KINGDOM of the CHAZARS
KINGDOM of the AVARS
Euxine or Black Sea
Iberia
Albania
Caspian Sea
EMPIRE
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CALIPHATE
ABBASIDS

A map of Europe in 814 A.D, show the extent of the Khazar ("Chazar") and Avar Empires.

The Norsemen Defeat the Magyars

In the midst of the rise of the Magyars, a new Nordic power entered the fray—the Norsemen. As early as the sixth century, these Germanic tribesmen, emerging from Denmark and southern Scandinavia, had started to establish settlements along the Baltic Sea and had sent expeditions into central Russia up the Western Dvina River.

By the end of the eighth century, the Norsemen had built fortified settlements at Novogrod and Kiev and had set up smaller trading posts further south, in Khazar territory.

In short order they were at war with the emerging Magyars. The Asiatics were defeated by the Norsemen, and the entire area around the lower Don River became known as Great Sweden as a result of their dominance.

The Norsemen, who called themselves Varangers, mixed with the Indo-European remnants in western Russia, the Alans and the original Slavs. The Alans had originally called themselves the As, and a leading clan among them was known as the Rukhs-As (the "shining" or “leading” Alans).

From this developed a tribal name, the Rus. After a while the Norsemen began taking on the customs of these tribes and called themselves the Rus. It is from this that the word “Russia” originated.

The Khazars then attacked the Rus without warning. Initially taken aback by the ferocity of the Khazar attack, the Rus called for reinforcements from Scandinavia. The call was answered by Rurik, ruler of southern Jutland and Friesland in Denmark, who set off for the steppes of Russia with an army, arriving in 856. It is from this date that the Russians formally count the history of their country.

Magyar Setback Creates Hungary 893

In the interim, the Magyar alliance had suffered a grievous setback. In central Europe the Frankish king Charlemagne had utterly destroyed the Avars, rooting them out of their base in eastern Austria and Hungary, killing huge numbers of the Asiatic invaders in the process. Charlemagne established a buffer state in central Europe to ward off further incursions.

This state was originally called the Ostmark, or “Eastern March.” It is today known as Austria, or in German, Österreich. Charlemagne also extended Frankish protection over the areas now known as Bohemia, Moravia, Austria, and Croatia.

This defeat, combined with the arrival of more Norsemen under Rurik, caused the Magyars to desist from further attacks on the Indo-Europeans for the time being. Instead, spurred on by the arrival of yet another nonwhite tribe from Turkey, the Magyars turned on the Bulgar Huns and in 893 seized their territories in present-day Bulgaria and Hungary.

Rus Expansion under Rurik and Oleg

Rurik had, in the interim, become king of the city of Novogrod, and led the emerging Rus successfully until his death in 879. His successor, the Norwegian-born Oleg, united the principalities of Novogrod and Kiev.

In 964, Oleg’s grandson, Svyatoslav, became ruler of the Rus. A fierce warrior who adhered strictly to his Scandinavian upbringing—refusing to become a Christian after his mother had converted—Svyatoslav set as his first task the destruction of the Jewish Khazar empire in the south. In 965, the Rus army, under Svyatoslav, crashed through the Khazar borders and utterly defeated the slave trading empire forever.

Bulgars Crushed—Svyatoslav Killed

Not content with smashing the Khazars, Svyatoslav then turned his attention to the remaining Bulgar Huns along the Danube River, and in 967 defeated them, occupying large areas of Bulgaria in the process. He would have finished off the Bulgar Huns, but was forced to return to Kiev when it was attacked by an invasion of Turks called the Patzinaks.

They were a mixed-race tribe forming part of an Islamic Turkish invasion along the southeastern borders of Europe, concentrated in Constantinople. Svyatoslav saved Kiev, but was killed in battle in a follow-up operation against the Patzinak Turks in 972.

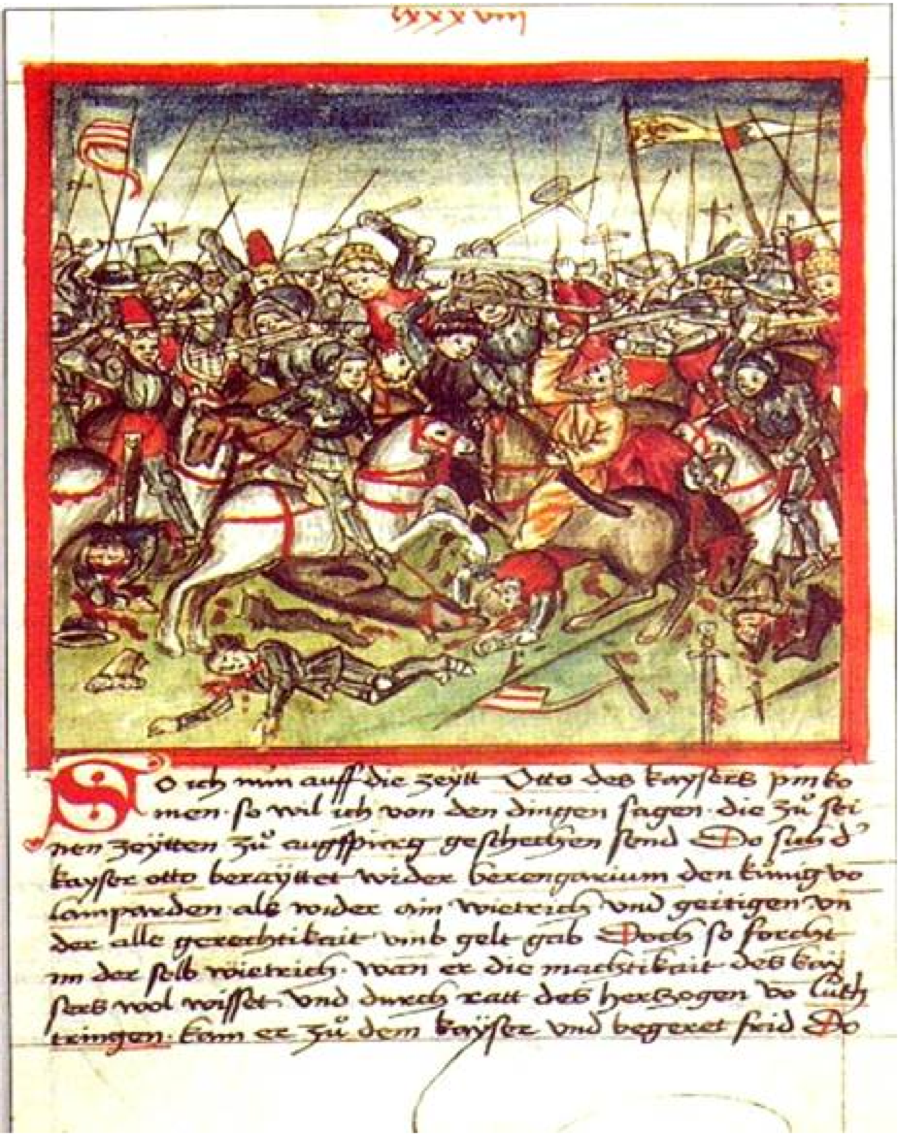
In 1068, new waves of Muslim invaders, the Cumans, occupied the Crimean peninsula while pushing the Patzinaks westward into the Balkans. In the south, the Eastern Roman Empire was on its last legs, having lost the decisive Battle of Manzikert to another group of invading Muslims, the Seljuks, in 1071. This enabled the Seljuks to occupy large parts of western Turkey and prepare the way for the final assault on Constantinople.

Magyar Assault on Western Europe

In central Europe, the Magyars moved out from their base in Hungary which they had earlier seized from the Bulgar Huns. They launched raiding parties as far afield as Bremen in Germany, Orleans in France, and Constantinople, raping, pillaging, looting, and destroying wherever they went.

In 954, a Magyar raiding party consisting of an estimated one hundred thousand soldiers crossed Bavaria and the Rhine River, penetrated France as far as Reims and Burgundy, and then crossed the Alps to pillage Lombardy in Italy.

Magyars Crushed—Battle of Lechfeld 955



cxxxviij

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The following year, another Magyar army invaded Bavaria and besieged the town of Augsburg, northwest of present-day Munich. This time, however, the Bavarians were prepared.

The Saxon king, Otto I, counterattacked with a specially prepared army and annihilated the Magyars in the Battle of Lechfeld. Contemporary accounts have it that the Saxons slew the retreating Magyars for three days after the battle. Whether this is true or not, the fact remains that after the Battle of Lechfeld the Magyars were never again to threaten Europe.

The defeat and dissolution of the Magyars marks the end of the second great Asian invasion.

The next would occur in 1221, when an even crueler Mongol leader would establish a reign of terror so bloodthirsty his name is still a byword for tyranny—Genghis Khan.

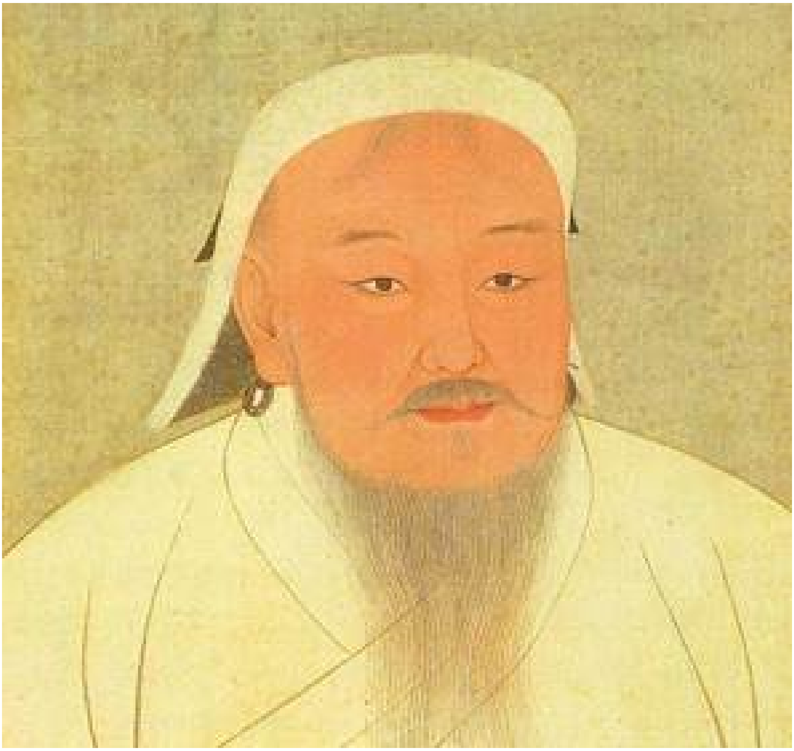
CHAPTER 31: The Fifth Great Race War—Genghis Khan and the Mongols 1220–1650

Although the name Genghis Khan has become synonymous with tyranny, he played a relatively minor role in the invasion of Europe. His real contribution to Mongol influence was that he was the one who finally united the Asiatic tribes and consolidated their power. They were only able to launch their invasion of Europe once they were unified.

Khan's real name was Temujin, and he was born in approximately 1162 in present-day Mongolia. Through a claim based on his parentage (a clan leader) and his skillful leadership, Temujin succeeded in uniting a number of disparate Asiatic tribes under his overall control by 1206. In that year, he was acknowledged as khan, or supreme leader, of the consolidated tribes and took the title Genghis Khan ("Lord of the Earth"), under which he became famous.

After he had subdued the last of his Asiatic opponents, Khan turned his eyes westward, and set in motion an invasion of Europe which would continue for over four hundred years.

GENGHIS KHAN—MONGOL WARLORD NEARLY CONQUERS EUROPE



Genghis Khan, as seen in a portrait in the possession of his descendants in Asia. Although only leader of the Mongol invaders for twenty-one years (1206 to 1227), his reign was so ferocious that his name became a byword for tyranny.

First Victims Were Russians Circa 1221

Genghis Khan’s first raid was into Russia in 1221, when his army smashed its way through several southern Russian principalities. The Russians were taken completely unaware by the Mongol attack and soon a large part of what is today southern Russia was under the sway of Genghis.

Numerous counterattacks by northern Russian tribes failed to dislodge Genghis Khan’s forces, and he prepared his armies for yet another drive into white-held land.

Genghis Khan’s Death Halts Invasion 1227

The Mongol invasion was unexpectedly interrupted by the sudden death of Genghis in 1227. The Mongolian armies he had prepared were left leaderless, and for several years remained where they were while the Mongols struggled among themselves to find a successor. Finally they selected Genghis’s son, Ögedei, as their new khan.

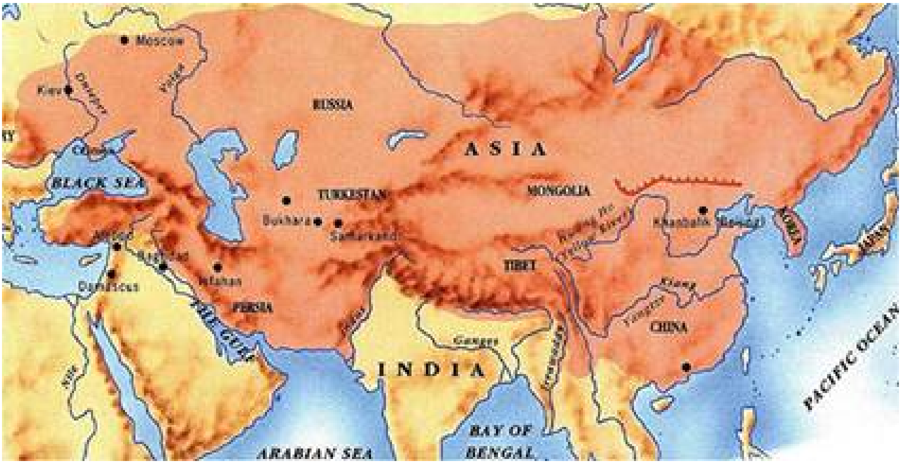
While Ögedei struggled to establish his rule, the Mongol lords of southern Russia instituted a grim reign of terror over their luckless subjects. Entire settlements were slaughtered en masse, with lucky survivors barely escaping to the north and west, bringing tales of terror and helping to build the (justifiable) image of Genghis Khan as having brought death and destruction from Asia.

One tactic for which the Mongols became infamous was to sack a town, leave, and then a few days later send a rearguard party to see if any survivors had returned. Any such unfortunate individuals were put to death on the spot.

Genghis Khan's Grandson Renews Invasion

In 1237 the Mongol armies under the leadership of Batu, a grandson of Genghis Khan, resumed their westward invasions. They sacked the Russian city of Kiev in 1240 and pushed on into Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary. Other Mongol armies reached deep into the Balkans, northern Russia, Poland, and central Germany.

MONGOL EMPIRE—FROM CHINA TO POLAND


Moscow
Kiev
Dnieper
Volga
RUSSIA
ASIA
BLACK SEA
TURKESTAN
Bukhara
Samarkand
MONGOLIA
Khanbalik
KOREA
JAPAN
Damascus
Isfahan
PERSIA
THE GULF
TIBET
Kiang
Yangtze
CHINA
Ganges
INDIA
Nile
PACIFIC OCEAN
BAY OF BENGAL
ARABIAN SEA

The extent of the Mongol Empire. They were only driven out of southern Russia in the mid-seventeenth century.

Mongols Defeat Whites and Reach Vienna

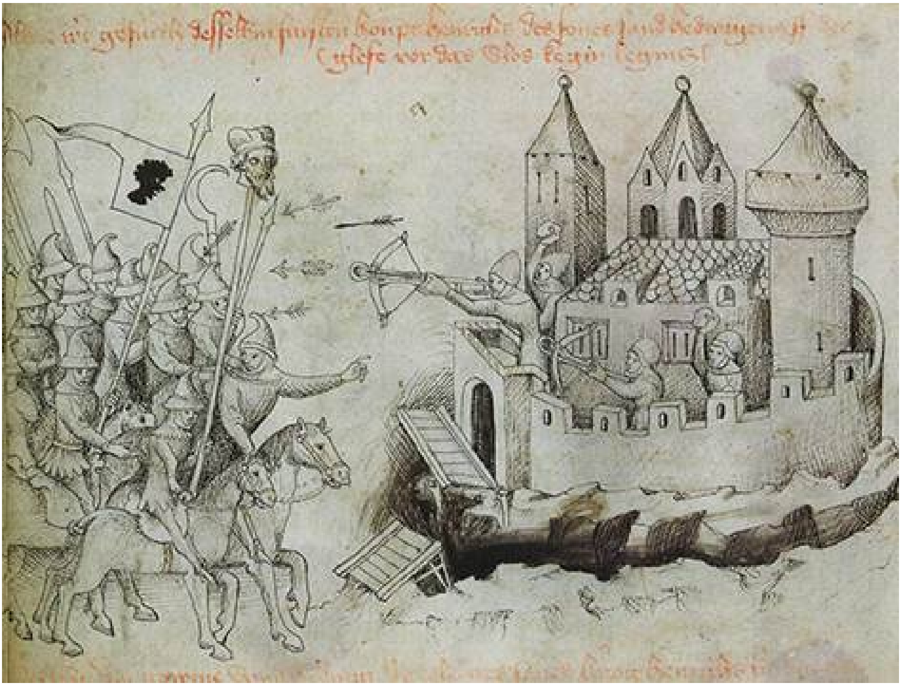
Faced with annihilation, the European nations stopped fighting each other to form a pact against the invading Asiatics. An alliance of Germans, Poles, and Teutons under the command of Duke Henry II of

Silesia formed a united white army and met the Mongols in battle at Liegnitz in April 1241. The European army was routed, and Henry was beheaded. The victorious Mongol army carried his impaled head around on a lance for weeks afterward as they moved further west.

The southern Slavs gathered together an army and launched a new counterattack on the main body of Mongols which were then moving through Hungary. The battle, fought just north of Budapest at the Sajo River in April 1241, saw the white armies defeated once again. The combined defeats inflicted upon the Russians, Germans, and Slavs meant that all of Europe lay open to the Mongols.

In 1242, the Mongol hordes penetrated into the suburbs of Vienna and it seemed as if all of central Europe would fall. At that critical point the nonwhite invasion ceased of its own accord. It was a quirk of destiny which saved Europe and its peoples from complete extermination at the hands of the Mongols. As the Asiatic army started its march across the frozen Danube River, a messenger arrived from their homeland in Mongolia. He announced that Ögedei had died, and there would once again be a tribal council to determine his successor. The Mongol armies turned back to allow their chieftains to attend the council and never penetrated into central Europe again.

MONGOLS DEFEAT HENRY OF SILESIA—LIEGNITZ 1241



A ten thousand-strong Mongol army under the leadership of Orda invaded Poland in February 1241, and quickly conquered vast stretches of Polish territory including Krakow and Sandomierz. Desperate Polish resistance resulted in the Battles of Tursko (February), and Tarczek and Chmielnik (March). Henry II (1196–1241), High Duke of all Poland, appealed for help from the rest of Europe, but the only aid which came was from King Wenceslaus I of Bohemia and a detachment of Knights Templars and Hospitallers. Henry joined the Mongol army in battle at Leignitz on April 9, 1241, but was defeated and killed. Above, Mongol troops parade with Henry's head on a lance.

The Khanate of the Golden Horde—Southern Russia Remains under Mongols

Even though the Mongols withdrew from central Europe, all of southern Russia remained under Mongol occupation, where Batu created what became known as the Khanate of the Golden Horde. This name originated from the annual tribute of riches extracted from the northern Russians who only escaped occupation by formally acknowledging themselves as vassals and paying protection money to the Mongols.

The only eastern European state which was not humiliated in this way was Baltic Lithuania. As Mongol strength slowly declined, the Lithuanians expanded and eventually occupied an area stretching from the Baltic to the Black Sea. With such a grand empire, Lithuania became the most powerful state in eastern Europe.

Grand Duke Dimitry Drives out Mongols, Liberates Russia 1330

By the early fourteenth century, the Mongol Empire in the south had been wracked by internal divisions, with rival claimants to the Mongol throne engaged in a series of fratricidal wars. Seizing advantage of the confusion in the Asiatic ranks, the Grand Duke Dimitry of Moscow led an army against a huge Mongol force at Kulikovo on the banks of the Don River in 1330. Although great casualties were suffered by both sides, the Russians won, inflicting the first major reverse on the Mongols since their invasion had started.

Ivan the Great Refuses to Pay Tribute

A new Mongol warlord, Tamerlane, counterattacked and reconquered much of the original Mongol Empire in Russia in 1395. After Tamerlane's death, his empire was broken into four independent khanates: Astrakhan, Kazan, Crimea, and Sibir.

So divided, the Mongols were at last weakened to the point where the Muscovite principality, under the leadership of Ivan III, refused to pay the annual tribute to the Horde in 1480. Ivan then started a series of wars of expansion, some against Russian principalities and others against local Mongol chieftains.

Cossacks Start White Reconquest

The first major white reconquest of the southern parts of Russia only began in the mid-sixteenth century. Bands of Russian peasants known as Cossacks, fleeing the autocratic fiefdoms of northern Russia, settled along the banks of the Don River. The Cossacks soon developed a fearsome reputation as warriors, and willingly engaged the Mongols in combat, forcing the Asiatics to retreat bit by bit.

By the mid-seventeenth century the majority of Mongols had been cleared from central and southern Russia. Through a process of warfare and a degree of assimilation, the last of the Mongol states vanished a century later—although the names they gave to these regions still persist.

The Mongol Legacy–Mixed Populations in Southern Russia

In central Europe, the Mongols were not physically present long enough to have a significant genetic impact upon the population. The major effect of the Mongol invasion upon southern and central Europe was that huge numbers of whites were killed which damaged future population growth.

In southern Russia, however, the aftereffects of three hundred years of Mongol rule left a clear genetic imprint upon that region. For example, in the region of Kyrgyzstan, Chinese and Muslim sources of the seventh to twelfth centuries described the Kyrgyz as red haired, fair complexioned and with green and blue eyes.

Today, after centuries of Asiatic occupation, these racial characteristics have become few and far between. The same process occurred in the other "'stans," including Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan.

CHAPTER 32: Continual Conquest—the Baltic States

The history of the Baltic states—Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, and Prussia—was marked by the dramatic and unexpected appearance of a Christian religious order known as the Teutonic Knights, which had been founded in Palestine during the Crusades against Islam.

The spread of the Teutonic Knights into northeastern Europe from Palestine makes this region worthy of study as a fascinating insight into the spread of Christianity. The Baltic states have also produced peoples and disputes which shaped European history right up to the present day—and, given the high degree of racial homogeneity still existing in that region, might yet play an even more significant role in the future.

Teutonic Knights Conquer Pagans

The Teutonic Knights were a German religious military order founded during the Crusades in 1190. Their deeds on behalf of Christendom had become legendary, and they were put to work by order of the Church against white pagans in eastern and northeastern Europe.

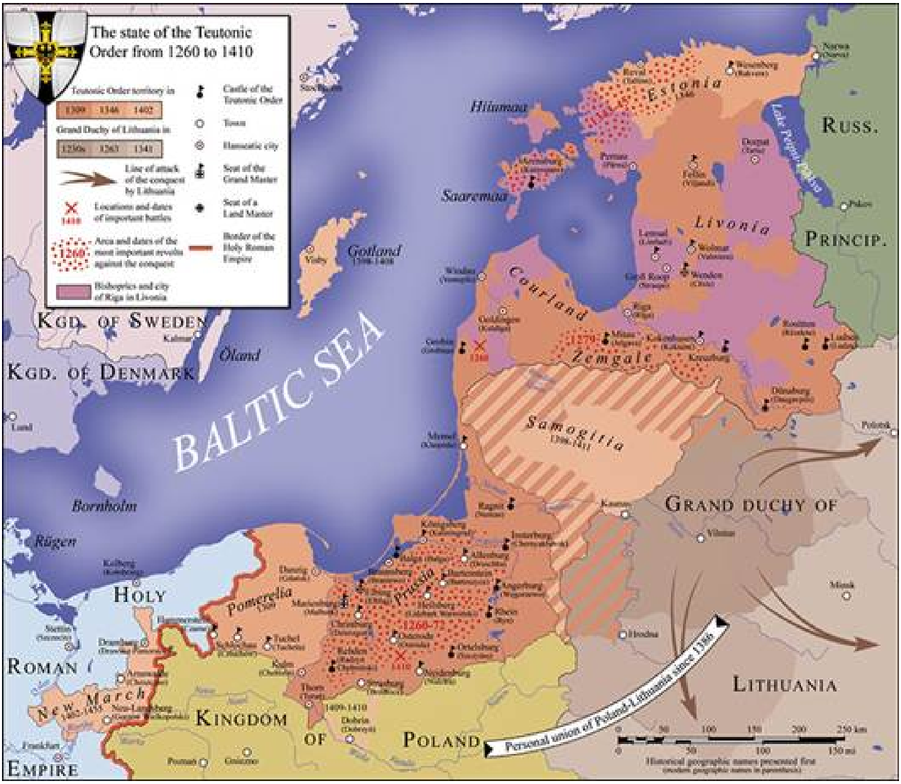
In 1210 the Knights were invited to Hungary to help convert the pagan Slavic tribes to Christianity. In 1226, the Holy Roman Emperor granted the Teutonic Knights control over what was then Prussia (today northern Poland) to rule as a fiefdom on condition that they convert all the locals to Christianity.

The Teutonic Knights ensured that Christianized Germans settled in Prussia. This served a double purpose—not only could the new arrivals police the new converts, but the Teutonic Knights realized that the easiest way to change the nature of a society was to change its inhabitants.

While the importation of large numbers of Christian Germans did not change the racial composition of Prussia, it changed the cultural makeup considerably.

Local Population Wages War against the Teutonic Knights

As a result of their tactics, the Knights were never popular in the region—even after the locals had all been converted to Christianity. In 1409, the king of Poland invited all enemies of the Teutonic Knights to participate in a campaign against the order—a call which led to their defeat at the Battle of Tannenberg in 1410. By 1591 the last Knights had been expelled from the Baltic States.


The state of the Teutonic Order from 1260 to 1410
Teutonic Order territory in
1309
1346
1402
Grand Duchy of Lithuania in
1250s
1263
1341
Line of attack of the conquest by Lithuania
Locations and dates of important battles
1410
Area and dates of the most important revolts against the conquest
1260
Bishoprics and city of Riga in Livonia
Castle of the Teutonic Order
Town
Hanseatic city
Seat of the Grand Master
Seat of a Land Master
Border of the Holy Roman Empire
KGD. OF SWEDEN
KGD. OF DENMARK
BALTIC SEA
Öland
Gotland
1398-1408
Hiiumaa
Saaremaa
Bornholm
Rügen
Estonia
Livonia
Courland
Zemgale
1279
Samogitia
1398-1411
Lake Peipus
RUSS.
PRINCIP.
GRAND DUCHY OF
LITHUANIA
Prussia
1260-73
Pomerelia
New March
HOLY
ROMAN
EMPIRE
KINGDOM
OF
POLAND
Personal union of Poland-Lithuania since 1386
Historical geographic names presented first (modern geographic names in parentheses)

Teutonic Knight Revival

Despite their collapse in the north, the order was reestablished in southern Germany and Austria, where it took part in the Battle of Vienna against the invading nonwhite Islamic Turks in 1683. This was to be the Teutonic Knights' last war—by 1697, the number of recruits to the order had slowed to a trickle. The very last of the Knights were abolished by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1809.

POLAND

The region now known as Poland was one of the areas settled by the easternmost branch of the original Indo-European invaders of Europe, the Slavs, the last of whom entered during the third and fourth centuries.

The very name Poland is derived from the largest of the Slavic tribes, the Polanie. These tribes, like their neighbors in eastern Europe, clung longest to the original Indo-European religions and beliefs, and were among the last to fall prey to the murderous evangelism of the early Christians. Southern Poland also fell prey to the ravages of Attila the Hun, although no lasting racial imprint upon the population was left by the Asiatic warlord's passing.

Christianity Introduced 962

Around 840, Slavic tribes in Poland asserted their dominance under Duke Piast. The Polish tribes at this stage were still pagans, and it was only with the conversion of Duke Mieszko, who reigned from 962 to 992, that Christianity was introduced to the Poles. Meiszko's son, Boleslaw, who reigned from 992 to 1025, was the first Polish ruler to be formally declared king of Poland. He also expanded the borders of the Polish state by conquering several surrounding territories in a short series of military campaigns. This newfound power and unity was dissipated when the kingdom was divided up among the king's heirs.

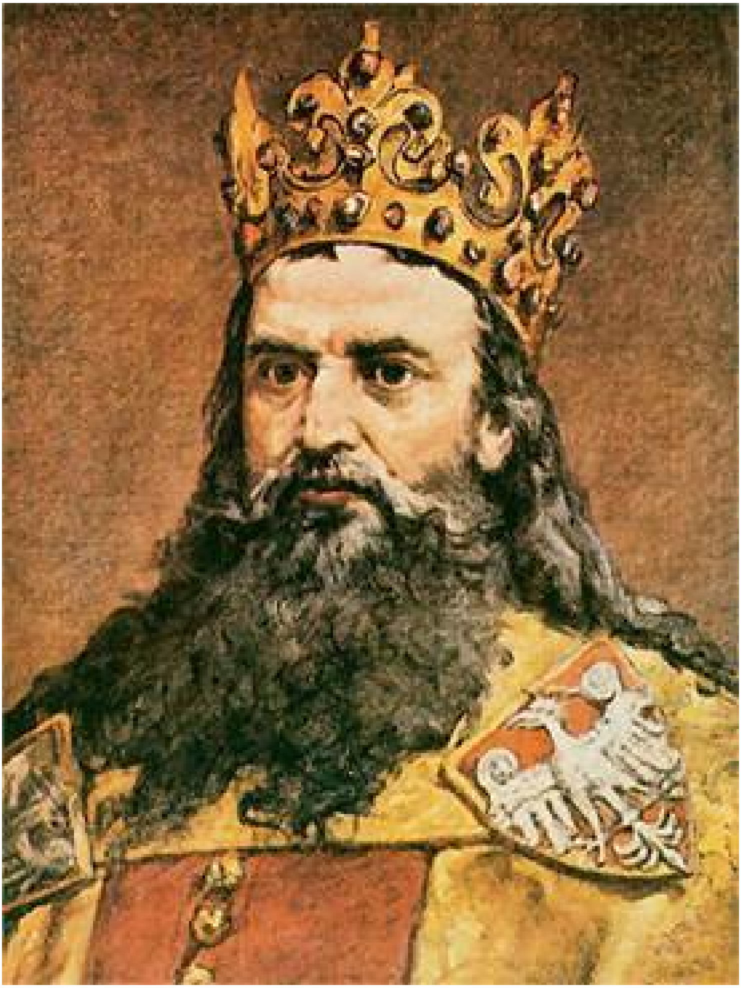
Mongol Invasion—Country Laid Waste

In 1240, the Mongols invaded Poland, having first decimated many other Slavic tribes to the east. Fortunately for Poland, they left the next year, but large parts of the country were laid waste as a result. Simultaneously, two new population shifts occurred. Large numbers of Prussians began to settle in Poland, moving away from internal troubles in the German states, and the first large settlement of Jews occurred in Poland, the latter moving away from growing anti-Semitism in western Europe.

Wladyslaw Drives out the Germans and Reunites Poland

In 1320, a new Polish king was crowned, Wladyslaw I, who achieved fame for fighting off waves of invading Germans, during the course of which he managed to reunite Poland. His son, Kazimierz III (also called Kazimierz the Great), reigned from 1333 to 1370 and won fame for his reformation of Polish society and the founding of the Jagiellonian University in 1364. He also won the gratitude of Europe's Jewish population by actively aiding Jewish refugees from western Europe, allowing them to settle in large numbers in Poland.

KAZIMIERZ—TRUCE WITH TEUTONIC KNIGHTS



Kazimierz the Great, king of Poland from 1333 to 1370, won renown for establishing a semi-peace with the Teutonic Knights, and for his liberal policy toward Europe's Jews, allowing them to settle in large numbers in Poland to escape increasing anti-Jewish sentiment in western Europe.

Unity of Lithuania and Poland 1386

Kazimierz III died heirless and was succeeded by his niece, Jadwiga. In 1386, she married the Lithuanian Grand Duke Jagiello, and from that time onward both territories were ruled by a single sovereign until 1569. It was during this time that Christianity was formally introduced to Lithuania.

The Teutonic Knights Defeated at Tannenberg

Poland and Lithuania were the subjects of continued invasions by the Teutonic Knights. These attacks did not stop until 1410, when a combined Polish and Lithuanian army won a great victory over the order at the Battle of Tannenberg. This victory marked the emergence of Poland as a major power in eastern Europe, although the Teutonic Knights were only finally defeated in 1466.

VLADISLAV III—BOY KING KILLED BY TURKS

Vladislav III, the boy king of Hungary and Poland, barely fifteen when he ascended to the throne in 1440. He lived a further four years—and led an army against the invading Turks. Vladislav fell at the Battle of Varna in 1444. From his tome at Wawel Cathedral, Cracow, Poland.

Prussia Annexed by Poland 1466

The defeat of the Teutonic Knights saw Poland acquiring the territory of Prussia, sparking off a dispute which would later feature prominently in Polish history.

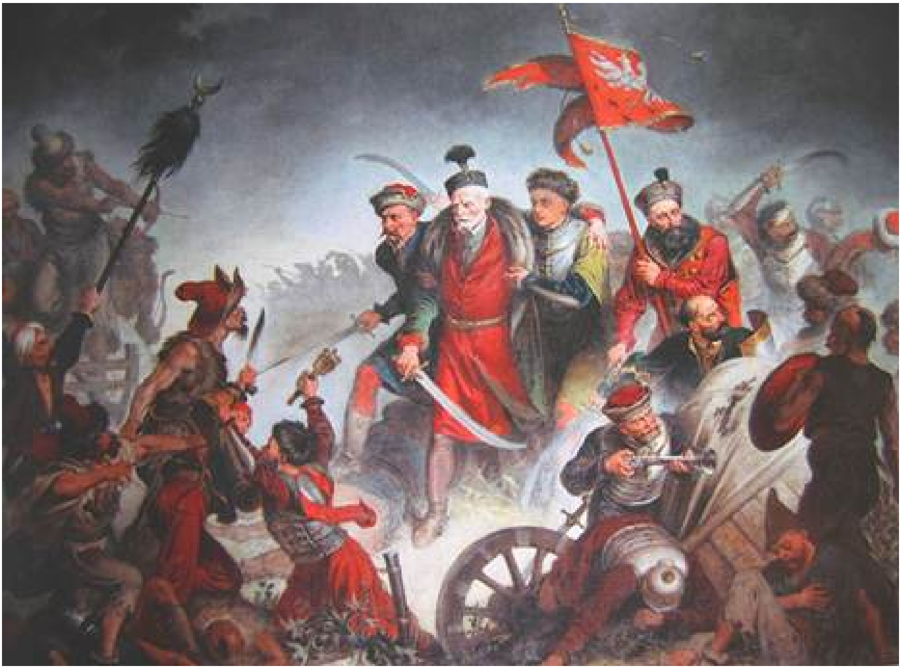
A long period of cultural and technological advances followed, along with a number of minor conflicts over succession to the Polish throne and the stamping out of the Protestant Reformation by 1600.

After 1600, Poland fought a series of disastrous wars with Sweden, Russia, and the Cossacks in the Ukraine. In the midst of all these conflicts, Poland was also drawn into defending Europe against the great nonwhite Ottoman invasion of eastern Europe.

Polish Army Saves Vienna

The Polish army's contribution to the defeat of the invading Muslim hordes outside the gates of Vienna in 1683 cannot be overstated. Without the Polish intervention under General Jan III Sobieski, Vienna might have fallen. This in turn would have opened up the way for the Ottoman Turks to conquer and Islamify all of Europe.

MUSLIM INVADERS KILL POLISH GENERAL ZOLKIEWSKI AT CECORA 1620



The last stand of a Polish general in the face of a nonwhite invasion—the famous Polish general, Zolkiewski, prepares to die as the last of his troops are cut down by Muslim invaders (note the sickle moon standard on the left of the picture). Polish troops had gone to help whites of Moldavia ward off a Muslim invasion, but sadly they failed, resulting in the decimation of an entire white army at the Battle of Cecora, 1620. Undeterred, the Poles still continued to come to the aid of their white racial kinfolk. The intervention of a Polish army at a critical junction in the Turkish assault on Vienna in 1683 certainly won the day for the white nations, avenging defeats such as the Battle of Cecora.

Russian Invasion 1764

In the early eighteenth century, Russia, seeking to advance its borders westward, began a campaign against Poland. This culminated in a European wide conflict known as the War of the Polish Succession, fought from 1733 to 1735, over who had the right to determine the next king of Poland.

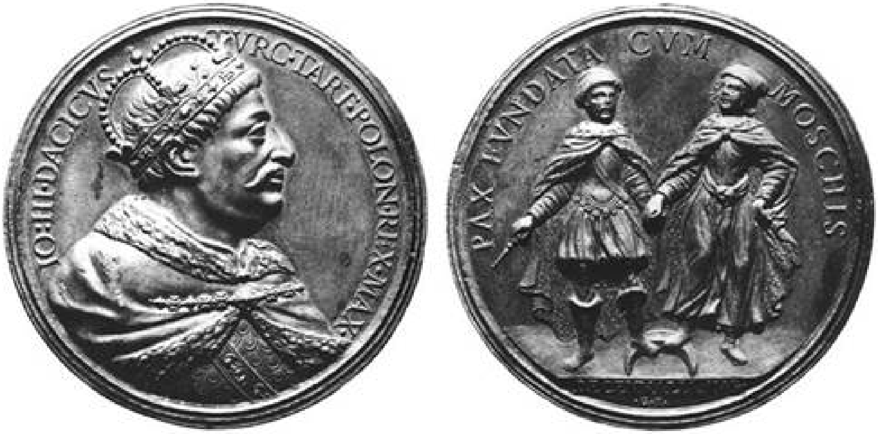
Dissatisfied with the result, Russia invaded Poland in 1764, and placed a favorite of Tsarina Catherine the Great, one Stanislaw II Augustus, on the Polish throne. This blatant expansion by Russia was viewed with justifiable alarm by the other powers in Europe. Prussia and Austria, fearful of a general European conflict, proposed a plan for Poland to be divided up rather than become an object of conflict.

The Partition of Poland

Shaken by a war with the Ottoman Turks, which had broken out immediately after the invasion of Poland, the Russian government agreed to the partition plan, and in 1772, a formal agreement was signed. Many Polish nobles were persuaded by large payments of riches and money to accept the division of their country into units administered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.

Other sections of the Polish population were not so easily bought off. Growing discontent led to the Polish parliament, or Sjem (which had not been disbanded at the time of the partition), drafting a new constitution in 1788, and then once again proclaiming Poland as a hereditary monarchy. This led to a new Russian invasion in 1792, assisted by Polish nobles excluded from the new constitutional structures. Russian armies occupied all of eastern Poland, and early the following year, the Prussians occupied the western part. These land grabs were formalized in a second partition conference held in 1793.

POLAND AND RUSSIA—JOINTLY VICTORIOUS OVER THE OTTOMAN TURKS



Left: A coin showing Jan III Sobieski (1624–96), king of Poland (1674–96), who ended the Turkish siege of Vienna in 1683. Right: On the reverse of the coin stands a Pole and a Russian—commemorating the peace between Poland and the Russian Muscovy state in 1686. They are jointly standing on the Turkish crescent—symbolic of their victory over the nonwhite Turkish invaders.

Polish War of Independence Fails—Poland Carved Up

The return of a number of Polish military men from America, where they had fought with success in the American War of Independence against the British, saw a renewed Polish uprising. Filled with revolutionary zeal, an army was raised, and in 1794 the Poles launched their own War of Independence. Despite fighting against overwhelming odds, the Poles defeated the Russians at the 1794 Battle of Warsaw and drove the Russians out of almost all of eastern Poland.

The Polish success was, however, temporary. The Russians, having a far greater numerical superiority, counterattacked. They were aided by Prussia and Austria who also wanted to prevent Polish independence, and the Poles were defeated at the Battle of Maciejowice. In November 1794 a Russian army entered Warsaw and massacred a large number of Polish civilians in the suburb of Praga. This sparked off a renewed wave of resentment among the Poles.

The Polish War of Independence then ended within a few weeks with the surrender of the Polish army. The victorious powers once again divided Poland between them in terms of two treaties, the last of which was signed in 1797. Poland then disappeared as a state from the map of Europe.

Poles Join Napoleon Bonaparte's Army

The Poles remained under foreign rule for 125 years. When Napoleon Bonaparte reached the borders of the old Polish state in his conquests against the Germans and Prussians, he declared his desire to see Poland restored to full independence. This resulted in thousands of Poles joining Napoleon's army, where they served with distinction and bravery.

In 1807, by the provisions of the Treaty of Tilsit, which ended the first set of Napoleonic Wars on continental Europe, the French leader created the Duchy of Warsaw, consisting originally of the territory taken by Prussia in 1793 and 1795.

Two years later Napoleon forced Austria to cede western Galicia to the duchy. In return the Poles gave Napoleon their wholehearted support and took an active role in his disastrous invasion of Russia in 1812.

Despite their support for Napoleon, the Poles got off lightly when the French were finally defeated. The Congress of Vienna in 1815, which oversaw the division of territory at the end of the Napoleonic Wars, created the Kingdom of Poland consisting of almost the identical territory of the Napoleonic-created Duchy of Warsaw, with the only significant change being the installation of the Russian tsar as king of the Duchy. The remainder of Poland was once again distributed between Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

Second War of Independence Fails

In 1830, the Poles once again turned to armed revolution, and by January 1831, the Russians had been driven out and Polish independence proclaimed. The Russians reinvaded and by May of that year had crushed the Polish revolt. A policy of Russification was instituted, with the eastern territories becoming almost completely absorbed, ethnically speaking, into the Russian state. Poland remained under foreign rule until the outbreak of the First World War in 1914.

World War I—Poles Serve Both Sides

Living under German rule in the west, and Russian in the east, the Poles found themselves conscripted into the opposing armies of these two powers. The ironic situation arose where Poles in German uniforms fought Poles in Russian uniforms on the Eastern Front during the First World War. The war ended with the downfall of first the Russians and then the Germans. By November 1918, Poland was proclaimed an independent republic with Josef Pilsudski becoming head of state.

The New Territories Gained from Germany

The Treaty of Versailles, which ended the First World War, confirmed Poland's independence and added German land to the Polish state. This territory, centered around the German city of Danzig, included a strip of land reaching up to the Baltic Sea. This gave Poland access to the sea, but also cut Germany off from Prussia (which then became known as East Prussia). Poland took advantage of the confusion in Russia caused by the Communist revolution and resultant civil war to invade that country in 1920. A swift campaign saw Poland seize historically Polish territory in the Russian regions of Belarus and the Ukraine before a peace treaty was signed. Poland then attempted to walk a tightrope between Germany and the Soviet Union, signing nonaggression pacts with both in the 1930s.

Reduced Rights for Minorities under Pilsudski

The Polish state did not follow a democratic internal policy. Pilsudski became an absolute dictator and severely infringed upon the rights of a number of minority groups in Poland, including Germans, Ukrainians, Belarusians, and Jews. The Polish government enacted specific anti-Jewish legislation, prohibiting Jews from holding certain levels of public office and other areas of influence in society.

POLAND GRABS ITS SHARE OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Contrary to present-day propaganda, Poland did not fanatically resist Nazi expansion—as long as Poland was not on the agenda. Here are Polish soldiers, on the border of Czechoslovakia, about to launch the 1939 Polish takeover of Teschen, that part of Czechoslovakia which historically belonged to Poland. Poland was, along with Germany and Hungary, the beneficiary of the dismemberment of the Czech state as a result of the Munich Conference of 1938. As long as Adolf Hitler did not dispute the Danzig Corridor with Poland, the latter country was happy to cooperate with the German leader on most issues—including comprehensive anti-Jewish laws.

Poland Gains a Part of Czechoslovakia

Contrary to popular myth, Poland did not fanatically resist Nazi Germany's expansionist policies—at least not as long as Polish territory was not on the agenda. In this way Poland took an active and enthusiastic part in the German created dismemberment of the Czechoslovakian state in 1938. As part of the settlement Poland received about four hundred square miles (1036 square kilometers) of Czech territory.

The Danzig Corridor

Germany then turned its demands to the German city of Danzig and the corridor separating East Prussia and Germany. The German leader, Adolf Hitler, requested that the city be returned to Germany and that the Germans be allowed to build an autobahn and railway line across the corridor to link East Prussia with Germany. Poland rejected these demands and Germany then invaded, causing the British and the French to declare war on Germany.

World War II—Soviet Union and Germany Invade

The Polish army was larger but consisted mainly of infantry and cavalry so was no match for the armored German divisions. Poland was overrun in a matter of weeks. The Soviet Union simultaneously invaded Poland from the east, duplicating the German invasion from the west.

This invasion did not bring any reaction from the French or British—in marked contrast to their declaration of war against Germany. The failure to declare war on the Soviet Union was one of the most hypocritical acts of the war, not to mention a gross betrayal of Poland.

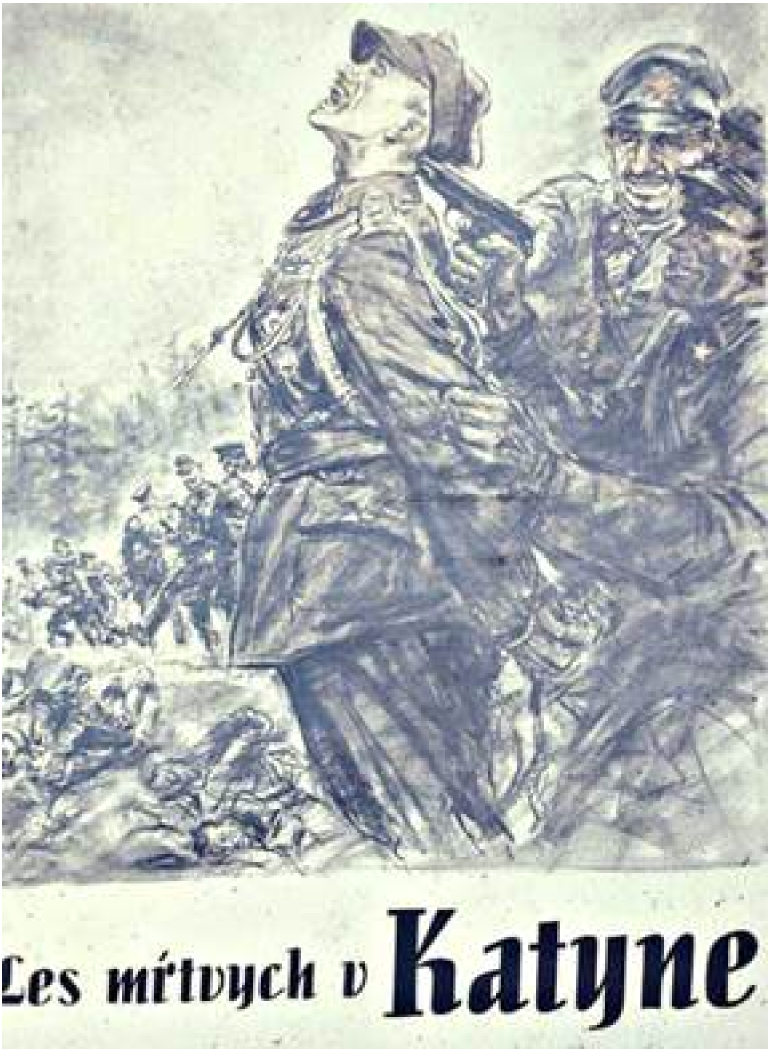
The Polish population suffered greatly in the war. Hundreds of thousands were killed and huge numbers of Polish Jews were rounded up and deported to concentration camps.

The Poles also suffered under Soviet rule. Nearly fifteen thousand Polish soldiers who had been captured by the Soviets during their invasion of Poland were executed en masse in the Katyn Forest outside the Russian town of Smolensk. Their remains were discovered by occupying Germans in 1943.

Germany formally annexed those territories which belonged to it before the end of the First World War. This left a large piece of central Poland which was a semi-autonomous region known as the Government General—which remained under German administration. In the east, the Soviet Union annexed those parts of Poland which had been Russian territory prior to the end of the First World War. These regions would later be overrun by the Germans when they invaded the Soviet Union in 1941.

COMMUNIST KATYN MASSACRE—FALSELY BLAMED ON NAZIS

In 1943, the German army discovered a mass grave of nearly fifteen thousand Polish army officers in Katyn, (present-day western Russia). The Polish soldiers had been taken prisoners of war by the Soviets in 1939 and then each one was executed by a single pistol shot in the back of the head. Above, one of the mass graves, and below, a Polish poster depicting the actual executions. For many years the Soviets claimed that the Germans had been responsible for the massacre, and some low level Nazis were even charged with the crime after the war. For decades the world was told that it was a Nazi atrocity, and only after the 1991 fall of the Soviet Union was it *admitted that Soviet Communists had been responsible.*



Poles Expel Seven Million Germans after War

Germany’s defeat in World War II saw Poland take large pieces of eastern German territory as its own. These territories were ethnically cleansed of their German populations by mass deportations and in this way some seven million Germans were forcibly driven westward.

It is estimated that around three million of these deportees died during this ethnic cleansing process. East Prussia totally disappeared.

The city of Danzig was cleared of Germans and became the

Polish city of Gdansk. In the east, the Soviet Union reoccupied its lost territories once again, forcing about four million Poles to move westward, many of them taking up residence in the lands seized from the Germans.

Corroding Communist State

Although the facade of democratic government was installed in Poland after the war, the country soon became a Soviet satellite. Along with East Germany, it was one of the most important member states of the Warsaw Alliance, a military group created out of the Communist Eastern European nations.

In June 1956, an anti-Communist uprising took place in Poznan, and was suppressed with the loss of fifty-three lives. This uprising was accompanied by a violent anti-Semitic outbreak in various parts of the country, triggered by the fact that large numbers of Polish Jews participated in the Communist government apparatus.

In 1968, popular discontent erupted in riots which broke out in Warsaw, Poznan, Lublin, and Krakow. In each of these cases, the uprising was anti-Communist and anti-Jewish, as rioters identified Jews with the Communist Party regime. Seeking to quell public opinion, the Polish Communist Party then turned on the Jews in its own ranks. Starting in 1968, hundreds of prominent Jews were dismissed from government, Communist Party leadership positions, university departments, and also newspaper editorship posts. Many thousands of Jews left Poland after 1968, settling in America or Israel.

ANTI-SEMITISM MARKS 1956 ANTI-COMMUNIST UPRISING

NARODOWY BANK POLSKI
209

A Polish army tank stands in a Poznan street during the unsuccessful anti-Communist uprising of June 1956. The uprising was characterized by an outburst of anti-Jewish feeling, provoked by the fact that many leading Communists in the regime were Jews.

Solidarity Union Defeats Communists

The power of the Communist Party was eventually broken due to internal revolt and the collapse of the Soviet Empire in late 1989. Internally, worker uprisings against economic mismanagement were led by the Solidarity trade union, whose leader, Lech Walesa, was elected president of Poland after the fall of Communism. By 1991, Poland had its first democratic constitution and the Communist Party was voted out of power. The transfer from Communism to free enterprise was, as in all former Eastern European Communist states, extremely difficult and caused economic chaos for many years.

Poland—High Racial Homogeneity

Poland has never encouraged immigration and as such retains a high degree of racial homogeneity. Genetic evidence suggests that the only non-European admixture there dates from the thirteenth century Asiatic invasion, but even that is relatively minuscule. This influence was extremely limited, and the overwhelming racial type found in Poland is still Nordic, or what is known as Dinaric, a combination of Nordic and Alpine subracial types.

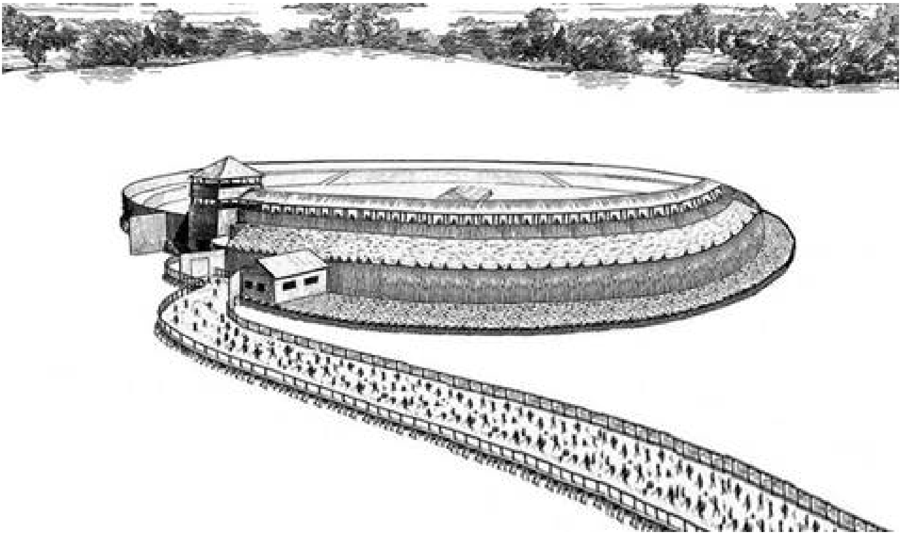
LITHUANIA

Ancient Indo-European Lithuania

Early Lithuania was occupied by Indo-European tribes known as the Balts before the year 2500 BC, in common with the other nations which are today called the Baltic states. There they lived in relative peace and obscurity, forming a typical early Iron Age community.

The first Roman reference to the Balts was made by Tacitus, the Roman historian of the first century, who made mention of a peoples in the far north who traded in the semi-precious mineral of amber, which was common in that region.

BALTIC LAKE FORTRESS CIRCA 500–1000



The lake settlement of Behren–Lubchin in the Baltic Lake region, as reconstructed to what it looked like in the eleventh century, based on excavations at the site. Circular in design, the fort was built in the middle of a lake, and the only access was via a long bridge. Traces of two thousand of such circular forts remain in the entire Baltic region, all dating from approximately 500–1000.

Invasions by Teutonic Knights

The Balts were never incorporated into the Roman Empire due to their geographic remoteness. As a result, they only started to feature as a factor in European history with the arrival of the Christian Teutonic Knights in the region. The Teutonic Knights were sent by the pope to Christianize—by violence—the pagan white tribes living along the Baltic coast.

First Lithuanian Kingdom 1251

A number of Lithuanian tribes were unified by a King Mindaugas in 1251, the date upon which the kingdom of Lithuania was formally created. Almost immediately the largely pagan Lithuanians were attacked by the Teutonic Knights, bent on Christianizing all of northeastern Europe. The Lithuanians rose to the challenge, and defeated the Teutonic Knights in a great battle in 1260.

Lithuanian Empire—Baltic to Black Sea

Awakened from their peaceful existence by the sudden violent appearance of the Christians, the Lithuanians quickly harnessed their own dormant power and set about extending their territory. Through military conquest, a Lithuanian empire was created, which extended from the Baltic to the Black seas, reaching right across present-day Russia, including Belarus and the western Ukraine.

Lithuania was numerically too small to hold onto these territories indefinitely, and they were all retaken by a strengthened Russia at the time of the partition of Poland in 1772.

Union with Poland Leads to Loss of Empire

In 1386, the Lithuanian king, Jagiello, married Jadwiga, queen of Poland, and after converting to Christianity, was crowned Wladyslaw II Jagiello, king of Poland and Lithuania. This political union with Poland proved to be Lithuania's undoing, as it was then dragged into the ongoing squabbling over Polish territory between Prussia, Russia, and Austria. In 1795, after a series of wars, the joint Lithuanian–Polish state was dissolved by the third "Partition of the Commonwealth." The majority of Lithuania was incorporated into Russia, while the remainder was added to Prussia.

Despite being hopelessly outnumbered, the Lithuanians staged popular nationalist rebellions against Russian rule in 1812, 1831, 1863, and 1905—all to no avail.

Independence Seized from Weakened Russia

The German army occupied Lithuania during the First World War, and at the end of that conflict nationalists seized the opportunity to declare Lithuanian independence, with Russia being too weak to resist.

THE COUNCIL OF LITHUANIA DECLARES INDEPENDENCE 1918

The Council of Lithuania after its declaration of independence in 1918. Lithuanian nationalists seized advantage of the chaos in Russia following the end of its participation in World War I and called together a conference in Vilnius. This gave the council the authority to declare a republic on February 16, 1918. Lithuanian independence would only last till 1940 when it was invaded by the Soviet Union.

World War II—Widespread Support for Nazi Germany

The Second World War saw Lithuania invaded by the Soviet Union in June 1940—another Soviet act of aggression which, like the Soviet invasion of Poland in 1939, was ignored by the British government in a gross display of hypocrisy. Lithuania was formally annexed into the Soviet Union that same year. The German invasion of the Soviet Union in June 1941 brought about an uprising in Lithuania against the Soviets. Facing apparent imminent defeat at the hands of the Germans, the Soviets withdrew their occupation forces.

The invading German armies were welcomed as liberators and many Lithuanians joined the German armed forces in their anti-Communist war. Lithuanians served in almost all branches of the German war effort, but particularly in the Waffen SS. They fought with honor and distinction on the Eastern Front against their longtime foes, the Communists in the Soviet Union.

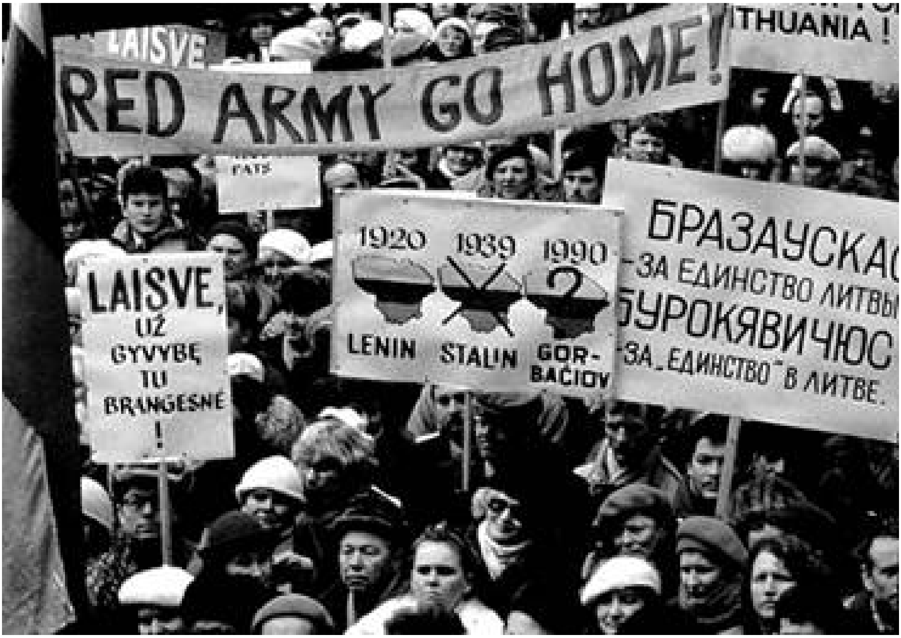
Soviets Deport 10 Percent of Population

By mid-1944, the Soviet Union had reoccupied Lithuania and was pushing the Germans back toward the west. A new Soviet government was established in Lithuania which exacted a terrible revenge upon the Lithuanians for having supported the Germans. At least 350,000 Lithuanians were deported to labor camps in Siberia as punishment.

When it is considered that the total Lithuanian population of the time was just over three million, the Soviet arrests and deportations to Siberia represented 10 percent of the entire population. This outrage was one more blatant Communist atrocity perpetrated upon the Eastern European peoples, which was sanctimoniously ignored by the West. Very few Lithuanians came back alive from Siberia.

In addition to the imprisonment of 10 percent of the native population, the Soviets also arranged for the mass settlement of ethnic Russians and Poles in Lithuania, creating a massive ethnic Russian presence there.

INDEPENDENCE PROTEST—VILNIUS 1990


LAISVE
RED ARMY GO HOME!
THUANIA !
LAISVE, UŽ GYVYBĘ TU BRANGESNE !
1920
1939
1990
?
LENIN
STALIN
GOR-BAČIOV
БРАЗАУСКАС
-ЗА ЕДИНСТВО ЛИТВЫ
БУРОКЯВИЧЮС
-ЗА „ЕДИНСТВО" В ЛИТВЕ.

A mass demonstration supporting Lithuanian independence, held in that country's capital, Vilnius, in 1990. Note the poster detailing how many times the Communists invaded Lithuania.

Independence Regained from Soviets 1991

Lithuania had to wait until 1991 for the Soviet Union to collapse before independence could once again be achieved. In that year a democratic republic was established. It was the first time since 1940 that Lithuania had not been under foreign occupation.

Nordic and Dinaric Types Still Predominate

Like Poland, Lithuania has never encouraged immigration from anywhere in the world, and as a result has an extremely high degree of racial homogeneity. Its population is dominated by Nordic or Dinaric subracial types.

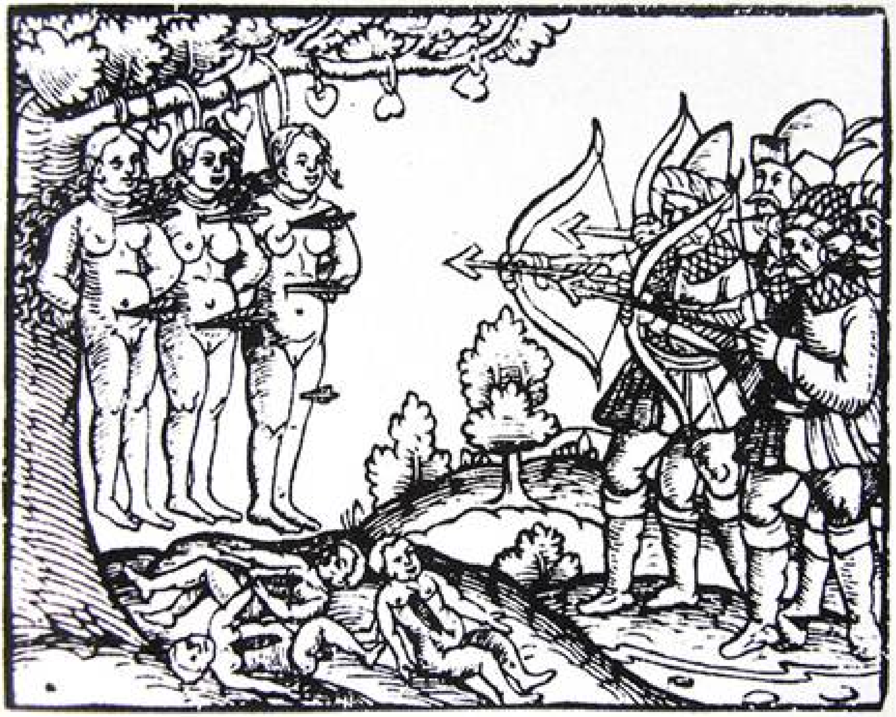
LATVIA

Like its neighbor, Lithuania, the territory of Latvia was also occupied by the Balts prior to 1000 BC. Living in relative obscurity, the Letts were first mentioned during the ninth century. The territory retained its independence until the mid-thirteenth century, when it was occupied by the Teutonic Knights, Poles, and Russians in quick succession.

Teutonic Knights—Conversion by Sword

The Teutonic Knights tried to convert the pagan tribes in the area during the early thirteenth century. As a result, Latvia was incorporated into territory held by the Livonian Order, a branch of the Teutonic Knights. At this stage the total Latvian population was probably not more than eight hundred thousand, and as such they were not in a position to offer effective resistance to their numerically superior neighbors.

RUSSIAN ATROCITIES IN LIVONIA



A print published in Nuremberg in 1561 details Russian atrocities in the Teutonic state of Livonia. Its collapse resulted in the region being seized by Poland, Sweden, and Russia in turn. The tiny population bore the brunt of these repeated invasions, as illustrated in this woodcut.

Occupation by Poland, Sweden, and Russia

The breakup of the Teutonic state of Livonia in 1561 saw Latvia divided into three parts. One part went to Poland, another to Sweden, and the third became a small independent duchy. The Swedish possession, which included the city Riga, was lost shortly afterward to the expanding Russian state. Finally, as a result of the partition of Poland, Russia ended up controlling all of Latvia from the late eighteenth century onward.

Independence from Russia 1918

Although the Russians ruled Latvia for more than a century, the Latvians maintained their ethnic identity. When the Russian rulers were prostrate after the First World War and the Communist Revolution, the Latvian nationalists struck at last. In 1918, Latvia proclaimed itself an independent republic.

However, Communist Russian troops invaded to suppress the uprising. Western Allied troops were rushed to the region in 1920. They expelled the Communists, forcing the Soviet government to formally accept Latvian independence.

Twelve Percent of Latvians Volunteer for Hitler against the Communists

Latvian independence only lasted twenty years. In 1940, the Soviet Union invaded the small country. The West once again ignored the blatant Soviet military aggression whilst it simultaneously declared war on Nazi Germany for invading Poland.

As a result, the 1941 invasion of the Soviet Union by the Germans was largely welcomed by the Latvians as a war of liberation. Many joined the German armed forces to fight the Communists. In total, some 148,000 Latvians—or just over 12 percent of the entire population—volunteered for active duty in the Nazi war effort, either in the Waffen SS or as labor or auxiliary units. When the territory was reoccupied by the Soviets in 1944, the Latvian anti-Communists were viciously persecuted and many thousands detained.

Although some former Latvian SS men fought on as guerrillas until the 1950s, resistance against Soviet rule did not threaten the Communist grip on Latvia until the 1990s.

With the Latvian population being so small in 1944—just over one million—the Soviet policy of resettling ethnic Russians in Latvia had a great effect. By 2006, Russians made up 29 percent of the Latvian population, down from 34 percent in 1997. The sharp decline was the result of Russian government incentives given to returning Russian citizens combined with anti-Russian sentiment in Latvia.

Low Present-Day Immigration

Apart from the influx of ethnic Russians, Latvia has not experienced any other great population shifts, and as a result retains a high degree of its original racial homogeneity among its population.

ESTONIA

Ancient Estonia—Land of Ests

Estonia had been occupied by a collection of Baltic Indo-European tribes, known as the Ests, prior to 1000 BC. The Roman historian Tacitus was the first to make mention of them during the first century. However, the Ests remained in obscurity until a Danish invasion in 1219.

Danes Occupy and Sell Estonia in 1345

The Danes occupied the homeland of the Ests until 1345. After a series of uprisings by the Ests, the Danes sold the land to the Teutonic Knights, who were always keen to get their hands and swords onto new batches of Odin-worshipping pagans. The Teutonic Knights, in alliance with a group of German city states known as the Hanseatic Alliance, dominated Estonia until 1561, when the order was dissolved.

The northern part of Estonia was placed under the protection of the Swedish king, while the southern part was occupied by Poland. In 1721, Sweden gave up Estonia and handed the territory over to the expanding Russian state.

ESTONIAN CROWDS CELEBRATE INDEPENDENCE 1918

The collapse of the Russian Empire at the end of World War I provided Estonian nationalists with the opportunity to declare their country independent on February 23, 1918. The Estonians had to raise an army from within their own ranks to fight a defensive campaign against a new attack by the Soviet Union and to fight off an attempt by Baltic nobles to seize control of the newly established state. These conflicts became known *as the Estonian War of Independence and ended in 1920 with victory for the Estonians.*

Independence after Seven Hundred Years

After seven hundred years of foreign rule, the Ests finally declared themselves independent after the collapse of Russia in the period following the First World War. The new Communist government of Russia invaded but was driven back by a determined Est resistance. A peace treaty concluded in 1920 formally recognized Est independence in the nation now called Estonia.

Soviet Invasion—Massive Expression of Support for Germany

In 1940, Soviet Russia made a clean sweep of the three Baltic States, occupying Estonia in a quick military invasion that drew no response from the West. The invasion of the Soviet Union by Nazi Germany in 1941 was welcomed by the Estonians. Many enthusiastically joined with the German armed forces and the Waffen SS, fighting fiercely against the Soviets.

Ten Percent of Estonian Population Flee Soviets

The defeat of the Germans saw the Soviets reenter Estonia in 1944. More than sixty thousand Estonians fled to Sweden and Germany out of fear of reprisals, a fear which turned out to be well justified. The Estonian population at the time was less than eight hundred thousand, and the literally overnight exodus of over 10 percent of the population severely weakened the state. It was then reincorporated into the Soviet Union, and remained directly ruled from Moscow until the fall of that regime in 1991.

Independence from Soviet Empire 1991

Estonia seized advantage of the Soviet Union’s 1991 collapse to declare itself independent. It was formally granted that status the same year. The former Soviet Union was in far too much turmoil to object to the independence of the Baltic states, and Estonia settled down to a period of relative peace for the first time since 1219.

Immigration—Mass Influx of Russians

The Soviets knew that the way to change the nature of any society was to change the population, and applied this principle to all the Baltic states. A huge ethnic Russian resettlement program was launched by the Soviet Union, which was dramatically successful.

In 1995, years after the fall of the Soviet Union, the ethnic Russian element of Estonia stood at 38 percent of the entire population, compared to only around 8 percent before the Soviet occupation of 1944. This influx of Russians caused major political problems within Estonia, and was at the top of the political agenda there. Russians who had settled in Estonia during the Soviet era were regarded as immigrants and forced to apply for Estonian citizenship. In order to qualify, applicants for citizenship had to show a knowledge of the Estonian language and the nation's history.

As the Russians were of the same basic racial stock, assimilation was easily achieved and by 2007 the majority of Russians had adopted Estonian citizenship. As a result, the number of Russian citizens in Estonia dropped once again to around 8 percent.

Apart from the massive ethnic Russian settlement, no other population change occurred in Estonia's history. The small Baltic nation thus retained a high degree of racial homogeneity, with Nordic and Dinaric racial types forming the majority of the population, which numbered some 1.4 million in 2010. Together with Lithuania (3.3 million) and Latvia (2.2 million), there are therefore only some 6.9 million Balts.

PRUSSIA

The German state which became known as Prussia was situated on the Baltic coast in the north of present-day Poland. Originally occupied by Baltic tribes who called themselves the Prussi, or the Borussi, these people gave their name to the state which emerged in that region.

The Prussi were racially closely related to the Lithuanians. There is widespread evidence of contact between these two groups and the Prussi acted as merchants between the Baltic tribes and the Celts of western Europe in the lucrative trade of amber, a semi-precious stone found in abundance in the northeast of Europe.

Peaceful Christianization Efforts Fail

The Prussi were first exposed to Christianity by the Saxons, a Germanic people from southern Germany who had been converted by sword to Christianity by the Frankish king Charlemagne.

The Saxons did not bring the message of the Bible by fire and sword, but tried to peacefully convert the Prussi from their native Odinism. These efforts were in vain, and the Saxons' attempts to

Christianize the Prussi ended when the Bohemian bishop and saint, Adalbert, was killed by a group of local Prussi while on a missionary tour in 997. The Christians then gave up and the Prussi were left to their pagan ways for another two hundred years.

The Teutonic Knights, the Dutch, and the Germans

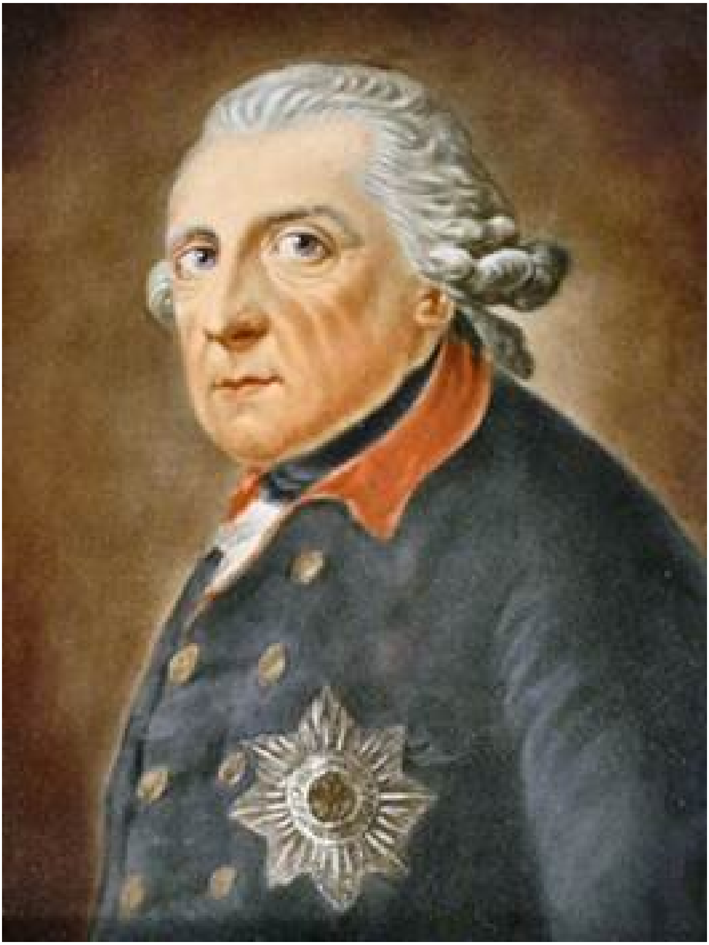
The Teutonic Knights arrived in the middle of the thirteenth century and brought the Christian message with the sword. It was only then that the new religion took hold among the Prussi.

Apart from converting the Prussi to Christianity, the Teutonic Knights also encouraged the settlement of Christian Dutch and Germans among the natives in order to police the transition to the new religion. By the end of the thirteenth century, the region had been completely subdued, with its Nordic subracial makeup boosted by the arrival of large numbers of Dutch and Germans.

Prussia was ruled as a fiefdom of the Teutonic Knights until 1410, when a combined Lithuanian and Polish army defeated them at the Battle of Grunwald. Most of the Teutonic Knight’s commanders were killed at this battle, and the order went into steady decline thereafter.

The western part of Prussia was ceded to Poland (becoming known as Polish Royal Prussia), and the eastern part was held by the Teutonic Knights as a Polish fiefdom.

FREDERICK THE GREAT—PRUSSIA’S BRILLIANT AND CULTURED KING



King Frederick II, also known as Frederick the Great. Upon German unification in 1871, the Prussian kings became kings of all Germany, but it was only for a short while. The First World War saw the end of the German monarchy, and the Second World War the end of Prussia as a state.

Independent State of Prussia 1660

Eastern Prussia slowly became more secular until the last grand master of the Teutonic Knights, Albert of Hohenzollern, who was a Protestant Lutheran, declared himself duke of Prussia in 1525.

Finally, East Prussia was declared an independent state in 1660, after a conflict with Poland. The full story of Prussia's dominance in the history of Germany is told later in this work. Suffice to say here that the kings of Prussia were later to become the kings of a united Germany because of Prussia's dominant status.

East Prussia retained its territory until the end of the First World War, when it was physically cut off from the rest of Germany by the creation of an artificial strip of land given to Poland, with the Prussian city of Danzig placed under Polish control. A dispute over this land led to the German–Polish conflict of 1939 and then to the outbreak of the Second World War. At the end of the Second World War, millions of Prussians were expelled and the state of Prussia ceased to exist, with most of it being absorbed into present-day Poland.

CHAPTER 33: The Test of Ethnicity—Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia

"Race" is a collection of individuals sharing a common genetic base, while "ethnicity" refers to the actual cultural manifestations of a particular group of people. Ethnicity is easily transferable among members of the same race—only when there are significant racial differences among the transferring societies does the process falter.

The truth of this is perfectly illustrated in the comparative histories of three nations where ethnic conflict has played a major role: Switzerland, the Czech and Slovak Republics, and the former state of Yugoslavia. Switzerland, which retained the highest degree of racial homogeneity, overcame its ethnically based differences with relative ease.

The other two nations, Czechoslovakia and Yugoslavia, were less racially homogeneous than Switzerland. Therefore, they each dissolved after conflicts, the intensity and length of which were inversely proportional to their homogeneity. The rule is that the higher the racial homogeneity, the more likely there is to be peace—the lower the racial homogeneity, the higher the discordance. Thus the Czechs and the Slovaks entered a period of peace following the forcible expulsion of the German minority after 1945. This process of ethnic division was capped by the peaceful further division of that country into the Czech and Slovak republics in 1993. Yugoslavia, by contrast, being less racially homogenous, collapsed into civil war before physical division produced a measure of peace.

SWITZERLAND

The earliest recorded inhabitants of the country now known as Switzerland were Old Europeans called the Rhaetians, who were related to the Etruscans in Italy. The Rhaetians were, like the Etruscans, overrun by the great wave of Indo-European invaders who swept east and south. The Indo-European tribe who settled in the valleys between the mountains became known as the Helvetii. As a result, this name became associated with Switzerland, and is still used poetically to describe all of that country.

Peace under Roman Occupation

Lying directly to the north of Italy, the land of the Helvetii was overrun by the Roman general Julius Caesar during the first century BC and the entire region became completely Romanized. It survived as a peaceful Roman province, known as Helvetia, for the next three hundred years.

Germanic Invasions Fourth Century

Because of its proximity to northern Italy, the province of Helvetia was overrun by the Germanic invasions which swept over the decaying Roman Empire in the fourth century. Two tribes in particular occupied the region: the Bourguignons and the Alamanni.

None of these invasions affected the basic racial makeup of Switzerland. Apart from the original Old Europeans, who had a number of Mediterranean subracial types among their numbers, all the invaders were of basic Nordic stock.

Charlemagne Introduces Christianity

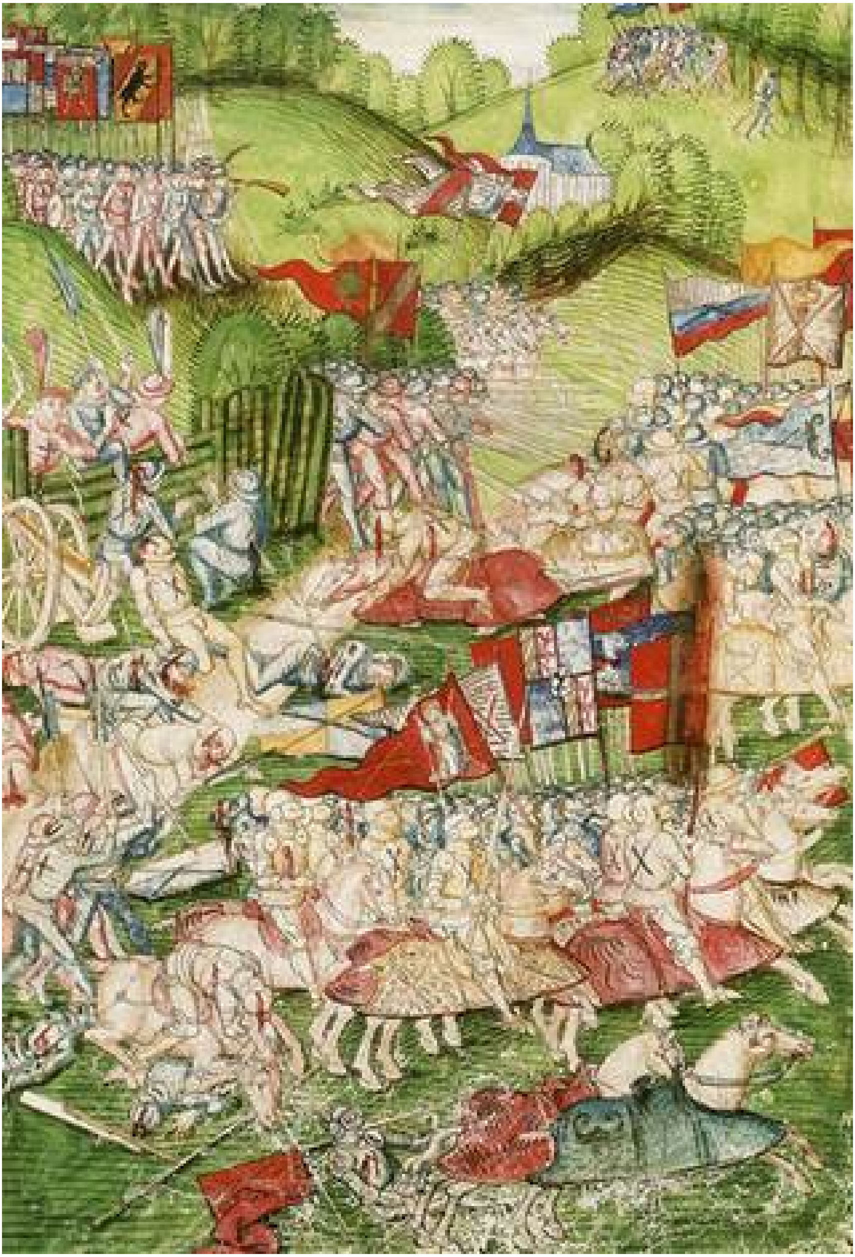
In common with all the Germanic tribes, the new invaders were pagans, even though the Romanized Helvetii had been introduced to Christianity in the closing years of the Roman Empire. The Franks under King Charlemagne introduced Christianity to the Alamanni and the other Germanics in Helvetia when they invaded the region in the fifth century.

Incorporated into Swabia under German Rule

When the Frankish empire dissolved upon Charlemagne’s death, most of present-day Switzerland became incorporated into the duchy of Alemannia, or Swabia, one of the feudal states making up the German kingdom.

By 1276 the Austrian House of Habsburg had taken over the crown of the Holy Roman Empire. In that year its emperor, Rudolf I, introduced a number of feudal laws and oppressive measures in Switzerland. This sparked an ongoing war with the independence minded Swiss which lasted nearly two hundred years.

SWISS BATTLE AUSTRIANS FOR INDEPENDENCE



The Swiss struggle for independence against the Austrians, taken from a 1474 print. The Swiss displayed such military skill during this war that their mercenaries became the most sought after in Europe.

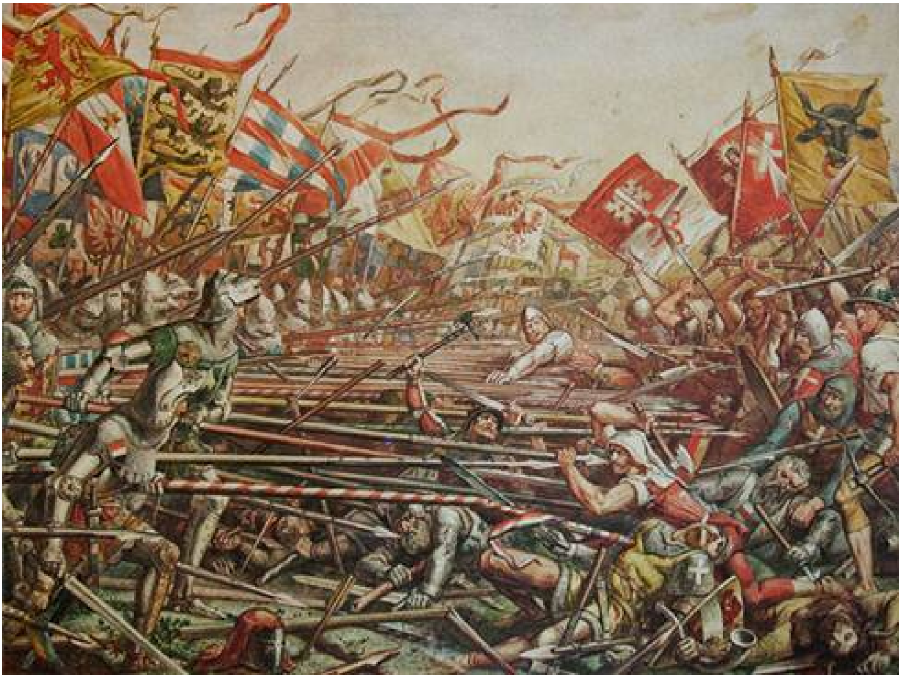
Hard Won Independence from Austria 1499

By 1474, the Swiss had fought the Austrians to a standstill. In that year, the Swiss regions, by then already known as cantons, were made into a confederation under the loose control of the Habsburgs.

In 1499, the Holy Roman Emperor, Maximilian I, launched an attempt to crush even this hard won autonomy. A new war broke out between the Swiss and Austrians, resulting in victory for the Swiss. By the Treaty of Basel, Swiss independence was as good as sealed. Shortly afterward some of the last regions in Switzerland affiliated themselves to the newly independent state.

The Swiss skill in defeating the mighty Austrians led them to become highly regarded soldiers all over Europe. They were recruited as mercenaries by all those who could afford them, including the Vatican, which employs Swiss Guards to the present day.

BATTLE OF SEMPACH



The Battle of Sempach was fought on July 9, 1386, between Leopold III, Duke of Austria, and the Old Swiss Confederacy. It laid the foundation for the growth of the Swiss Confederacy at the interests of the Austrian Empire, and is regarded as a turning point in the struggle for Swiss independence.

Mercenaries Add Italian Cantons

While fighting as mercenaries with the French army during the wars of the early sixteenth century, Swiss troops annexed some additional parts of northern Italy which became the southernmost canton of Switzerland. The Swiss then tried to take on the French and were unexpectedly badly defeated in 1515.

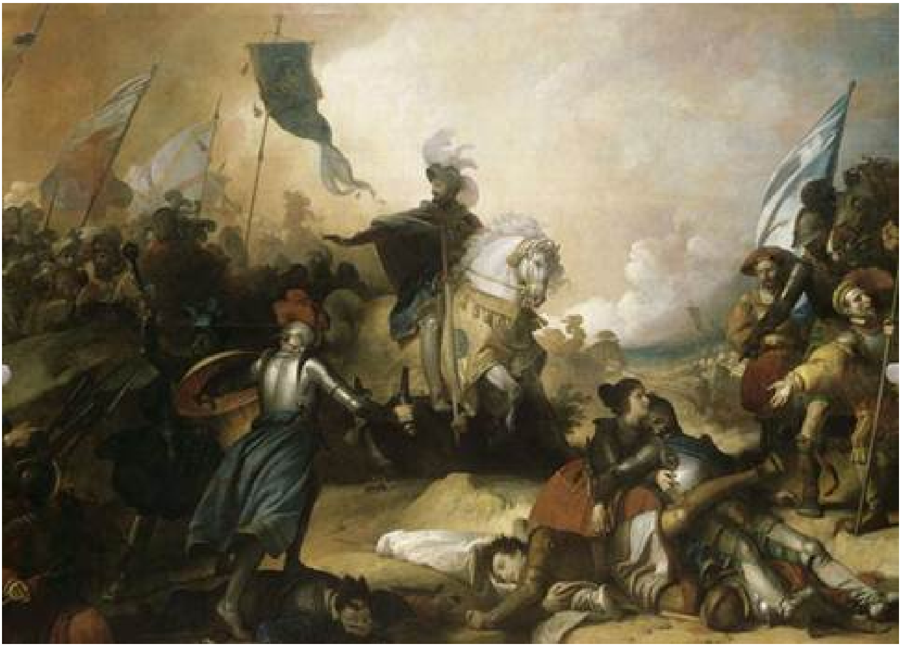
Reformation Begins in 1518—Protestants Destroy Catholic Property

The Protestant Reformation in Switzerland started in 1518, when a pastor named Ulrich Zwingli denounced the sale of indulgences (full or partial remission of temporal punishment due for sins) by the Catholic Church.

Inflamed by Zwingli's oratory, the people of Zurich rose up and smashed relics and statues in the churches. The Protestants also abolished the rule of celibacy for priests. Other Swiss towns, such as Basel and Bern, adopted similar religious platforms and in 1536, Geneva, where the French Protestant leader John Calvin had settled, rose up against the duchy of Savoy and refused to acknowledge the authority of its Roman Catholic bishop.

Swiss diplomatic skill prevented the country from becoming involved in the great Christian Wars which resulted from the Reformation. By the end of the Protestant/Catholic Thirty Years' War of 1618 to 1648, Switzerland was once again recognized as a fully independent state by the Treaty of Westphalia which ended that conflict.

MARIGNANO 1515 SWISS DEFEAT LEADS TO NEUTRALITY



The great Battle of Marignano, in which the Swiss were defeated by the French in 1515. At Marignano, now Melegnano, the French defeated the Swiss army in a struggle over possession of northern Italy. Unaccustomed to defeat, the Swiss then decided henceforth to maintain a strict policy of neutrality.

Ideals of French Revolution Lead to Unification

The ideals of the French Revolution spread to Switzerland after 1789. Swiss revolutionaries rose up against the almost feudal system of lords and princes who ran the confederation of Swiss cantons. The revolutionaries were suppressed by the nobility, which led to the French sending an army into Switzerland to help the Swiss revolutionaries.

With French intervention, the Swiss revolutionaries managed to stage a comeback, and a Swiss republic based on the model of the French revolutionary state was established by 1798.

Napoleon Bonaparte then unified the country under the name of the Helvetic Republic, instituting a form of government which proved to be unpopular with the Swiss.

Large numbers of French speakers then settled there, creating the French speaking part of present-day Switzerland. By 1803, Napoleon ordered his occupation troops to leave the republic. The

Congress of Vienna in 1815 saw Napoleon's unpopular constitution overthrown and replaced by the confederal canton system which had preceded the French intervention.

Internal Conflict Solved Constitutionally

The existence of three main language groups: French, German, and a small Italian segment— combined with a split between Protestants and Catholics—made up the classic scenario for an ethnically based conflict.

By 1847, the Catholic cantons—mainly German speaking—had formed a united league, the Sonderbund. The Swiss government declared the Sonderbund illegal in terms of the constitution and ordered them to disband. They refused, and a localized civil war followed, ending in the defeat of the Sonderbund the next year.

The war caused the Swiss to rethink their constitutional arrangements. In 1874, a new constitution was introduced. It turned the country into a federal state and gave extraordinary powers to the various cantons to ensure the maximum devolution of power on issues which were likely to cause conflict. This constitution worked very effectively and is still, with only minor modifications, in use in Switzerland to the present day.

Swiss Renowned for Neutrality

The Swiss are also famous for their steadfast neutrality. Refusing to join the United Nations has ironically made that country ideal "neutral territory" upon which many delicate UN conferences have been held.

Immigration Tightly Controlled

Switzerland tightly controls citizenship by biological descent and does not encourage immigration of any sort. However, the country has, like much of Western Europe, been the target of a considerable influx of illegal Third World immigrants. The significance of this nonwhite immigration into Switzerland is discussed later in this work.

THE CZECH AND SLOVAK REPUBLICS

Among World's Oldest Settlements

The region known today as the Czech and Slovak republics was first occupied by a combination of Proto-Nordic and Old European subracial types and produced some of the earliest civilizations in the world. Some of the first houses in the world were built there, dating from the Upper Paleolithic period—approximately 10,000 BC—some seven thousand years before the Mesopotamian civilization.

The settlement of the region by Proto-Nordics and Old Europeans continued peacefully until the arrival of the Indo-European peoples starting around the year 3000 BC, with the region becoming the westernmost point of the area of settlement by the Slav Indo-Europeans.

Known As Pannonia under Roman Rule

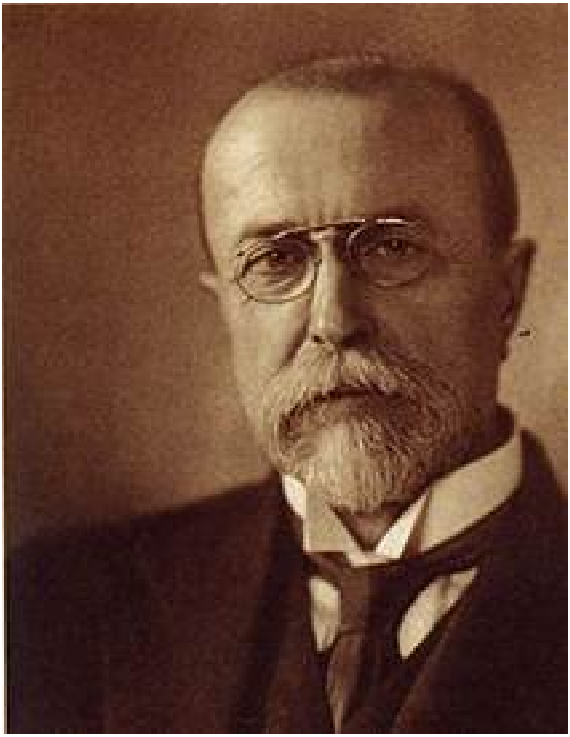
The area was incorporated into the Roman Empire under the name Pannonia and remained relatively peaceful during that time. After the fall of the Roman Empire, Pannonia was subjected to repeated Asiatic invasions (including the Avars, Bulgars, and Magyars) over a five hundred year period to the end of the first millennium. It was liberated each time by counterinvasions from neighboring European countries.

Occupation Leads to Racial Mixing

The continual occupation of the various regions led to the establishment of defined ethnic groups. The majority were white, but there was a significant minority of mixed Asiatic-white descent, and a considerable nonwhite “Gypsy” population. These were descendants of Indians who entered southern Europe at the time of the great Asiatic invasions and who remained biologically isolated from mainstream society.

The Czech people are derived from a combination of each of the cultural groups which played a role in shaping that nation’s history: the Germans, Austrians, and Slavs. Ultimately, all the territories occupied by these peoples (Bohemia, Moravia, a part of the area known as Silesia, Slovakia, and sub-Carpathian Ruthenia), fell under the control of the Austro-Hungarian Empire during the nineteenth century.

MASARYK AND THE DREAM OF A UNITED CZECHOSLOVAKIA



Tomas Masaryk (1850–1937), the first president of the First Republic of Czechoslovakia, was the son of a coachman to the Austro-Hungarian emperor, Franz Joseph. Well-educated, he entered the Austro-Hungarian parliament in 1891 and proceeded to fight for the rights of the Slavic minorities within that empire. When Austria-Hungary went to war in 1914, he fled and eventually found his way to the United States of America, where he enlisted the support of immigrant Czechs and Slovaks and of the US president, Woodrow Wilson, for an independent Czechoslovakia. His efforts paid off when, in terms of the peace conference which ended the First World War, Czechoslovakia became an independent nation.

The country was created of many disparate groups — the Czechs made up 51 percent of the population, Slovaks 16 percent, Germans 22 percent, Ruthenes (Ukrainians) 6 percent, and Hungarians 5 percent. Masaryk was unable to bind all these nations into one, and upon his retirement in 1935, the different groups had started agitating for independence in earnest. Masaryk died in 1937.

One year later, the first Czechoslovak Republic was dismembered in terms of the Munich Conference which saw Slovakia become an independent country, the Germans taking ethnic German Sudetenland. Poland and Hungary each took territory in which their populations were the majority. The Czech region became a German protectorate, but was never formally *annexed.*

First Czechoslovakian Republic 1918–1938

The breakup of the Austro-Hungarian Empire at the end of the First World War presented an opportunity for a combined leadership core of Czechs and Slovaks to declare independence.

This state of affairs was formalized at the Treaty of Versailles which ended the war, and the first formally constituted Republic of Czechoslovakia came into existence in 1918 under President Tomas Masaryk. The new state was beset with ethnic problems.

In the west, it incorporated millions of Germans in the region known as the Sudetenland, while in the north, it incorporated Polish territory. Finally, in the south and east, parts of Hungary were carved off and added to the new state. All told, Czechoslovakia contained five ethnic groups, almost as many as the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Czechs made up 51 percent of the population, Slovaks 16 percent, Germans 22 percent, Ruthenes (Ukrainians) 6 percent, and Hungarians 5 percent.

In addition to these territories, the Czechoslovakian state also inherited the impressive Austrian industrial regions, transforming it overnight into one of the most industrialized nations in Eastern Europe. Austria, on the other hand, stripped of its major industrial region, went into serious economic decline.

Three Million Sudetens Want German Inclusion

With the rise of nationalist Germany under Adolf Hitler, the three million Sudeten Germans started agitating for inclusion into Germany. At the same time other neighboring countries such as Poland, Bulgaria, and Romania started pressing claims on Czechoslovak territory. Increasing ethnic tensions, aggravated by the maltreatment of all ethnic minorities by the Czechoslovakian government, gave breeding ground to further nationalist demands.

Finally tensions with Germany reached the point where Hitler demanded that the Sudeten Germans be allowed to vote on the issue of reincorporation with Germany.

Munich Conference Divides Czechoslovakia

The famous 1938 Munich Conference between the major European powers followed. The French and British governments prevailed upon the Czechoslovakian government to surrender all territories in which Czechs were less than 50 percent of the population. In practice this meant that the Sudetenland was given to Germany while smaller regions were given to Poland and Hungary respectively.

JOY AND ANGER AT GERMAN OCCUPATION OF PRAGUE 1938

Two views of Adolf Hitler's occupation of Prague in 1939. Above: Ecstatic German and pro-German Czech and Slovak crowds greet Hitler as he rides into what was one of the oldest original German cities.

Below, not all the Czech minority welcomed the German occupation, as evidenced by these faces in the crowd. By 1942 Czechs had warmed to the idea of Nazi rule. This led to the decision to assassinate the German ruler of the Czech region, Reinhard Heydrich. The Slovaks, on the other hand, were overtly pro-German as Slovakia had become an independent state under nominal German protection. Slovakia lost its independence with the Soviet invasion of 1944, and only regained it after the fall of Communism in the 1990s.

The Second Czechoslovakian Republic Flounders 1938–1939

The second, much smaller, Czechoslovakian Republic then came into existence. Internally weak, stripped of the (originally Austrian) industrial area, the new state floundered before it started.

Taking advantage of the resultant chaos, Germany occupied the regions of Bohemia and Moravia six months after the Munich conference, claiming, with a measure of truth, that the region had originally been German anyway (the first German university had been established in Prague in 1348 by the German Holy Roman Emperor Charles IV). The region was never formally annexed or added to Germany, and was merely a protectorate.

The First Slovak Republic 1939–1945

The Slovaks then seized their chance to become independent, and in 1939 the first Slovak Republic came into existence. Pro-

German, the region took an active part in the war effort led by the Germans against the Soviet Union. The last territorial division then took place after the Slovaks had declared independence—the region of Ruthenia was returned to Hungary.

Contrary to popular myth, the dissolution of Czechoslovakia was not a land grab by Germany alone. No less than three countries obtained land from the Czechoslovakian state, and half of Czechoslovakia—Slovakia—became a completely independent state. It is one of the many distortions about the Second World War to state, as many sources do, that Germany alone demanded the dissolution of Czechoslovakia and occupied the entire country.

German Occupation—Popularity Grew

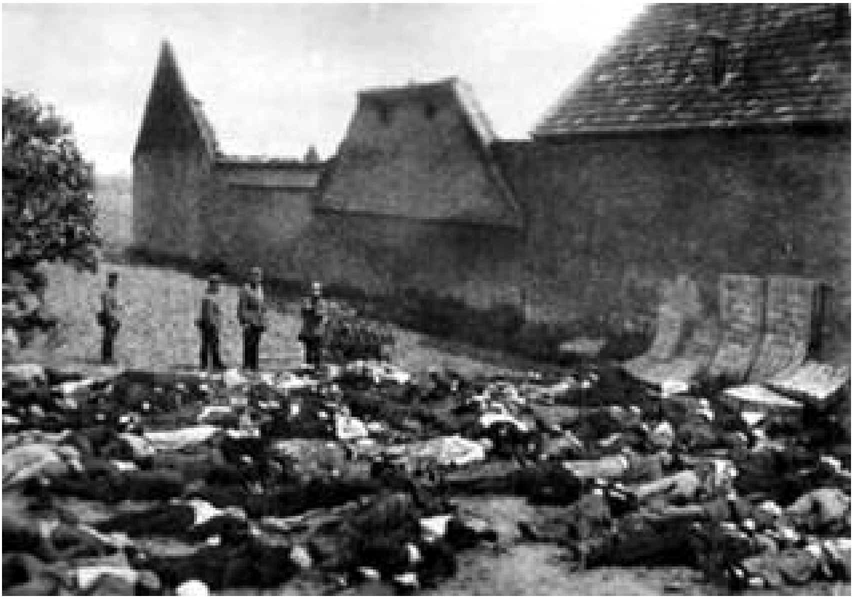
Welcomed enthusiastically by the Sudeten Germans as liberators, the German army was met with resentment and in many cases outright hostility by the occupied Czechs. The German protectorate grew in popularity over time, particularly after an SS general, Reinhard Heydrich, was appointed governor. Heydrich’s benevolent rule actually caused a dramatic rise in pro-German sympathy among the Czechs—so much so that the British government ordered his assassination in Prague in 1942.

British Planned Heydrich Assassination

The involvement of a few Czechs in Heydrich’s assassination led to German reprisals. A number of civilians in the village of Lidice, which was being used as a weapons store by the small Czech resistance movement, were murdered by the Gestapo.

The Lidice massacre achieved the effect wanted by the British government. The goodwill which Heydrich had built up was dissipated and the growing pro-German sympathy among Czechs was halted and reversed. In the Slovak Republic, support for the pro-German government remained relatively strong, enabling them to easily suppress an August 1944 attempted coup.

ATROCITY AT LIDICE FOLLOWS HEYDRICH ASSASSINATION



The Czech village of Lidice bore the brunt of German anger at the assassination, in 1942, of Reinhard Heydrich, governor of Bohemia and Morovia, by a resistance team organized by British intelligence. Lidice, long known as a Czech resistance stronghold, was surrounded by avenging German forces on June 10, 1942. All 192 men over sixteen years of age were executed and the rest of the population sent to concentration camps. The village was then razed. The Heydrich assassination and the resultant massacre at Lidice succeeded in driving a wedge between the German occupiers and the Czech population, who had been warming to the idea of German rule.

The Third Czechoslovakian Republic 1948–1989

The defeat of Nazi Germany saw all of Slovakia and the former Czech territories falling under Soviet occupation in 1945. A democratic state was installed, and although the Communist Party won only one third of the votes, the Soviet military occupiers ensured that the Communist Party formed the government. Ruthenia was ceded to the Soviet Union, and all three million Sudeten Germans were physically driven out of the Sudetenland into Austria and Germany, brutally solving the issue of the German minority literally overnight.

Despite Soviet promises of democracy, Czechoslovakia was quickly turned into yet another Communist one party dictatorship, part of the Warsaw Alliance of Communist nations under the leadership of the Soviet Union. The Sovietization of Czechoslovakia and the suppression of free enterprise brought about an inevitable economic decline, and by 1968 a wing of the ruling Communist Party had realized that reforms were necessary to prevent a total collapse of the state.

The Prague Spring 1968

Starting in 1968, the government set about de-sovietizing many aspects of Czechoslovakia. This included a policy program consisting of major reforms such as the toleration of limited free enterprise, federal independence for the Slovaks, and a more democratically elected government. Central to all these proposed reforms was a loosening of ties with the Soviet Union. This period of proposed reform became known as the "Prague Spring."

SOVIET INVASION ENDS CZECH REFORMS

The Prague Spring ends. An attempt by the Czechoslovakian government to introduce minor reforms was crushed by a massive Communist invasion in August 1968. With armor and half a million troops, the Communists managed to prevent the Czechoslovak state from leaving the Communist bloc. Here Czechs watch as tanks toll into Wenceslas Square in the city center of Prague.

Soviets Stamp out Reform and Invade

Fearing that the reform would spread, the Soviet Union invaded Czechoslovakia in August 1968. Over half a million troops—comprising Russians, Poles, Hungarians, and Bulgarians—stormed the borders. Their overwhelming numbers completely suppressed the Prague Spring and the country was quickly put back under a strict Communist government, which abolished the entire intended reform program.

Fourth Czechoslovakian Republic 1990–1993

The fall of Communism in 1989 resulted in the collapse of the Czech Communist government. Democratic elections in June 1990 saw a non-Communist government elected. The Slovaks reasserted their independence, and in January 1993 two separate countries—the Czech Republic and Slovakia—were created by mutual consent. This division of territory was not only peaceful but dramatically different to the conflict which accompanied the dissolution of the Yugoslav state.

Low Present-Day Immigration

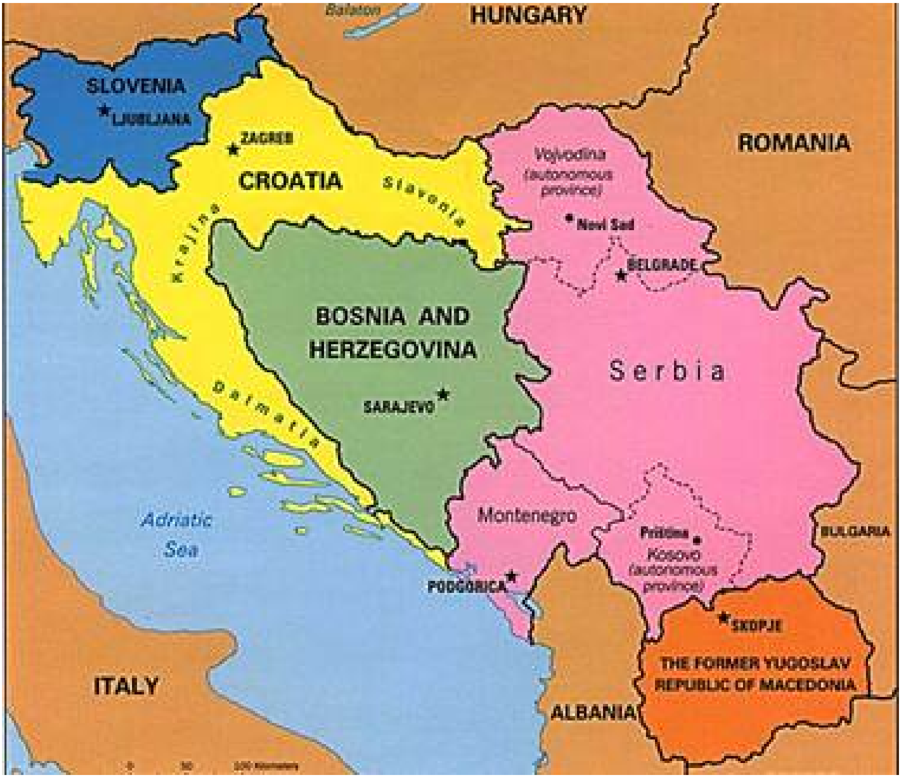
By 2008, there had been little Third World immigration to the Czech and Slovak republics, resulting in an immigrant population of less than 2 percent.

YUGOSLAVIA

Yugoslavia was created at the end of the nineteenth century out of a number of ethnic cultural groups in the Balkans. This volatile mix of white Slavic, Asiatic invaders, and Islamic Turks clashed violently to make this region one of the most unstable in all of Europe. Conflicts which originated here served as the catalyst for the First World War and re-erupted in the 1990s following the fall of the Soviet Union and Communism in Eastern Europe.

Yugoslavia's main component regions were Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro, and Slovenia. It is of value to briefly review each of these independently.

ETHNIC AND RACIAL STEW—YUGOSLAVIA'S COMPONENTS


Balaton
HUNGARY
SLOVENIA
LJUBLJANA
ZAGREB
CROATIA
Slavonia
Krajina
Vojvodina
(autonomous
province)
Novi Sad
BELGRADE
ROMANIA
BOSNIA AND
HERZEGOVINA
SARAJEVO
Serbia
Dalmatia
Adriatic
Sea
Montenegro
Priština
Kosovo
(autonomous
province)
BULGARIA
PODGORICA
SKOPJE
THE FORMER YUGOSLAV
REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA
ITALY
ALBANIA
0 50 100 Kilometers

A map of Yugoslavia under the united government during the 1945–1990 era. The regions correspond closely to the present-day independent states.

The wide diversity of the ethnic, subracial, and religious composition of each state is revealed by an analysis of the 1992 population census figures:

1) *Slovenia had 2.0 million people, of whom Slovenes were 90 percent, Croats were 3 percent, Serbs were 2 percent, Muslims were 1 percent, and others were 4 percent.*

2) *Croatia had 4.8 million people, of whom Croats were 78 percent, Serbs were 12 percent, Muslims were 1 percent, and others were 9 percent.*

3) *Bosnia-Herzegovina had 4.4 million people, of whom Muslims were 44 percent, Serbs were 33 percent, Croats were 17 percent, and others were 6 percent.*

4&5) *Serbia and Montenegro—which included Kosovo—had 10.6 million people, of whom Serbs were 63 percent, Albanians were 14 percent, Montenegrins were 6 percent, Hungarians were 4 percent, and others were 13 percent.*

6) *Macedonia had 2.2 million people, of whom Macedonians were 67*

percent, Albanians were 20 percent, Turks were 4 percent, Serbs were 2 percent, and others were 7 percent.

Croatia—Independence and Subjugation

Croatia formed part of the Roman province of Pannonia but was conquered by the Asiatic Avars in the sixth century. The Avars were in turn conquered by the Slavic Croats during the next century. They were then conquered by an invasion of Franks and it was only in 925 that Croatia became an independent kingdom.

It remained independent until the eleventh century when a period of political anarchy led to a Hungarian invasion. The subsequent occupation of Hungary by the Ottomans in turn saw Turkish rule extended over Croatia. The Croats proved troublesome subjects for the Turks and after a short while the new invaders abandoned Croatia to its own devices. Falling nominally under the Hungarian crown, Croatia remained in practice an autonomous kingdom until 1848 when it was formally annexed to Austria. With the creation of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in 1867, it became part of that polyglot state.

Due to the relatively small length of time the region was occupied by the Ottomans, virtually no intermingling took place. As a result, the Croats remained majority European in racial makeup.

Montenegro—Successfully Resists Ottomans

After the fall of the Roman Empire, the territory of Montenegro became part of the Serbian kingdom. When Serbia was overrun by the Ottoman Turks in 1459, the Montenegrins withdrew to their mountain strongholds, particularly on Mount Lovcen, and there amazingly remained the only Balkan people never to be ruled by the nonwhite Turks, despite continual military engagements with them.

Montenegro joined Greece, Bulgaria, and Serbia in alliance against the Ottoman Empire in 1912, and as a result of the Balkan Wars the country almost doubled in size.

Slovenia—First Independent State in 623

Under the Roman Empire, Slovene, or Slovenia as it is better known, was part of the provinces of Pannonia and Noricum. During the sixth century, the region was invaded by the Asiatic Avars and later by the Indo-European Slavs who threw off the nonwhite Avar domination.

In 623, Franko Samo created the first independent Slovene state, which stretched from present-day Hungary right to the Mediterranean. It lasted until the eighth century, when the Franks conquered the region. From 1335 until 1918 the Slovenes were governed by the Habsburgs of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The Napoleonic Wars (1809 to 1814) caused a brief pause in this foreign rule, which was then resumed until the end of the First World War.

Serbia—from Roman Province to World War I Catalyst

During Roman times, Serbia formed part of the province of Moesia. Gothic invaders passed through the land in the third century, and after 395 it became part of the Eastern Roman or Byzantine Empire.

The Serbs, originally a division of the Indo-European Slavic group, settled in the country during the seventh century and gave their allegiance to the Byzantines. The region was then overrun during the Turkish Ottoman invasion of the Balkans, and only liberated when those invaders were driven out centuries later.

As the struggle to drive the Muslim invaders out waged back and forth, Serbia fell under either Austrian or Ottoman rule. In 1835, after decades of military conflict, the Ottomans finally granted independence. Even so, the last Turkish soldiers only left Serbia in 1862.

In 1876 Montenegro and Serbia declared war against the Ottoman Empire, demanding unification with Bosnia. This conflict came to an end two years later with the Congress of Berlin. The agreement put Bosnia under Austro-Hungarian occupation, against Serbia's wishes.

For the next three decades, relative peace reigned in Serbia. The outbreak of the Balkans War in 1912, which saw the last of the Turkish troops driven out from that region, allowed Serbia to annex part of Macedonia and Kosovo. Serbia's history then took a dramatic turn. On June 28, 1914, the assassination of Crown Prince Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria at Sarajevo in Bosnia-Herzegovina led to Austria-Hungary declaring war on Serbia. The conflict then quickly escalated into the First World War, during which Serbia was overrun by the Austro-Hungarians, driving many Serbian leaders into exile in Greece.

On the island of Corfu, representatives of Serbia, and all the other regions then under foreign rule, issued a declaration in 1914 announcing their intention to create a united state once the war was over.

SERBIAN NATIONALIST SPARKS FIRST WORLD WAR

Gavrilo Princip, a Serbian nationalist (second from right), is arrested moments after he fired the first shot of the First World War: the assassination of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, July 1914.

The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes 1918

The Austro-Hungarian Empire collapsed at the end of the First World War. Taking advantage of that seismic shift in central Europe, representatives from Serbia, Croatia, and Slovenia met in the city of Zagreb in October 1918 and agreed to a formal union. This union was later endorsed by the region of Montenegro. As a result, a new state officially called the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, was proclaimed in December 1918.

A centralized form of government was adopted, which was dominated by the Serbs. The denial of any sort of autonomy to the Croats, Slovenes, and other minority groups immediately created tensions within the state.

This resulted in the June 1928 assassination of a Croatian leader in the national parliament by a deputy from Montenegro. The Croats then withdrew all their parliamentarians and set up a provisional independent government in Zagreb.

King Alexander Assumes Dictatorial Powers to Save Union

Just when it seemed inevitable that the ten-year-old state would be consumed by civil war, the king of the time, Alexander, intervened. He dissolved the parliament and assumed dictatorial control of the government. Abolishing all the traditional powers of the regions, Alexander instituted a one-man government and changed the name of the country into the Kingdom of Yugoslavia, translated literally as the “Land of the South Slavs.”

The brutal suppression of all dissent only temporarily quelled the ethnic tension. In October 1934, Alexander was assassinated in France by a Macedonian. Further internal pressure led to a federalist system of government being instituted in 1939, but still the underlying tensions remained.

World War II—Neutrality and German Occupation

At the outbreak of the Second World War, the Yugoslav state attempted to maintain a policy of neutrality. After the initial German military victories during the first two years of the war, the Yugoslav government formally joined the alliance of Germany and Italy. The pact with Germany proved unpopular with the Yugoslav people and an uprising occurred. The pro-German government was overthrown and replaced with one which reestablished Yugoslavia’s neutrality.

In 1941, the Italians invaded Greece. This move proved disastrous and before long the Italian army was in retreat. The Germans were then forced to come to Italy’s aid to prevent the British from establishing a military base in Greece. Quickly overrunning Yugoslavia, the Germans beat both the Greeks and a small British expeditionary force. Thus by early 1941, all of Yugoslavia was back under foreign rule, and the short-lived state was broken up once again. Italy occupied large parts including Montenegro, while Serbia was taken over by a pro-German government. Hungary seized a considerable part of the eastern section of Yugoslavia known as Vojvodina, while Bulgaria seized most of Yugoslav Macedonia.

Above: Stylishly dressed—for a partisan leader—Josip Broz Tito, leader of Yugoslavia for thirty-five years. In this 1945 picture, he is inspecting partisan positions in the Yugoslav mountains with an aide in tow. President of Yugoslavia after the war, he held the state together through a combination of suppression and personal charisma. Upon his death in 1980 it took only ten years for the country to break apart into the various ethnic units of which it was comprised.

Below: A Brigade commander of the Waffen SS unit recruited from the Cetniks (right). *The Yugoslav population fractured into many different ideological units, with parties on all sides either sup-porting or opposing the German occupation. The groups spent almost as much time fighting each other as the anti-German resistance did fighting the Germans.*

Utasha Government in Croatia—German Allies

Croatia was proclaimed an independent republic under the Utasha party. The new state also included the Serbian-dominated region of Bosnia and became a loyal German ally, providing troops and other support to the German anti-Communist war against the Soviet Union.

Guerrilla War—Led by Croat Josip Tito

The creation of the pro-German state and the division of the nation sparked large-scale revolts in all parts of the country. Serbian nationalists, called Cetniks, waged guerrilla warfare against Croatia, while nationalist Croats waged war against the Serbs. Not all Croats supported the pro-German government. The largest anti-German partisan army was led by the Croat Communist leader, Josip Broz Tito.

By 1942, Tito’s army had won de facto control of a large part of central Bosnia and founded a provisional government. This immediately sparked conflict with the Serbian nationalist Cetniks, and the two groups spent almost as much time fighting each other as they did the Germans or the Croat Utasha government.

The Yugoslav government in exile—which had fled the German invasion—then declared Tito’s provisional government illegal, declaring that the only official resistance movement was being run by the Cetniks. Despite this, Tito's guerrillas went on to occupy large parts of the country, aided from 1943 onward by Allied troops. Allied mediation ensured that Tito was recognized by the Yugoslav government in exile. By October 1944, German troops had been cleared from almost the entire country by Tito's forces.

One Party State under Tito 1945–1980

In March 1945 a new government was officially formed with Tito as president. In August that year the monarchy was abolished, and in November elections were held. These were boycotted by all but the Communist-led United National Front, which, unsurprisingly, then became the government. That same month the newly elected parliament declared Yugoslavia a republic. The new Yugoslav state was officially Communist, but was unusual in that it had never been physically occupied by invading Soviet Army forces during World War II (unlike Eastern Europe).

As a result, the Yugoslavian Communist government was more independent than the other Communist Eastern European states, which had Stalinism imposed by force. Tito remained as absolute ruler, and through sheer force and personality held together the Yugoslav state for the entire length of his stay in office, which was only ended by his death in 1980. Even though Tito had kept the country unified, it had been achieved at the cost of suppressing the various ethnic groups. After his death, the old tensions reemerged as strongly as ever. These tensions, combined with the collapse of the economy caused by the implementation of Tito's own peculiar form of Communism, set the stage for the final breakup of the Yugoslav state which plunged all of the constituent states into a bloody civil war, spurred on by the numerous racial and religious divisions.

Ethnic Albanians Revolt in Kosovo

In 1968 the region of Serbia known as Kosovo had been granted a measure of autonomy after the majority of inhabitants of the region, ethnic Albanians, had started large-scale riots. In the early 1980s, Kosovo was once again the first to erupt into open revolt.

The Yugoslav government, dominated by Serbians who were always numerically superior to any of the other groups, reacted with a wave of suppression that succeeded in bringing the region firmly back under Serbian control until the last years of the twentieth century.

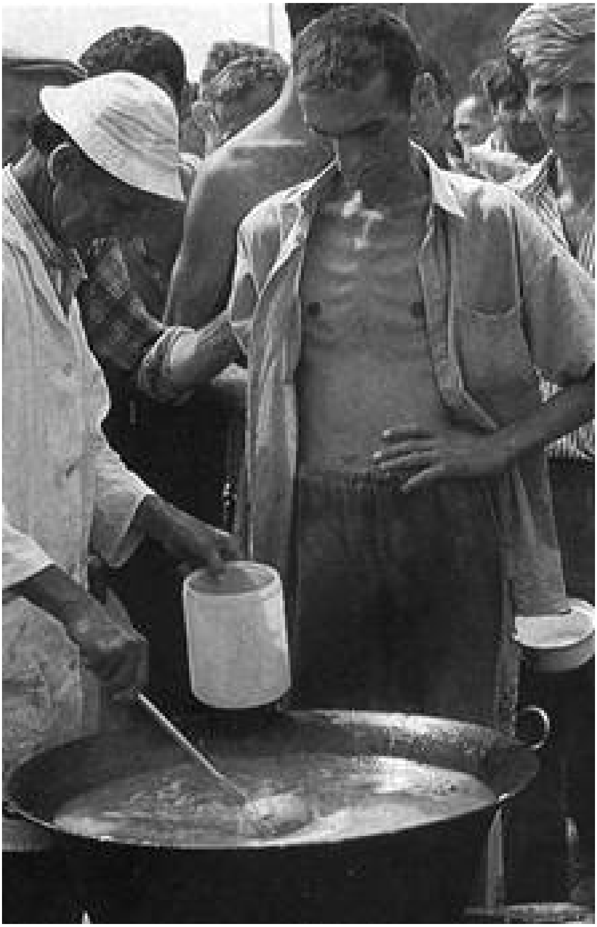
Croatia and Slovenia Declare Independence

The collapse of the Soviet Union in 1989 saw the Communist Party in Yugoslavia give up the one party rule system. A new constitution was drawn up which allowed each of the ethnic regions to elect its own government and for the country's presidency to be rotated to each of the region's elected heads. In May 1991 Serbia objected to the system of a rotating presidency, particularly when it came to the Croats' turn to occupy the position. The impasse caused both the Croatian and Slovenian governments to declare independence in June that year.

War and Dissolution 1991–1992

The 1991 declarations of independence sparked yet another major conflict in Yugoslavia. The Serb-dominated government ordered the army (which was also mainly Serbian in makeup) to suppress the break-away governments. The Serbian attack on Slovene failed after a ten day war, and a seven month war with Croatia ended in a cease-fire after a third of that region was seized by Serbia.

RACIAL MIX OF PRESENT-DAY YUGOSLAVIA



A Muslim prisoner receives his meager rations in a Serbian-run camp, 1992. Pictures such as these sent shock waves around the world as an indication of how desperate the war in the former Yugoslavia had become. Of particular interest are the features of the Muslim prisoners in this picture—they display distinctly white racial features. Note, for example, the prisoner second in line (standing directly behind the man with the open shirt)—his features are extremely Nordic in subracial character. The population making up the former Yugoslav Republic is a great mix of Nordic, Alpine, and Turkish, creating a volatile stew which periodically erupts into violence.

Macedonia, Bosnia, Herzegovina Declare Independence

Events then moved quickly to break up what remained of the Yugoslavian state. The government of the Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia declared its independence in September 1991, but a dispute with Greece over the republic's name forestalled international recognition of the new republic. In March 1992, Bosnia and

Herzegovina also declared their independence from Yugoslavia. The reality that one third of their inhabitants were ethnic Serbians provoked a civil war, with Croats, Muslims, and Serbs all seizing the opportunity to attack each other. Finally, in April 1992, Serbia and Montenegro united and declared themselves the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

CROATIAN RACIAL COMPOSITION VISIBLE IN SOLDIERS' FACE

The racial composition of Croatia's population during the last part of the twentieth century is clear visible in this photograph of a military parade in 1992.

Immigration Curtailed by Conflict

The conflicts in the former Yugoslav Republic ensured that the region was not targeted by any legal or illegal immigration, and so the region retains much of its original population makeup.

However, a significant portion of the population shows traces of the hundreds of years of nonwhite Turkish Ottoman occupation. This admixture is culturally reflected in the fact that a large proportion of the population are Muslims. In practical terms this means that as much as 20 percent of the population may be of mixed ancestry, with the notable exception of the Croatians (who remain predominantly of Nordic/Alpine subracial stock).

Race Versus Ethnicity

The importance of race versus ethnicity as a determinant in the destiny of nations is apparent when the Swiss, Czechoslovakian, and Yugoslavian approaches to settling conflict are reviewed.

Switzerland and Czechoslovakia, both being almost racially homogeneous, but ethnically divided, have managed to settle their differences constitutionally; while Yugoslavians, divided ethnically and racially, have been forced to carve out their living areas through violent conflict.

CHAPTER 34: The Sixth Great Race War—the Ottoman Holocaust 1300–1919

The invasion of Europe by the Ottoman Turks was without doubt the single most prolonged attack on Europe by any nonwhite nation in history.

Starting from the beginning of the thirteenth century and lasting right through to the start of the twentieth, this attack was sustained by a group of racially-mixed Muslims, driven by a fanaticism molded in their religious worldview. They occupied vast stretches of central and southern Europe and were twice turned back at the gates of Vienna in their attempts to seize all of Europe.

The vast impact and legacy of the Ottomans upon central and southern Europe is crucial to an understanding of the racial and cultural mix which has shaped present-day southeastern Europe.

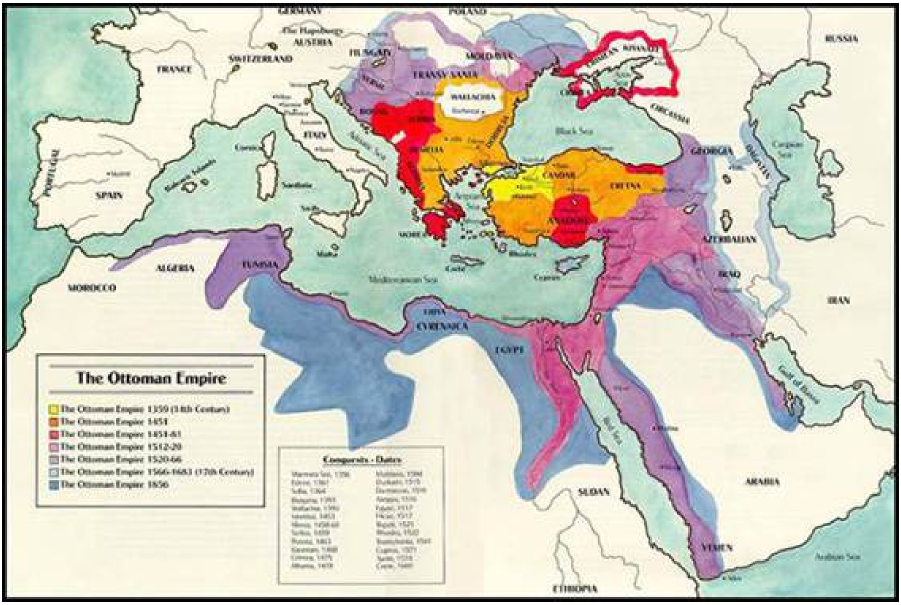
The Seljuk Turks—Mixed-Race Muslim Wave

The land today known as Turkey passed through many hands during the course of history. First home to some of the original white tribes and later Indo-Europeans, it fell under Greek and then Roman rule, ending the first Christian millennium under the control of the Eastern Roman, or Byzantine Empire.

Islam, which emerged in Saudi Arabia after 734, had expanded by violent conquest during the three hundred years following. It had seized almost all of the former Byzantine lands in the Middle East. This attack on Christian lands was the primary cause of the Crusades, which were a European attempt to turn back the Islamic tide—a counterattack which ultimately failed.

By 1100 the Islamic invaders, then under the leadership of a group known as the Seljuk Turks, had seized much of present-day Turkey and forcibly converted it to Islam. By the beginning of the thirteenth century, the Seljuks lost their position of leadership to a new Islamic force led by an individual named Osman. The followers of Osman became known as Osmanlilar (Turkish for “those associated with Osman”), or, as they became known in the West, the Ottomans.

FROM THE GATES OF VIENNA TO THE NILE—THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE


GERMANY
POLAND
The Hapsburgs
AUSTRIA
RUSSIA
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
HUNGARY
MOLDAVIA
TRANSYLVANIA
WALLACHIA
BOSNIA
SERBIA
CRIMEA
CIRCASSIA
Black Sea
ITALY
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicily
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Balearic Islands
Adriatic Sea
RUMELIA
BULGARIA
GEORGIA
Caspian Sea
ANATOLIA
Aegean Sea
MOREA
Malta
Crete
Rhodes
Cyprus
AZERBAIJAN
IRAQ
IRAN
ALGERIA
MOROCCO
TUNISIA
Mediterranean Sea
LIBYA
CYRENAICA
EGYPT
Red Sea
SUDAN
ARABIA
YEMEN
ETHIOPIA
Arabian Sea
The Ottoman Empire
The Ottoman Empire 1359 (14th Century)
The Ottoman Empire 1451
The Ottoman Empire 1451-81
The Ottoman Empire 1512-20
The Ottoman Empire 1520-66
The Ottoman Empire 1566-1683 (17th Century)
The Ottoman Empire 1856
Conquests - Dates

The Ottoman Empire at its height: from the outskirts of Vienna to Baghdad. Major battle sites and their dates are shown. The Turks were only finally driven out of the last European countries in the Balkans at the beginning of the First World War, and from their Middle Eastern possessions during that war.

Muslims Reach Gates of Constantinople 1330

The steady advance of the conquering Islamic hordes compressed the Byzantine Empire's territory with each passing century. Finally, by 1330, the Ottomans had reached the Aegean Sea and Muslim soldiers stood at the Bosporus Straits, directly opposite the citadel of Constantinople. The city, founded by the Roman emperor Constantine, was able to hold out as a lonely Christian citadel in a sea of ever increasing mixed-race Muslim lands for another 110 years.

First Ottoman Landing on European Soil 1354

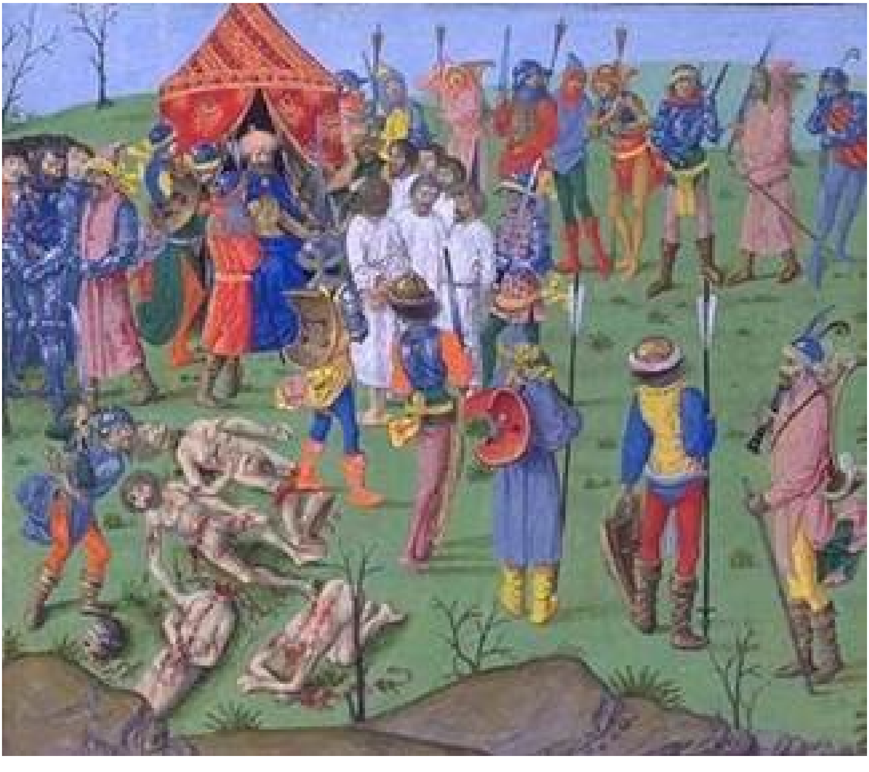
Ironically, it was a Byzantine emperor, John VI Kantakouzenos, who first invited the Ottomans onto European soil. He hired a detachment of their soldiers as a mercenary army to fight a rival claimant to the Byzantine throne. Once their task was completed, they simply refused to return to the Muslim-held territory. Worse was to come: the Muslim force then attacked and seized the city of Gallipoli in 1354. This provided the Muslims with their first prize on the European side of the Dardanelles Strait, a region which has remained Turkish to this day.

The Ottoman Invasion of Bulgaria

Spurred on by the success of the seizure of Gallipoli, the Ottoman Muslims poured troops into the newly established beachhead. From there they immediately attacked northwest into the Balkans, where they first defeated a Bulgarian army and then invaded Serbia, defeating that country's army at the Battle of Kosovo in 1389. Sporadic fighting between the Serbs and the Turks continued till 1459, when the Ottomans captured the city of Smederevo. After this defeat, Serbia fell under direct Ottoman rule.

The Battle of Kosovo became famous as a prime example of Ottoman brutality. During the battle, a Serbian soldier killed the Ottoman emperor of the time, one Murad. After the battle was over, the Ottomans tortured and executed the Serbian prince, Lazar, who had been captured alive, as a reprisal.

TURKS MASSACRE WHITE PRISONERS NICOPOLIS 1396



White prisoners are executed by the Ottomans after the Battle of Nicopolis in 1396. The white soldiers, drawn from all over Europe, could expect no *mercy if captured by the invading nonwhites, and thousands met their end in this way.*

White Resistance Fails—Huge Losses at Battles of Nicopolis and Varna

In 1396 the Hungarian king Sigismund drew white Christian armies from all over Europe and led a determined counterattack against the Ottomans. This effort led to the Battle of Nicopolis (Nikopol) on the Danube River, which saw the Europeans utterly routed. The Muslims celebrated their victory by massacring several thousand white prisoners in a legendary bloodthirsty orgy lasting several hours. The Islamic invaders seemed invincible as they pushed deeper and deeper into Europe, meeting increasingly feeble resistance along the way. In 1439 Serbia was formally annexed to the Ottoman Empire, and in 1440 the city of Belgrade was besieged.

Four years later, a renewed European counterattack was once again defeated at the Battle of Varna in Bulgaria. This battle was vividly described in a letter from Aeneas Sylvius Piccolomini, later Pope Pius II, to Filippo Maria Visconti, Duke of Milan. It was written immediately after the battle.

"Our men did not shrink from joining battle, which began on the feast of St. Martin itself, 11 November 1444. So fierce and savage was the fighting that rarely could such a battle have ever been fought between mortal men!

"For a long time its outcome was uncertain; it was contested with equal force by both sides. As long as our men fought for Christ and our opponents for Mohammed, enthusiasm for battle was such that fifteen thousand were wounded on each side. So long as the battle was equal, neither side wished to stop.

The more blood that was spilled, the keener the hand-to-hand fighting. In the end both sides were drained of strength: limbs were so enfeebled that they had the strength neither to wield swords nor to bend bows.

"Both sides were thus forced to be still for the best part of an hour until their strength was resumed and their spirits returned. Then the battle was restarted.

"In the end the Turks won because they were more courageous, or because they were destined to win, or because they were greater in number. Those who escaped from the field say that no battle as bloody has been

fought anywhere in Europe within the memory of our fathers. They also say that no fewer Turks than Hungarians fell, and, if the rumor is correct, eighty thousand men died in this battle.”

It seemed as though nothing was going to stop the nonwhite invaders from marching right into the heart of Europe.

The Janissaries—the “Stolen White Children”

One of the more remarkable ways in which the Ottomans kept their fighting strength up was through a unit of soldiers known as the Janissaries. The Janissaries were the Ottoman’s elite forces—and they were whites.

One of the first Ottoman leaders to occupy European continental soil, Emir Orhan (1326–1359), issued an edict to the conquered Europeans in the Balkans that they must hand over to the Ottomans one thousand male babies “with faces white and shining” each and every year.

The youths were brought before the Ottoman sultan, and the best, in terms of physique, intelligence, and other qualities, were selected for education in the palace school. There they were raised as Muslims, learned Ottoman Turkish, Persian, and Arabic, and were compelled to serve the Ottomans in the unit known as the Janissaries. With all personal knowledge of their origins lost, they became the elite armed unit within the Ottoman Empire.

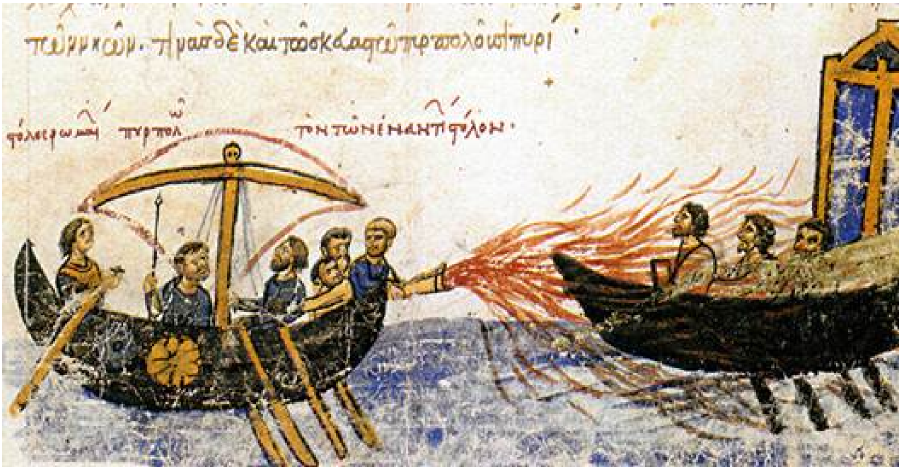
The yearly tribute of one thousand white male babies (reminiscent of the demand by the Moors for white virgins from the unfortunate Goths in Spain) continued for an astonishing three hundred years until 1648. During this time three hundred thousand whites were absorbed into the Ottoman hierarchy (and into the Turkish elite’s bloodstream).

It is no exaggeration to say that they sustained the Ottoman Empire in Europe for much of its existence, playing a not inconsiderable role in many of the great victories of that empire.

By 1574, the Janissaries had twenty thousand men in their ranks, and by 1826 they numbered some 135,000. Although the best troops, they were also the ones most likely to rebel and uprisings against their Ottoman masters occurred at regular intervals.

Finally, a particularly ferocious rebellion in 1826 saw the unit disbanded and a large number of the Janissaries killed. The survivors were dispersed and absorbed into the Turkish population, although remnants can still be occasionally seen among Turkish individuals, mostly among the upper classes of that society.

“GREEK FIRE”—SECRET WEAPON AGAINST THE OTTOMANS



In 717, the Muslims under Caliph Velid launched a furious attack upon Constantinople in an attempt to break the whites. However, the Byzantines had a secret weapon—Greek fire, which appeared to have been some sort of early flame thrower. The exact composition was held so sacred that it was never revealed to outsiders and its secret preparation died with Constantinople. With the aid of Greek fire, the nonwhite army was defeated at the very gates of Constantinople. This contemporary print shows Greek fire being used.

Jews Privileged under Ottoman Rule

Another factor that the Ottoman Empire had in common with the Moorish occupation of Spain was the privileged position granted to Jews. During the Moorish and Turkish occupations of Europe the Jews experienced their first real peace since the Diaspora in 70 AD.

Many thousands of Jews who had fled Spain during the time of the Spanish Inquisition settled in the Ottoman Empire. They once again rose to hold important positions, and the Jewish holy books are filled with praise for the Ottoman Turks.

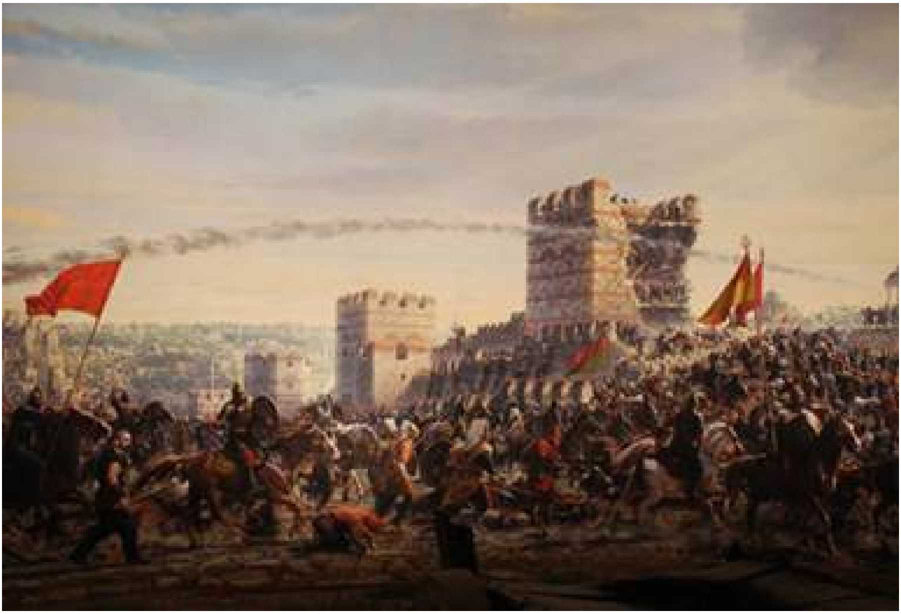
This favored position of the Jews under the Turkish and Moorish occupiers had an important consequence: it heightened anti-Semitism among Europeans who then associated Jews with the Muslim invaders.

The Fall of Constantinople 1453

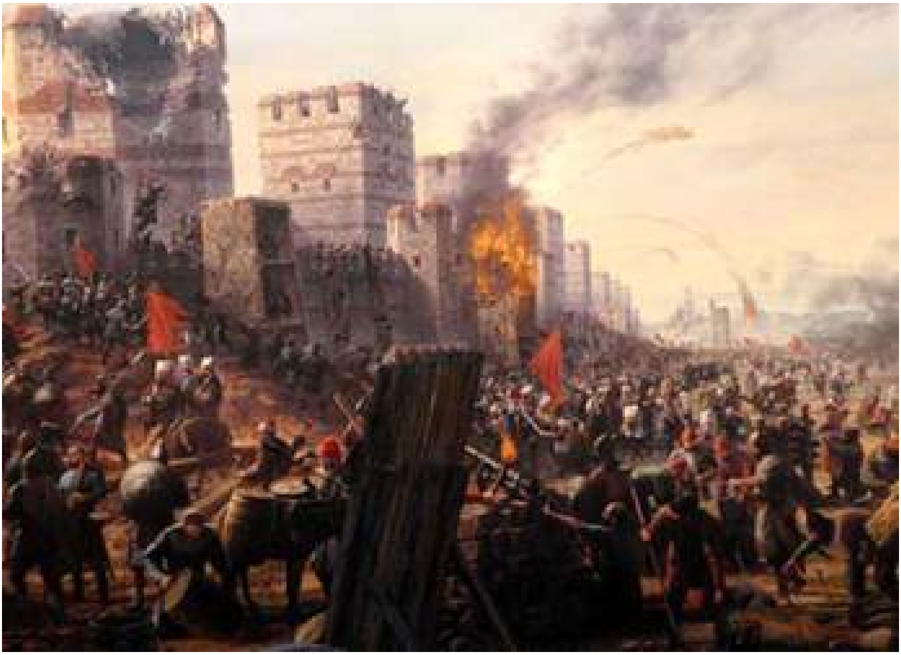
The city of Constantinople grimly held on as the Ottoman invaders marched through the Balkans. Situated far behind the Muslim front line, the city grew weaker and weaker with each passing year. The citadel had never been the same since the out-of-control armies of the Fourth Crusade had sacked it. By the fifteenth century the citizens were, racially speaking, almost indistinguishable from the mixed-race Ottoman soldiers surrounding the walls. Only the continued infiltration of white Christian knights from western Europe resupplied the city's European racial stock—but even this supply grew less and less as time went on.

Finally, in 1453, the Ottoman army launched a mighty effort to break the city. After bombarding the city walls with cannon fire, a determined overnight attack saw the city fall at last—the official end of the Eastern Roman Empire, defended only by seven thousand white knights from all over Europe against a Turkish army numbering in the hundreds of thousands.

CONSTANTINOPLE FALLS AFTER ONE THOUSAND YEARS



The fall of the Eastern Roman Empire. On May 28, 1453, the Turks began their final assault on the city of Constantinople. With an army in the hundreds of thousands, the city was defended by only some seven thousand knights drawn from all over Europe under the command of a Genoan, Giustiniani. After a furious all night battle, the walls of the city were *breached at dawn by the attackers. All the whites in the city were massacred or sold into slavery, with a mere handful escaping to tell the dreadful tale. Constantinople was made into a major Muslim center and became known as Istanbul.*



CONSTANTINOPLE'S SILENT WALLS TODAY

If ruins could talk, what tales they would tell. Many parts of the walls of

Constantinople, which withstood countless attacks for nearly one thousand years and which were only broken in 1453, are still visible today around the city of Istanbul.

The most prominent of the European defenders of Constantinople was the chief admiral of the northern Italian republic of Genoa, Giustiniani, who was placed in charge of the final defenses of the great walled city.

The Greek historian Kritovoulos, who wrote a contemporary history of the deeds of Mehmed II, the Ottoman emperor who led the assault on Constantinople, described in graphic detail the fearful last hours of the Eastern Roman Empire. When read alongside the diary of the Venetian ship's doctor, Nicolo Barbaro, who was present during the siege and recorded the terrible revenge exacted upon the remaining whites, an image of this epic period of history emerges: grim, brutal, and merciless.

Kritovoulos described the fall of Constantinople thus: *"On 28 May 1453, Mehmed began an inspection, on horseback, of his companies . . . it was late afternoon, with the hour of sunset already approaching, so that the sun was upon the besiegers' backs and in the face of the enemy defenders, as the Sultan had planned. At this point he gave the orders . . . for the trumpets to sound the attack . . .*

"To begin with, each side attacked the other with powerful volleys: arrows from the archers, stones from the slingers, iron and lead shot from the cannons and guns; as they got nearer, they also pelted each other, and were pelted, mercilessly and furiously, with axes and javelins.

"The battle in this way continued through most of the night, both sides putting up a strong, brave fight. Giustinianni, the famous Genoese soldier who was entrusted with the city's defense, and the Byzantines maintained a noticeable advantage, safeguarding the stockade and repelling the assault bravely . . .

"The other [Turkish] generals . . . meanwhile . . . also made an assault on the wall by land and with their ships, by sea. They mounted a strong attack . . . [with] ladders, bridges, wooden towers and all kinds of engines, which they put up against the wall.

"But the Greeks strongly repelled them and pushed them off vigorously. It was a brave defense: they prevailed in the fight and showed true virtue: for nothing that happened—not the hunger that oppressed them, not their lack of sleep, nor the continuous unstinting battle or the wounds, murders and deaths suffered by their dear ones before their very

eyes—succeeded in turning them even slightly from their initial vigor and resolve. When Sultan Mehmed saw that the companies he had sent were getting the worst of the battle and making no significant progress, he was furious.

"He decided that the situation was to be endured no longer, and immediately sent in all the companies he had reserved for later, his best-armed, hardiest and bravest men, who are also greatly superior to the others in experience and strength. They were the thoroughbreds of his army: heavy infantry, archers, spear throwers and the company that formed his personal entourage consisting of the so-called Janissaries and others. He cried out, exhorting them that now was the moment to show their virtue and himself led the way to the wall as far as the fosse."

Barbaro described in detail the great Turkish gun which finally breached the walls of the city:

"And they [the Turks] brought up the huge cannon, which could throw a stone weighing five hundred and forty-five kilos, and sufficient arrows to fire against the whole length of the walls . . . an hour before daybreak the Turkish Lord fired his great cannon, and the missile fell on the defenses we had made and razed them to the ground, and because of the great smoke made by the cannon it was impossible to see anything.

"But the Turks began to come in behind the smoke, and the Greeks and Venetians valiantly drove them out, and many of them, indeed almost all of them, were killed before they could enter the fortifications.

"At this time, because the Greeks had the best of this engagement and in truth believed themselves victorious over the pagans, we Christians were all greatly consoled. Having been driven back from the fortifications, the Turks fired their great cannon once more."

Kritovoulos takes up the story again: *"At this point he [Mehmed] ordered the archers, slingers and gunmen to stand some way off and shoot at the front line of men on the stockade and the broken wall. The other heavy infantry and shield-bearers he ordered to cross the fosse and mount a violent assault on the stockade. They went at it with a great terrifying cry of rage and fury, like madmen, and, as they were youthful and strong, and full of courage, they never let up but assaulted the stockade bravely . . . Giustinianni and entourage, and the Byzantines, who were in that part outside the walls, inside the stockade, were putting up a manful fight, holding back the Turkish surge.*

"Giustinianni was fatally injured by a shot from a firearm, which pierced right through his armor to his chest. He fell on the spot and was

carried to his tent, in a bad state. All the men around him broke up in dismay at the event, and abandoned the stockade where they had been fighting. Sultan Mehmed, who happened to be fighting nearby, noticed that the stockade and place where the wall was broken were now unmanned and that some men were secretly making off, while those who remained were very few. From this he realized there had been a desertion and that the wall had been abandoned, and he immediately cried out, 'The city is ours . . . The men are running from us: they cannot keep at their posts . . .' So saying he himself led the attack. The Turks poured into the city: the rest of the army followed with a violent surge then dispersed throughout the city. But the Sultan stood before the great wall, surveying events, for day was already beginning to dawn."

Barbaro recorded the last minutes of the last Roman Emperor, Constantine XI, as follows:

"Although he [Constantine XI] *clearly saw with his own eyes the danger that threatened the city, and had the opportunity to save himself—as well as many people encouraging him to do so—he refused, preferring to die with his country and his subjects.*

"Indeed, he chose to die first, so that he might avoid the sight of the city being taken and of its inhabitants being either savagely slaughtered or shamefully led away into slavery. When he saw that the enemy were forcing him back, and surging through the broken down wall into the city, it is said that he uttered in a great voice, these last words, 'The city is taken; and should I still live?' With that he thrust himself into the midst of the enemy and was cut down."

Barbaro then went on to relate the horror of the sack of the city, scenes which were repeated all over central and southern Europe:

"On 29 May 1453, the Turks entered Constantinople at daybreak. Before they entered the city, the confusion of those Turks and of the Christians was so great that they met face to face, and so many died that the dead bodies would have filled twenty carts.

"The Turks put the city to sword as they came, and everyone they found in their way they slashed with their scimitars, women and men, old and young, of every condition, and this slaughter continued from dawn until midday.

"Those Italian merchants who escaped hid in caves under the ground, but they were found by the Turks, and were all taken captive and sold as slaves. When those of the Turkish fleet saw with their own eyes that the Christians had lost Constantinople, that the flag of Sultan Mehmed had

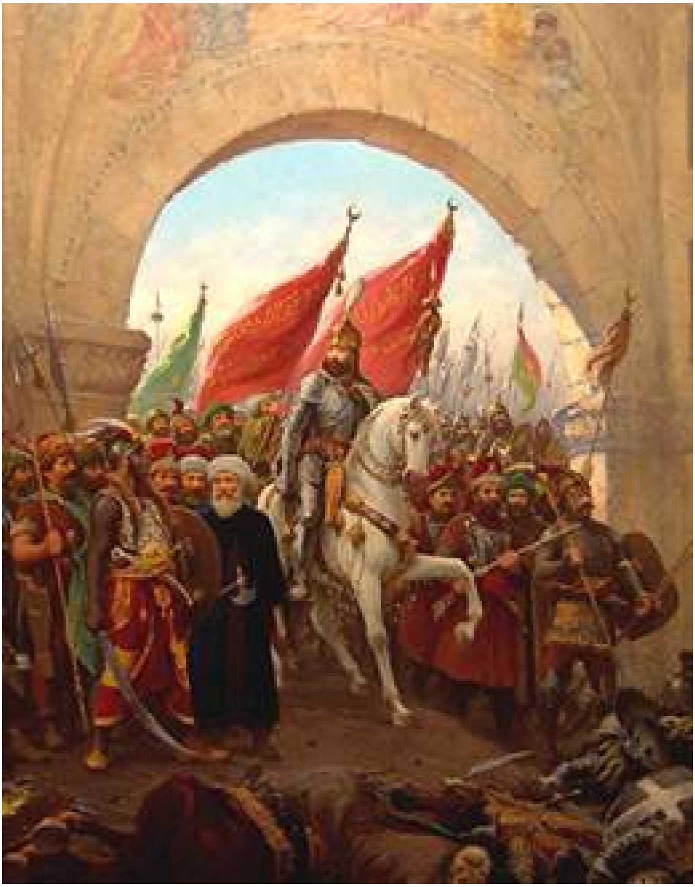
been hoisted over the highest tower in the city, and that the emperor's flags had been cut down and lowered, then all those in the seventy galleys went ashore . . .

"They sought out the convents and all the nuns were taken to the ships and abused and dishonored by the Turks, and they were all sold at auction as slaves to be taken to Turkey, and similarly the young women were all dishonored and sold at auction; some preferred to throw themselves into wells and drown. These Turks loaded their ships with people and a great treasure. They had this custom: when they entered a house, they would at once raise a flag with their own device, and when other Turks saw such a flag raised, no other Turk would for the world enter that house but would go looking for a house that had no flag; it was the same with all the convents and churches.

"As I understand it, it seems there were some two hundred thousand of these flags on the houses of Constantinople . . . these flags flew above the houses for the whole of that day, and for all of that day the Turks made a great slaughter of Christians in the city. Blood flowed on the ground as though it were raining."

Constantinople was made the new Ottoman Muslim capital and became known as Istanbul. The name change wasn't made official until 1930. Spurred on by this great victory, the Ottomans proceeded to seize all of Greece, Albania, and Bosnia. A plan to invade Italy was only aborted after the Ottoman emperor of the time died halfway through the planning.

MUSLIM EMPEROR ENTERS CONSTANTINOPLE



The Ottoman emperor, Mehmet II, enters the main gate of Constantinople, May 29, 1453. The Eastern Roman Empire was at an end, crushed under a tidal wave of invading mixed-race Middle Easterners, as illustrated in this painting.

War at Sea—Portuguese Confront Muslims

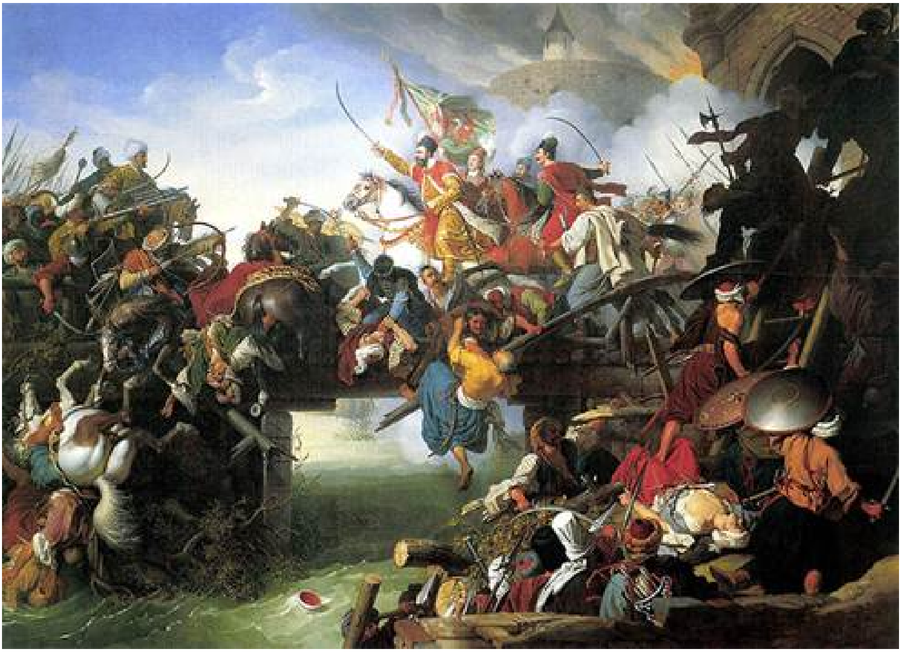
By 1500, European explorers had discovered a sea route to the East around the southernmost part of Africa. As European shipping then spread into the Indian Ocean, conflict between the Muslim Arab ships and European fleets became inevitable.

As the Portuguese had initially led Europe during the Age of Exploration, they became the first targets of Arab aggression. An Ottoman sea fleet was built especially to destroy the Portuguese fleets and several engagements followed. Both sides had victories and defeats, and the war at sea between Europe and the Ottomans dragged on inconclusively.

In 1571 an alliance of European nations destroyed Turkish sea power in the Mediterranean at the Battle of Lepanto. The two fleets, together comprising at least 500 ships and about 100,000 men, fought an epic five hour battle which ended in a great European victory. Around 80 Turkish ships were sunk and a further 130 captured.

This was a significant turning point as it marked the first time that the Ottomans had been decisively defeated. The psychological effect of this victory upon Europe was marked, and exemplified by the Spanish writer Cervantes who noted in his novel, *Don Quixote,* that the battle *"revealed to all the nations of the world the error under which they had been laboring in believing that the Turks were invincible at sea."*

TURKS SIEGE AND DESTROY SZIGETVAR, HUNGARY 1566



The destruction of the town of Szigetvar in Hungary on September 7, 1566 is depicted in this woodcut dating from that time. The heavily fortified town fell to the invading Ottomans after a massive siege. The survivors paid dearly for their resistance and were executed out of hand.

On land, however, the struggle between the various white nations and the Turks continued unabated. The Ottomans had been turned back in an attempt to take Belgrade in 1456, but were successful in a renewed assault in 1521. Five years later the Turks inflicted a crushing defeat on a hastily assembled Hungarian army at the Battle of Mohacs, during which the Hungarian king and more than twenty thousand white soldiers were killed. The Turks went on to capture the city of Buda (later to join with a neighboring city, Pest, to become the city of Budapest) in 1526.

By 1483, the Turks had also conquered most of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The two territories remained provinces of the Ottoman Empire for the next four hundred years, although unsuccessful uprisings against the Turks occurred frequently during the nineteenth century. Macedonia, bordering on Greece and Turkey, was one of the first territories to fall to the Ottoman invasion, and remained under Turkish rule until 1912.

The First Siege of Vienna Fails as Turks Seize the Ukraine and Crete

After the capture of Belgrade in 1521 and the fall of the island of Rhodes the next year, the path into Austria lay open to the Ottomans. By 1529, the Muslim armies had marched to the gates of Vienna. A desperate two month siege followed, but the Ottomans failed to break the city's defences. Exhausted, the Muslim invaders were forced to retreat south into Hungary.

It took nearly forty years for the Ottomans to go on the offensive again. In 1571, they seized the island of Cyprus and began raiding the still emerging state of Russia. In 1661, the Ottomans launched a new land offensive and captured much of what is today the Ukraine, and in 1669 they conquered the island of Crete.

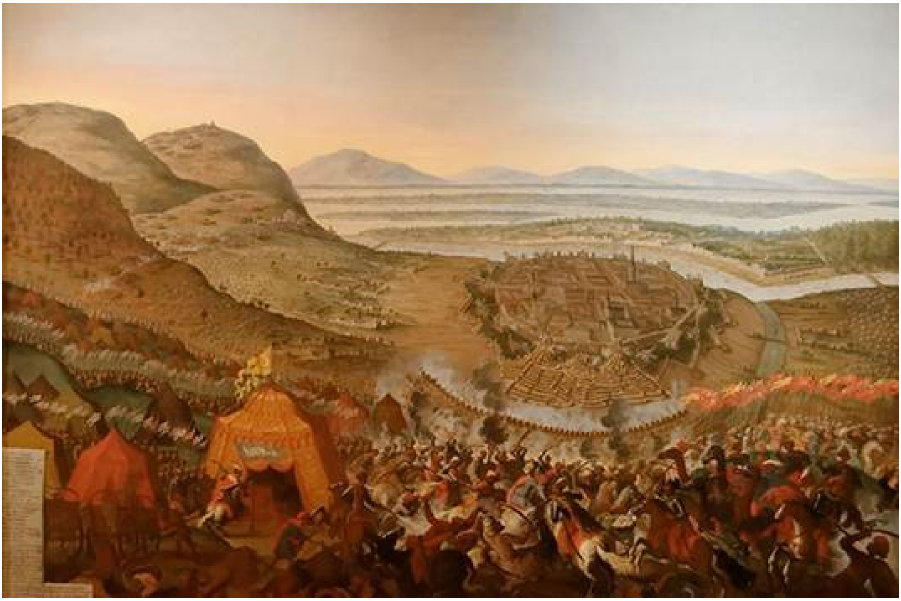
Finally the Muslims felt strong enough to launch another attempt to seize the city of Vienna, and marched another great army north in 1683.

The Second Siege of Vienna—Ottomans Routed 1683

The renewed offensive on Vienna was seen as a critical battle which would determine whether or not all of Europe would fall to the Ottomans. As a result, a rare display of European unity took place, and an army comprising several different nationalities assembled to defend the Austrian city.

The siege began on July 14, 1683, with the invading Muslim Ottoman army numbering about 180,000. Opposing them, although not all in one group, and some only joining the fray later, were some 84,450 European troops from Austria, Germany, and the Polish Lithuanian commonwealth. However, by the time the Muslim army had actually encamped outside Vienna's city walls, most of the civilian population had fled to Linz. There were only eleven thousand troops inside the city, five thousand civilians, and 370 cannons.

TURKISH ATTACK ON VIENNA ROUTED 1683



The Turks are defeated at the gates of Vienna, 1683. The walls of the city are clearly visible, as is St. Stephen's Cathedral, still a Vienna landmark to this day

The commander of the forces inside the city, Ernst Rüdiger Graf von Starhemberg, turned down an offer of surrender from the besieging Muslims. He had heard the news about Perchtoldsdorf, a town south of Vienna. There, the citizens had handed over the keys of the city after being given a similar choice and were then slaughtered by the Muslim attackers. The Muslim army's leader, Kara Mustafa Pasha, concentrated on digging tunnels under the massive city walls with the intention of blowing them up. This tactic was partially successful, and by early September, he had managed to create several breaches in the walls.

The defenders, suffering terribly from lack of food and sleep, prepared to make their last stand in the city streets. However, at the critical moment on September 6, a Polish–Lithuanian army under the command of the Polish hero Jan Sobieksi, having marched south to aid the city, met up with Austrian forces preparing a relief column. Additional German troops from Saxony, Bavaria, Baden, Franconia, and Swabia also arrived, and the combined army, known as the "Holy League," took position on a hill outside Vienna on September 12, announcing their arrival with bonfires.

The Muslims had hoped to take Vienna before the European reinforcements arrived, but they ran out of time. Their final detonation, which would have provided access to the city, was discovered just in time, and defused. Simultaneously, the Polish infantry attacked on the Muslims' right flank. Instead of focusing on the battle with the relief army, the Muslims tried to force their way into the city. After twelve hours of continuous fighting, the Poles held the high ground.

The twenty thousand-strong Holy League cavalry attacked late in the afternoon, making history as one of the largest cavalry charges ever. Led by Sobieski, three thousand Polish heavy lancers—the famed Winged Hussars—broke the Muslim line and plunged them into chaos. The Vienna garrison then stormed out of the city, and attacked the Muslims, forcing them to fight from both sides. After three hours of fighting, the Muslims were forced to retreat. Vienna had been saved, and Europe had been spared Islamification once again.

Although the Muslims fled in disarray and had at least fifteen thousand dead and wounded, they still managed to slaughter all their Austrian prisoners before leaving the outskirts of Vienna.

Prince Eugene of Savoy Inflicts Further Defeats upon Ottomans

The Europeans pressed home their advantage as the Ottomans fell back in confusion. In 1697, a new Austrian commander, Prince Eugene of Savoy, defeated a huge Muslim army at Senta in northern Serbia, inflicting massive casualties upon the invaders. After this setback, the Ottomans were forced to sue for peace. In terms of the Treaty of Karlowitz, the Ottomans gave up substantial parts of Eastern Europe and the city of Belgrade to the victorious white army.

War with Russia—Peter the Great Defeated

The next white nation to wage war on the Ottomans was Russia. The first great Russian–Turkish conflict ended in defeat for the Russians, with Tsar Peter the Great's forces beaten back by a mighty Turkish army at the Battle of Prut River in 1711.

This victory emboldened the Turks. Breaking the terms of the Treaty of Karlowitz, the Turks attacked Belgrade, taking the city once again in 1739. By threatening Vienna, the Muslims were able to negotiate a peace treaty from the European powers which allowed them to keep much of their newest Balkan conquests.

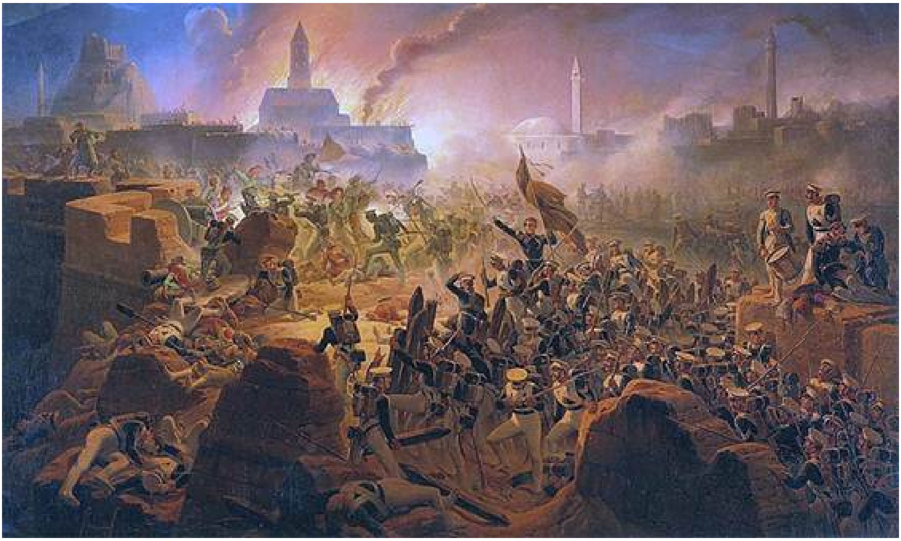
The Russians plotted their revenge and three years later launched a surprise attack on the Ottomans, inflicting a decisive defeat upon the Muslim forces in Romania in 1714.

Ottomans Hire French Mercenaries

During the Napoleonic Wars in Europe, the French invaded Egypt to prevent Britain from taking a beachhead in the Middle East. The rulers of Egypt, an elite branch of the ruling Ottoman Empire, resisted, but were easily defeated by the French. Although the French had been motivated by a desire to attack British supply routes rather than an anti-Islamic crusade, the effect of a European invasion of Egypt was deeply felt within the Ottoman hierarchy. Combined with a stalemate in the Balkans and conflict with Russia, a French attack made it seem as if the white Christians were now attacking from all points of the compass.

The Ottoman Empire had failed to keep pace with technological developments in Europe. Their collapse before the French in Egypt had shown that in terms of equipment and training they were no longer a match for the European powers. As a result, the Ottomans hired large numbers of French military veteran mercenaries to establish military training schools in Turkey.

RUSSIANS SEIZE AKHALTSIKHE BACK FROM OTTOMANS



The city of Akhaltsikhe was first seized by the invading Ottomans in 1576. Located in the south of the former Soviet Union, the area now known as

Georgia, the city became the center of the Akhaltsikhe province of the Ottoman Empire in 1628. It remained under Ottoman rule until 1828, when it was seized back by nine thousand Russians under Field Marshal Paskevich during the Russo–Turkish War of 1828–1829. The small Russian force decisively defeated the thirty thousand Ottoman defenders and in terms of the 1829 Treaty of Adrianople it was ceded to the Russian Empire.

Renewed White Assaults Spell Ottomans' End

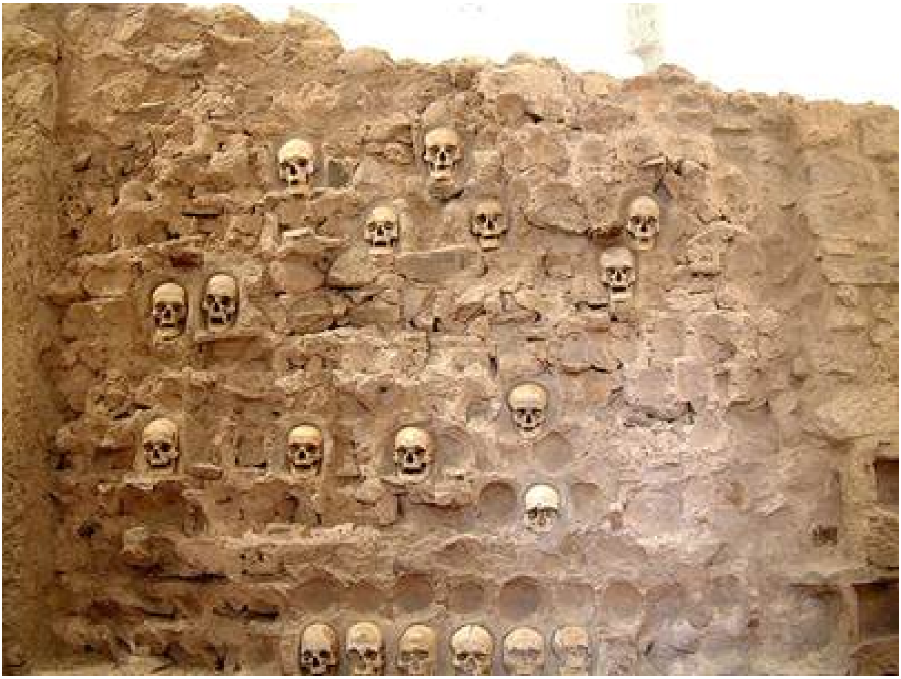
The improvement in the Ottoman Empire's armies could not halt the growing power of white resistance in southeastern Europe. After 345 years of subjugation, the Serbs launched a nine year long revolt in 1804, which was suppressed by the Turks in a brutal campaign. Undeterred, the Serbs launched yet another attempt to eject the Turks in 1815. This time they were successful and within a few months the Turks were driven out of most of Serbia and forced to grant that nation self-government. Following the Russian-Turkish wars of 1828 and 1829, Serbia gained even greater autonomy and the Ottomans withdrew all claims to Serbia in 1867.

Greece became independent in 1829 after launching military campaigns against the Ottomans, backed with material support from both Britain and Russia. Fifty years later, a rebellion in Bulgaria ended with at least fifteen thousand whites massacred by the Ottomans in an event which became known as the Bulgarian Atrocities.

Russo–Turkish War of 1877

Russia declared war once again on the Ottoman Empire in 1877. In a swift campaign, the Russians drove the Ottomans back to Constantinople and forced them to sign the Treaty of San Stefano in 1878, which stripped them of most of their European territories, including Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Thrace. Britain gained possession of Cyprus in return for a pledge to the sultan to aid the Ottomans if they needed military assistance in the future. This guarantee was never acted upon. The Ottoman Empire was now terminal. On all fronts, the European nations were on the counterattack. Tunisia was taken by the French in 1881 and Egypt (which had briefly been reoccupied by the Ottomans after Napoleon had left) was taken by the British in 1882.

OTTOMAN VENGEANCE—THE SKULL TOWER, CEGAR HILL, SERBIA



The Skull Tower is a monument to nineteenth century Serbian rebels against the Muslim invaders of that country. On May 31, 1809, on Cegar Hill, a few miles northeast of Nis, Serbian insurrectionists suffered their greatest defeat in the First Serbian Uprising against the Ottoman Empire (1804–1813). The insurrectionists' advance toward Niš was stopped here when the far stronger Muslim forces attacked. The battle was ended when the Serbian commander, Stevan Sindelic, sacrificially fired at his gunpowder depot in order to avoid surrendering to the Muslims. The resulting explosion caused the death of Sindelic, his men, and hundreds of Muslim soldiers. After the retreat of the Serbian rebel army, the Muslim commander of Niš, Hurshid Pasha, ordered the heads of the killed Serbians to be mounted on a tower to serve as a warning to any other would-be revolutionaries.

In all, 952 skulls were included, with the skull of Sindelic placed at the top. The scalps from the skulls were stuffed with cotton and sent to Istanbul as proof for Sultan Mahmud II. The tower stood in the open air until the liberation of Niš in 1878. By that time, much of the tower had deteriorated from weather conditions or from the removal of skulls for burial by relatives of killed rebels.

In 1892, the chapel was built to enclose what was left of the tower. Today, only fifty-eight skulls remain, including Sindelic's. In 1833, on his way back from Constantinople, French poet Alphonse de Lamartine stopped for a moment in front of Skull Tower. He was shocked at the sight of it and *wrote down in his book, later published as his travel accounts Journey to the East, the famous words:*

"My eyes and my heart greeted the remains of those brave men whose cut off heads made the corner stone of the independence of their homeland. May the Serbs keep this monument! It will always teach their children the value of the independence of a people, showing them the real price their fathers had to pay for it."

Ottoman Decline—Alliance with Germany

By the end of the nineteenth century, the Ottoman Empire was in permanent decline. Referred to as the "sick man of Europe," the Ottomans fished around in the growing turbulence of European politics for aid and seized an offer extended by Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire to form an alliance against the French and British. The Germans and Austrians hoped to benefit from the alliance by diverting British and French attention to the Ottoman's territorial holdings in the Middle East, while the Turks saw the partnership as a means of obtaining desperately needed supplies of modern munitions and weapons.

This alliance did not help the Ottomans during the buildup to the First World War. The Italians seized the North African port of Tripoli in 1911, and two separate secessionist wars broke out in the Balkans. These wars cost the Ottomans most of their remaining territory in the Balkans and also resulted in the killing of almost every last Turk in the Grecian region of Thrace in 1913.

World War I—Death of Ottoman Empire

When the First World War broke out, the Ottomans suffered major reverses at the hands of the Allied powers. Russia invaded Anatolia and the British invaded and seized what is today Iraq and Palestine along with most of the other Middle Eastern territories held by the Ottomans.

The 1915 Battle of Gallipoli, where an attempted Allied invasion of the Ottoman Empire was repulsed with serious losses, saw one of the very few Turkish military victories of the war. Even this did not stave off the inevitable, and British troops continued their march north from Palestine, eventually physically occupying the city of Istanbul. Only the collapse of the Russian military machine with the Russian Revolution of 1917, saved the Ottoman state from complete dismemberment.

Brutal Destruction of Armenia 1915–1923

It was during the First World War that one of the most tragic and violent anti-white acts ever committed by the Ottoman Empire took place. The setting was the region of Armenia, situated on the southeastern banks of the Black Sea. Originally one of the earliest Indo-European homelands, Armenia has some of the oldest iron and bronze smelting and cereal grain sites in the world. Shaken by the flooding of the Black Sea basin around 5600 BC, Armenia was then occupied in quick succession by the early Indo-European Assyrians and Persians.

A period of independence followed, and under their great King Tigranes I (140–55 BC), Armenia established an empire which reached from the Caspian Sea to the Mediterranean and parts of present-day Syria.

This empire ended with the Roman invasion of 69 BC. Armenia then became the first Christian state in the world in 302 AD. Armenia was devastated by an invasion of the Seljuk Turks, forerunners of the Ottomans, in the eleventh century. Their oppressive rule caused a huge number—possibly even a majority—of white Armenians to flee the country.

When the Ottomans replaced the Seljuks, they instituted an even greater reign of terror against the remaining Armenians. This caused further waves of emigration, mainly to America, which lasted until the late nineteenth century. Those who stayed in Armenia were subjected to horrendous persecution and massacres. The Ottomans confiscated the Armenians’ property and decided to move them all to Mesopotamia. They deliberately withheld supplies and facilities for the long march through the desert, causing hundreds of thousands of Armenians to perish. Besides the death marches, the Ottomans also performed mass executions and burnings, killing hundreds of thousands more. The total number of Armenian deaths is generally held to have been between one and one-and-a-half million. These events became known as the Armenian Genocide.

ARMENIAN GENOCIDE

The brutal destruction of Armenia, carried out by the Muslim Ottoman Turks between 1915 and 1923. Top, mass deportations, and below, the public hanging of hundreds of Armenian leaders in Constantinople (Istanbul) in 1915.

Armenia was almost completely destroyed as a result, and the remaining white Armenians were mostly absorbed into the overwhelming numbers of mixed-race peoples brought into that country.

There are very few white Armenians in present-day Armenia, in contrast to the racially European Armenian Diaspora communities found in the United States of America.

Kemal Ataturk—Nordic Type Creates Turkey

Prominent in the Turkish defense at the 1915 Battle of Gallipoli was a young blue-eyed and blond-haired army officer named Kemal Ataturk. As the war drew to an end, he became a leader in the group known as the "Young Turks" who staged a coup in Turkey in 1919, overthrowing the Ottoman Dynasty from within. Ataturk became leader of Turkey, which was declared a republic in 1923.

Although it has never been definitively established, it is possible that he was a descendant of a Janissary family. It would be suitable if this were so, as Ataturk was the one who brought the Ottoman Empire to its end. He launched a program of modernization, and abolished the theocratic state, declaring Turkey to be secular.

NORDIC FOUNDER OF PRESENT-DAY TURKEY

Kemal Ataturk (1881–1938), a white man who founded present-day Turkey. Blond with blue eyes, Kemal was no mixed-race Turk and very possibly descended from Janissaries. After a military education, Kemal became involved in movements opposing the autocratic Ottoman emperors, most notably the secret Young Turk movement. At the end of the First World War, Kemal united the Turkish national movement and seized power, deposing the Ottomans and fighting off an occupying Greek army. He proclaimed the Republic of Turkey in 1923 as a one party state with *himself as president. He created a modern and secular state, introducing a vast program of reforms. These included Western law codes, dress, and calendar; the use of the Latin alphabet, and in 1928, removing the provision naming Islam as the state religion.*

Ottoman Legacy

Nearly a thousand years of Turkish rule left a fingerprint in southeastern Europe which can be seen to this day in the Muslim faith of millions and the darker skin tones of many people in that region. This is the lasting legacy of the Ottoman holocaust which raged in southeastern Europe for nearly a millennia.

CHAPTER 35: Balkan Turmoil—Romania, Bulgaria, Albania, and Greece

The history of the Balkans serves as a microcosm of the iron law of nature that a civilization is merely a reflection of the people who majority occupy a territory. Any changes in culture are a reflection of the makeup of the population. In Albania's case, the population change is particularly marked, with the effects less prominent in Romania, Bulgaria, and Greece. However, all of these nations have suffered greatly—and bear the scars—of the Ottomans.

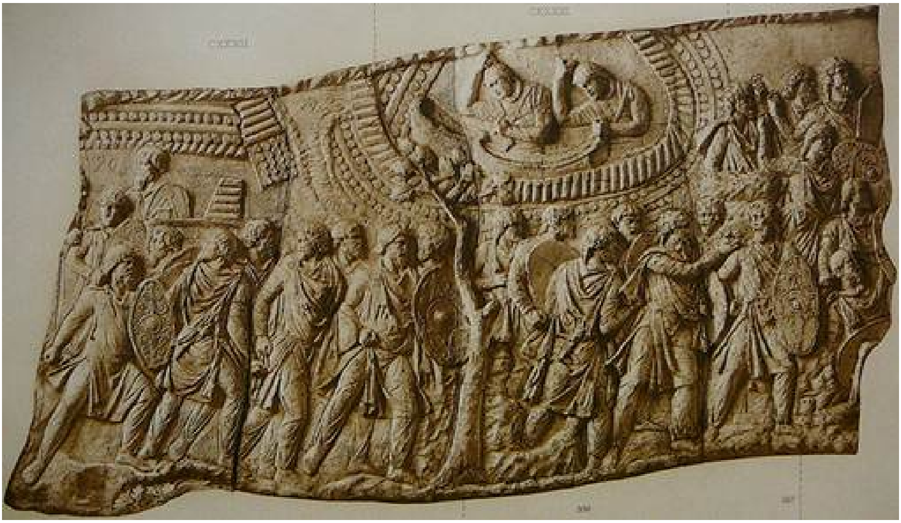
ROMANIA

Romania was, along with its present-day neighbors, the site of some of the earliest established Upper Paleolithic and Neolithic cultures in the world, dating from 10,000 BC. The region also bore the brunt of invasions from the east, with the first major wave of invaders being the Indo-European tribes who swept over the land starting about 3000 BC.

Dacia Added to Roman Empire 106

The first Indo-European inhabitants of the region settled in Thrace in Greece, only later moving north. Greek writers refer to the inhabitants of Romania as the Getae. Living in relative peace and obscurity, the Getae were incorporated into the Eastern Roman province of Dacia in 106 by the Roman emperor Trajan.

Roman colonists were sent to Dacia, and they developed the region considerably, building roads, bridges, and a great wall that stretched from what is today the Black Sea port of Constanta to the Danube River—the wall being designed to keep out further incursions by other Indo-European tribes.



Reliefs from Trajan's Column showing Dacians marching out from a fort; Legionaries building boats and Dacians marching ahead, and a Dacian attack on a Roman fort.

This fear of further incursions was well justified. By 250 the Indo-European Goths invaded Dacia and drove the Romans out of large parts of it. By 270 the Romans had withdrawn the last of their legions from the area, leaving behind a large number of original Romans who had settled there. Their influence was so marked that the people of Dacia continued to speak Latin for many years after the official withdrawal of the last Roman legions.

Asiatic Invasions Leave Their Genetic Imprint

The overwhelmingly Indo-European racial makeup of Romania was then disrupted by nearly one thousand years of Asiatic, Ottoman, and Gypsy invasions.

Nonwhite tribes not only physically decimated the Romanians but also left a small but significant segment of clearly nonwhite or mixed-race inhabitants. These groups, for the most part, were excluded from mainstream Romanian society, although a small number were absorbed into the Romanian population. The Asiatic invasions and their consequences are detailed in other chapters—suffice to say here that they included the armies of Attila the Hun, the Avars, Bulgars, and Magyars.

Fourth Century Slav Invasion Leads to Vlachs

The white population of Romania received a boost when the region was occupied by bands of wandering Indo-European Slavs, who, by the fourth century, had been Christianized and had established that religion in Romania. Through mixing with the remaining Dacians, the Slavs created a new ethnic group known as the Vlachs. They were Latin-speakers of the Balkan Peninsula. Romania was then occupied by her Slavic neighbors as well. These movements all served to strengthen the white population base after the Asian invasions.

Occupation by Hungary Circa 1000

In 1003 King Stephen I of Hungary annexed a large part of what is today Romania. By the thirteenth century the Hungarians had invited Germanic tribes, including Saxons and the Teutonic Knights (who were later to rise to prominence in their Christianization of the Baltic region) into Hungary, ostensibly to bolster Christianity, but having the important side effect of once again boosting the white element of Romania's population. The Vlachs were increasingly pushed into the mountainous regions and there established the principalities of Walachia and Moldavia.

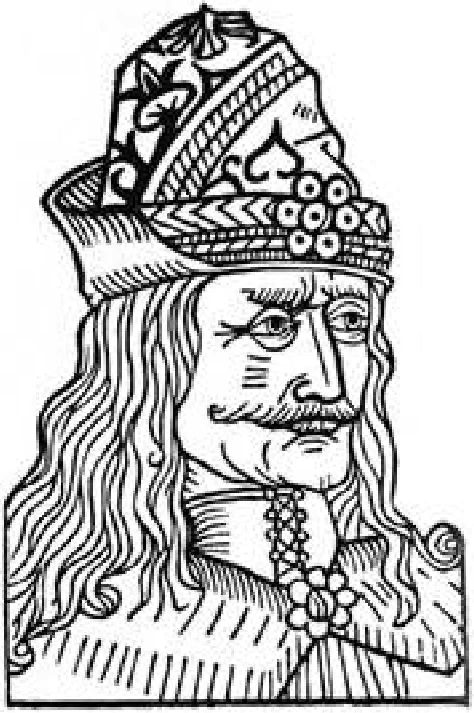
Vlad Dracula—Terror of the Ottomans

The rise of the Ottoman Empire during the fifteenth century saw the region overrun by the nonwhite Turks. It was from this time that the famous Vlad Dracula, a prince of Walachia in 1456, emerged to become the scourge of the Turks.

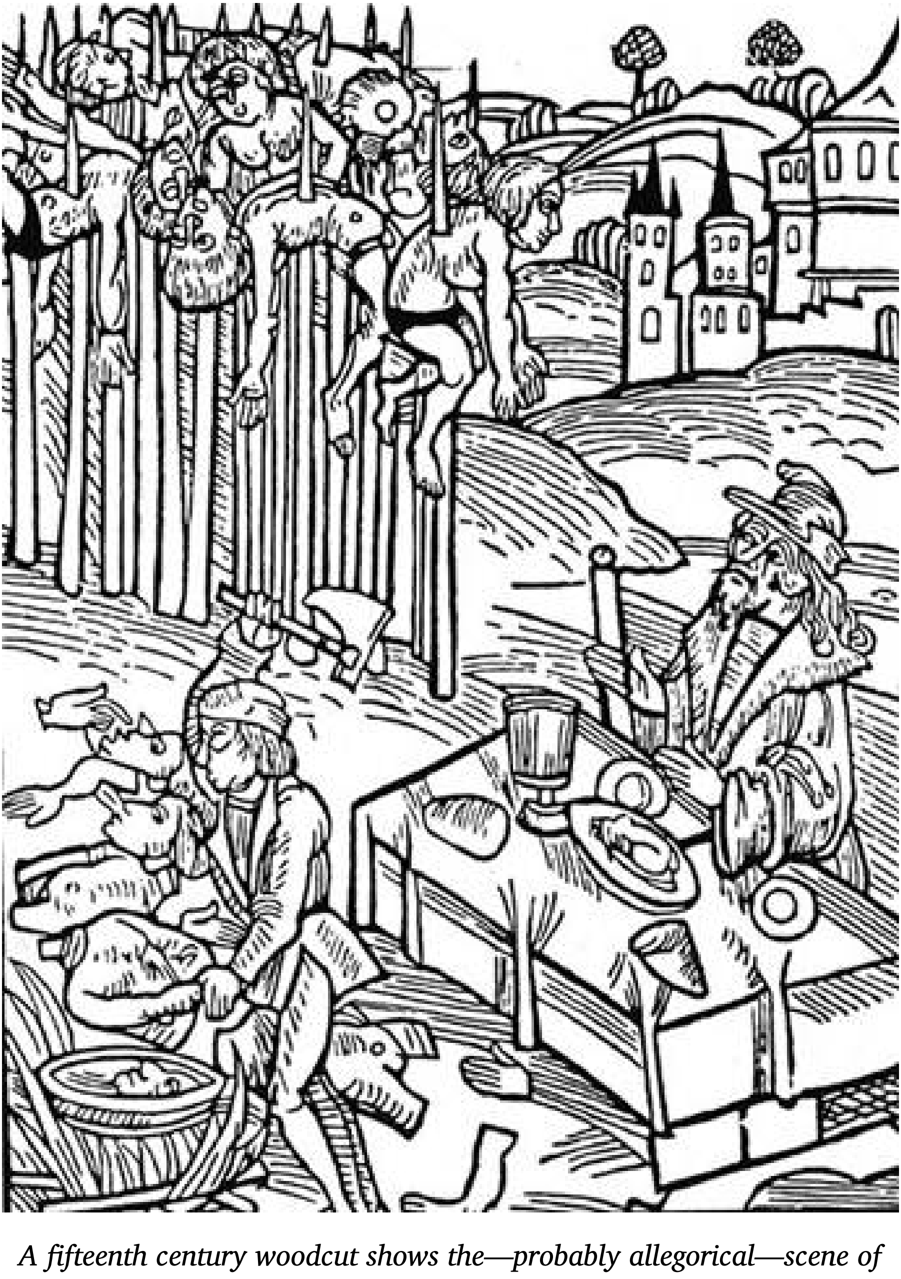
Although his name was appropriated by western literature (as a vampire), Vlad was, in fact, the terror of the Ottoman Empire for many years. He inflicted some of the greatest defeats upon the Ottomans during their long reign in the Balkans. Vlad Dracula is also known as Vlad the Impaler—for his habit of impaling the Turks on stakes. His father had fought the Turks along with the famous Hungarian hero, Janos Hunyadi, and in this way Dracula always kept close contact with the Hungarian court at Budapest.

When Vlad became prince of Walachia, the might of the Turks forced him to sign a treaty with the nonwhites, in terms of which he had to pay ten thousand gold ducats per year and provide a constant stream of white male babies for use in the Janissaries. When Vlad became lax in providing the required white youngsters, armed Turkish units began carrying out raids in Walachian territory. This precipitated a breakdown in the treaty between Vlad and the Turks.

VLAD THE IMPALER—TERROR OF THE TURKS



Vlad Dracula (circa 1420–1476), the Walachian (in Romania) terror of the Turks. Known as Vlad the Impaler, he used brutal terror tactics against the Turks, impaling tens of thousands upon stakes, thereby earning his nickname. His name has also been used in Western literature as a vampire —although this is completely unrelated to his real activities. Vlad was eventually killed by the Turks, and his head delivered to the sultan of Turkey on a platter, as proof that their great enemy was actually dead.



A fifteenth century woodcut shows the—probably allegorical—scene of Vlad Dracula having a meal among the victims of his impaling activities. In one instance he impaled twenty thousand Turks—the sight of the massacre so shook an invading Turkish army that they turned back rather than face the man who could do such a thing. Ironically, Vlad had learned the impaling technique from the Turks.

First Great Impaling of the Turks 1461

In 1461, Walachian soldiers took a Turkish fort called Giurgiu near the Turkish center of Nicopolis and slaughtered all the nonwhites they could find, impaling them on stakes, with the tallest stake being reserved for the Turkish governor of Nicopolis, Hamza Pasha.

Dracula continued along the Danube to the Black Sea, sending a message back to the Hungarian court that “we have killed 23,884 Turks.” Accompanying this message, Dracula sent two bags full of Turkish heads, ears, and noses to underline his point.

By 1462, the Ottomans had drawn up an overwhelming army of sixty thousand men to wipe out the upstart Walachian prince. The Turkish army advanced in two sections—half sailed along the Danube River while the other half marched overland through Bulgaria. Dracula’s men kept the Turks shadowed along the Danube—when the Turks began to disembark, the Walachians burst upon them from the forest on horseback. The utter ferocity of the attack drove them back into their boats.

However, Dracula knew that he could not face the Turks in open battle, as he did not have the numbers to defeat the nonwhites in this manner.

Guerrilla War and the Impaling of Twenty Thousand Turks at Tirgoviste

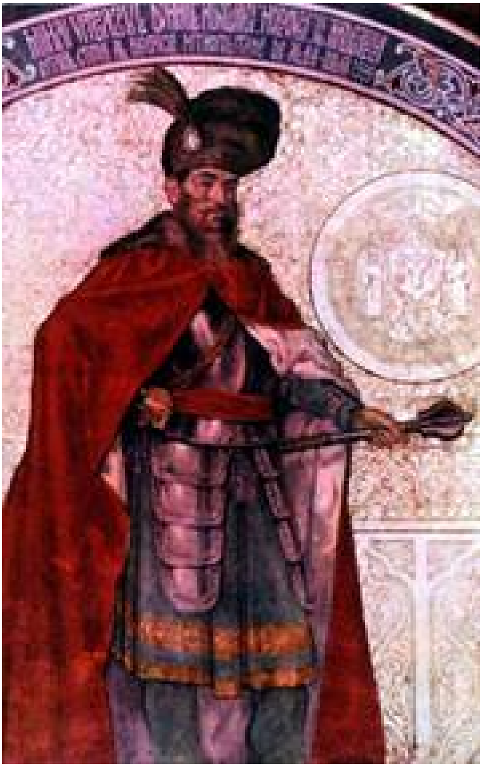
Dracula decided to wage a guerrilla war against the Turks, combining it with a scorched earth policy. Constant raids and food shortages then took their toll on the invading Turkish army. The Turkish sultan himself barely escaped capture when a Walachian party raided his camp in the Carpathian Mountains overlooking Tirgoviste.

Thousands of Turks were captured and killed in this engagement. When the sultan advanced upon Tirgoviste, he found a mile long gorge filled with twenty thousand impaled Turks. The brutal display was too much even for the notoriously cruel Turks. They withdrew attacking Tirgoviste, with the sultan complaining that he could not “win this land from a man who does such things.”

Dracula was then deposed as prince of Walachia by his brother who was kindly disposed toward the Turks. After being attacked by his brother’s forces, Dracula fled to the Hungarian capital, where he was given refuge. In 1476, he once again became prince of Walachia after invading with a new army.

His reign did not last long—ambushed outside Bucharest, his headless corpse was found in a swamp. His head was literally delivered on a platter to the Turkish sultan at Constantinople. It was the nonwhites' final revenge on the white prince who had inflicted so many defeats upon them. Walachia then fell once again under Ottoman rule.

MICHAEL THE BRAVE—ROMANIA'S NATIONAL HERO LEADS REVOLT AGAINST TURKS



Michael the Brave: Romania's national hero. The nonwhite Turkish invasion reached Romania in the fifteenth century, and continued uninterrupted until the end of the sixteenth century. A Walachian prince, Michael led a revolt against the Ottomans and succeeded in liberating Walachia, Moldavia, and Transyl-vania, uniting these regions until the Turks seized them back in 1601. Michael is, to this day, the national hero of Romania for his part in this uprising and for being the first to combine the three territories which formed Romania.

Michael the Brave—Romania's National Hero

Turkish rule continued uninterrupted until the end of the sixteenth century, when another Walachian prince, Michael the Brave, led a revolt against the Ottomans. He succeeded in liberating Walachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, uniting these regions for a brief period until 1601. Michael is to this day the national hero of Romania for his part in this uprising and for being the first to combine the three territories that were to form Romania.

Michael was defeated by the Ottomans in 1601. The nonwhite Turks then established a harsh government over Moldavia and Walachia, enslaving hundreds of thousands. This resulted in the deaths of tens of thousands of Europeans and caused many more to flee the region for good.

Moldavia Occupied by Hungarians, Poles, and Turks—Population Suffers

Moldavia was first occupied by the Hungarians and the Polish. However, the expanding Turkish Ottoman Empire also occupied the territory. A rebellion against nonwhite rule was led by the Moldavian king Stephen the Great, who succeeded in driving out the Turks in 1457. By 1504, the Turks had reoccupied the area, and exacted the same type of punishing government that they imposed in Walachia, causing the same results—death and a mass exodus of the local population.

Absorbed as Russian Protectorate 1829

The rise of Imperial Russia under Tsarina Catherine the Great proved to be Romania's eventual salvation. Russia declared itself the protector of all Orthodox Christians, and Russia's threats persuaded the Ottomans to allow a measure of autonomy in Walachia and Moldavia. This was to culminate in 1829 when the two regions were formally annexed to Russia as protectorates. They were still obliged to pay tributes to the Ottomans—a sort of blackmail to prevent further military intervention.

Independence from Ottomans 1878

By 1857, the regions of Moldavia and Walachia had built themselves up to the point where they were prepared to declare themselves independent. In that year the two states' legislative bodies (elected from a limited franchise) voted for political union and independence, creating a state with the name Romania.

The Ottomans were only finally removed as a factor from the Romanian state—after a five hundred year occupation—following a Russian–Romanian victory over the Ottomans in the Russo–Turkish War of 1877–78.

Kingdom of Romania under Carol I

Romania was finally recognized as an independent country by the major European powers in 1878. A German prince, Carol I, who had led the Romanians through a difficult period of conflict, was crowned king of Romania in May 1881, formally creating the Romanian kingdom. The expulsion of the Ottomans from all but a tiny part of the European continent by the early part of the twentieth century, saw Romania involved in two Balkan Wars over territory, neither of which significantly expanded Romanian land area.

World War I—Gains Transylvania

Initially remaining neutral at the outbreak of the First World War, the Romanians cunningly entered the war on the side of the Allied powers at the very last minute, hoping to gain territory from the defeat of Germany and Austria. They were duly rewarded, gaining large parts of the former Austro–Hungarian Empire, including Transylvania, and a part of Russia known as Bessarabia, which the Russians had annexed during their period of dominance in Romania.

The Iron Guard—Government in 1939

Romania was hit hard by the Great Depression. A nationalist movement emerged, known as the Iron Guard. It was strongly influenced by Nazi Germany, and soon grew to be one of the largest political groups in Romania, finally being appointed to the government in 1939. Under its prime minister, Field Marshal Ion Antonescu, Romania became an official ally of Germany.

ANTONESCU LEADS ROMANIA INTO WORLD WAR II ON GERMANY’S SIDE

Field Marshal Ion Antonescu, prime minister of Romania from 1940 to 1944, after meeting with Adolf Hitler in Munich, June 1941. Antonescu was dismissed from office by the Romanian king in 1944. He was tried by the Romanian Communist Party government in 1946 and executed by firing squad.

World War II—Romania Switches Sides in 1944

When Nazi Germany invaded the Soviet Union in 1941, Romania also declared war on the Soviets. Large numbers of Romanian troops served on the Eastern Front and suffered severe losses, especially during the Battle of Stalingrad which raged from late 1942 to January 1943.

When the war turned irrevocably against Nazi Germany, the Romanian king dismissed the Iron Guard government, surrendered to the Soviet Union, and declared war on Germany as the Soviet army advanced into Romania in 1944.

Communist Romania 1947–1991

Under Soviet rule, Romania once again lost the territory of Bessarabia, which it had gained only twenty-five years earlier. Firmly under Soviet control, the Romanian Communist Party was then installed as the sole rulers in a one party state by 1947. As in all Eastern European countries, a process of Sovietization of the society was started, which led to Romania falling behind the West in terms of economic development.

Nicolae Ceausescu—Communist Tyrant

In 1965 Nicolae Ceausescu became leader of the Communist Party and hence of Romania. He established a harsh and uninspired rule which lasted until 1989. That year, in a wave of anti-Communist rebellions which also destroyed the Soviet Union, Ceausescu was arrested in a general uprising. He was tried by a military court and executed in December of that year.

A series of interim governments then held office, ironically being made up for the greatest part by ex-Communist Party officials. Only in 1996 was the first truly non-Communist Party government elected to office, and a program of full westernization launched.

Low Present-Day Immigration and Gypsies

Romania experienced very little immigration or population movements since the end of the Ottoman Empire. Despite this fact, the country is not racially homogeneous. It has an extremely large Gypsy population, estimated to be at least 2.5 million at the end of 2005. The Gypsy population has continued to be a contentious political issue in Romanian politics.

In addition, there are a significant number of mixed-race elements within Romania, mainly the product of the Asiatic and Ottoman occupations which together lasted hundreds of years in that region.

BULGARIA

First Settlements Date from 10,000 BC

Bulgaria, along with other Balkan states, was the site of some of the oldest civilizations on earth. Archaeologists have uncovered Neolithic farming settlements which date from around 10,000 BC.

Some of the Indo-European tribes settled in Bulgaria around 4,000 BC. Eventually the area was dominated by some of the easternmost Slav peoples, who brought with them the battle-axe culture and ironworking skills.

WORLD’S OLDEST GOLD PIECE 4000 BC

The oldest worked piece of gold in the world comes from Varna, Bulgaria. This six thousand year old art is an indication of the advanced metallurgical skills of the early population of this region.

The next important population shift came with a renewed wave of Indo-European invaders, known as the Goths. By this time, the Romans had spread out to occupy large parts of present-day Bulgaria, which they incorporated into their provinces of Thrace and Moesia.

The Goths waged an ongoing war against the Romans which only came to an end when the first great Asiatic invasion of Europe—that of the Huns—pushed the Goths over into Roman territory. The Huns, who pushed westward, seized large portions of what was to become Bulgaria in their bid to conquer Europe and the late Roman Empire. The Bulgarian state was only formally established in the seventh century.

Asiatic Invasions Leave Their Mark

It was not only the Huns who occupied Bulgaria. Its eastern European location meant that this region also bore the brunt of the later Avar, Magyar, and Bulgar invasions. The last of these Asiatic invaders were so well-entrenched that they gave their names to the state.

The Bulgars almost seized the Eastern Roman Empire's capital city of Constantinople in 813, but were defeated and driven out during later conflicts, the details of which have been discussed previously. As if this was not enough, Bulgaria was also seized and occupied by the Turkish Ottoman Empire during its invasion of Europe.

All of these nonwhite occupations left their mark upon the Bulgarian population. It is thus possible to observe a large number of noticeably darker elements among that country's peoples, although, of course, substantial numbers do not show any signs of this mixing process which occurred over the course of several centuries.

Turkish Influence Remains Strong

The proximity of Turkey and the long period of Ottoman occupation also resulted in the creation of a large Turkish community in Bulgaria. In 2005, 28 of 240 members of the Bulgarian National Assembly were Turks. By 2009, almost 15 percent of the population was Turkish.

Christianity Officially Decreed 864

In 864 the king of Bulgaria, Boris I, declared Christianity to be the official state religion, under the aegis of the Byzantine emperor. This in turn led to the pope formally recognizing the state for the first time, an important event in the development of early Christian European statehood.

The First Bulgarian Empire—Greece and Serbia Absorbed 925

By 900, Bulgaria had become one of the strongest powers in southeastern Europe. Under the reign of Boris's son, Simeon, the Bulgarians played a major role in defeating the Asiatic Magyar invasion.

Simeon introduced social reforms which created a network of schools and other infrastructure. He also conducted a number of wars with the Byzantine Empire, which, regarding itself as the supreme ruler of the eastern European Christian world, interfered continuously in the affairs of neighboring states such as Bulgaria.

Simeon's wars led to a number of territorial acquisitions which included large areas of Greece. In 925, his conquests were so large that he was able to declare himself emperor of the Greeks and Bulgars.

The following year Serbia was conquered and incorporated into the Bulgarian Empire.

Russian Invasion Ends First Bulgarian Empire

The first Bulgarian Empire came to an end in 969 when the expanding Russian Empire invaded and took the royal family prisoner in the capital city, Sofia. This Russian invasion provoked the Byzantines into intervening in the conflict, coming to the aid of their former foes, the Bulgarians. By the year 970, a Byzantine army had engaged the Russians in Bulgaria.

After a conflict lasting nearly two years, the Russians were forced to retreat. The victorious Byzantines were able to annex the eastern part of Bulgaria as their reward. The western part was made independent once again. This independence was short-lived for, in 1014, the Byzantines annexed the remainder of Bulgaria, incorporating it as a province of the Eastern Roman Empire.

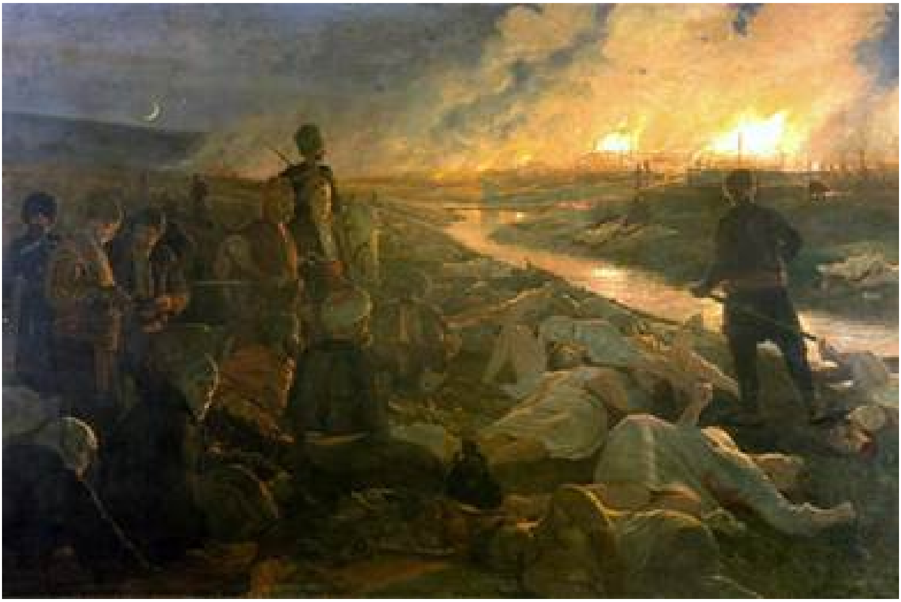
The Second Bulgarian Empire 1185

Bulgaria remained under Byzantine rule until 1185 when a popular revolt saw the last of the occupying rulers driven out. The Bulgarians declared themselves independent once again and proclaimed the start of the Second Bulgarian Empire. This second empire soon proved as expansionist as the first. Within a few years, parts of Serbia, Macedonia, and Albania had been annexed to Bulgaria through military conflict. Bulgarian rule was maintained through force of arms until 1330, when a revitalized Serbian army defeated the Bulgarians. The Serbs then went on the offensive and pursued the defeated Bulgarians back into Bulgaria. For the next twenty-five years, Bulgaria was under Serbian rule.

Turks Rule for Five Hundred Years

By 1360, the nonwhite Ottoman invasion had overrun almost all of the southern Balkans and had started pushing north toward central Europe. By 1396, the invading Muslim armies had conquered Bulgaria and caused it to vanish as a political entity for the next five hundred years. Turkish rule was entrenched in the region, and a not insignificant amount of racial mixing occurred between the Ottoman rulers and the subjected population.

TURKS KILL THIRTY THOUSAND WHITES IN 1876 BULGARIAN ATROCITIES



The Ottomans killed thirty thousand Bulgarians during the Bulgarian Atrocities. This scene is of the 1876 burning and sacking of the town of Batak by the Turks, which resulted in seven thousand Bulgarian deaths.

The Bulgarian Atrocities—Turks Slaughter Thirty Thousand White Bulgarians

The Ottoman occupation of Bulgaria did not pass without incident. Bulgarian uprisings took place several times, but all were suppressed by the occupying forces.

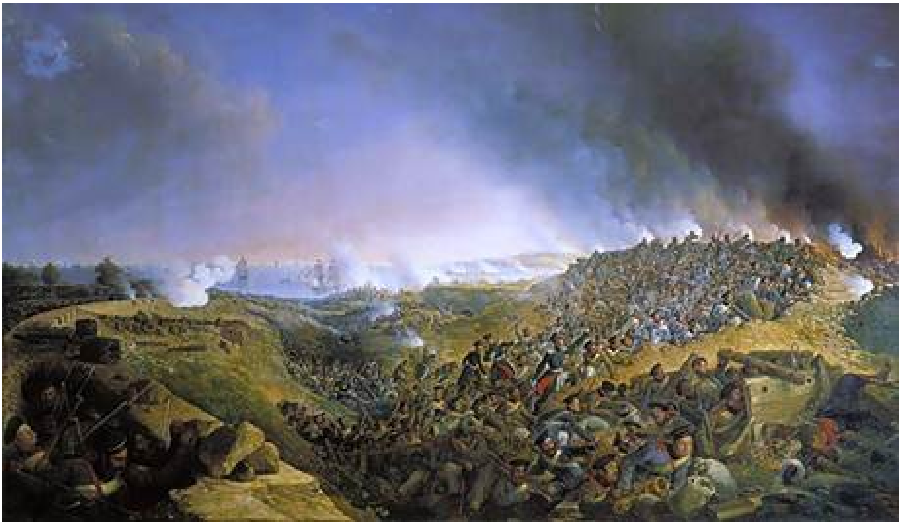
The most notable of these uprisings occurred in 1876, during a major rebellion. After a series of desperate battles, the Bulgarian rebels were defeated. In an attempt to squash further rebellions, the Muslims exacted a terrible reprisal—an estimated thirty thousand Bulgarians: men, women, and children, were massacred by the Turks, and several villages were wiped out in the process. These massacres became known as the Bulgarian Atrocities.

Russian–Ottoman War

The Bulgarians lay prostrate under the increasingly severe Turkish rule until salvation came in the form of the Russians. Long-standing enmity between the Russian Empire and the Ottomans over control of the Black Sea and southeastern Europe came to a head in 1877 when war broke out between the two. The Russians, by this time, had refurbished their army and industrialized their country. As a result, they quickly overwhelmed the now antiquated Ottoman armies.

The conflict continued until 1878 when the Muslim empire suffered a decisive defeat and was forced to sue for peace. In terms of the settlement, Bulgaria was divided into two: one part became an autonomous principality under Russian influence, and the second part was made an autonomous Ottoman province.

RUSSIAN ASSAULT TAKES VARNA 1828



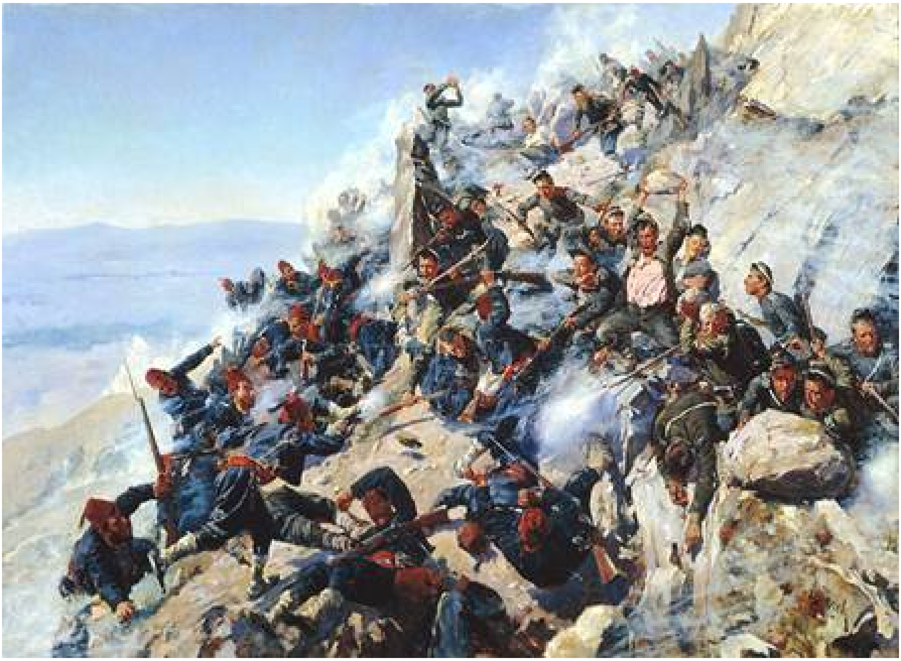
The nonwhite Turks surrendered the city of Varna, Bulgaria, in 1828 after a determined Russian assault. Varna had long been the scene of conflict between whites and nonwhite invaders. In 1444, Varna was the site of a battle in which a force under the Ottoman sultan Murad II crushed an army under Wladyslaw III of Poland (also known as King Ulászló I of Hungary) and the Hungarian leader Janos Hunyadi. That battle opened the way for the Turks to seize much of southeastern Europe, a situation which was only reversed in the early part of the nineteenth century.

Independence Declared from Ottomans 1908

Bulgarian nationalism was, however, not dead. Partial democratic reforms in the autonomous Bulgarian principality saw the election of a new parliament which in turn voted to bring back the monarchy. The assembly chose Alexander of Battenberg, a German nephew of the Russian tsar, to be the first Bulgarian king in over five hundred years. The outbreak of nationalism which this act inspired led to another rebellion in the Ottoman ruled part of Bulgaria in 1885. The Ottomans were driven out and the two parts were united once again as the new Kingdom of Bulgaria.

Despite the Russian tsar and the new Bulgarian king being related, the Russians refused to recognize the new state and chose instead to support Serbia, which was regarded as a more loyal ally. The Serbians then declared war on the united Bulgarians in an attempt to crush the new state at birth. The attempt failed and the Bulgarians warded off the attack. The Serbs were forced to flee and sue for peace.

Discontent within Bulgaria still brewed, and in 1886 a group of pro-Russian Bulgarians overthrew the new government and established a pro-Russian government. This rebellion was in turn overthrown within a few days, but the threat of further intervention caused the Bulgarian king to abdicate. A new king, Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, was elected in 1887. It was Ferdinand who took advantage of an internal rebellion in the Ottoman Empire and declared Bulgaria completely independent in 1908.



The Battle of Shipka Pass in August 1877, during the Russo-Turkish War (1877–1878).

The Balkan Wars See Ottomans Driven Out

The beginning of the nineteenth century saw the final efforts launched by the Balkan states to drive out the last of the Turkish Ottomans. In the First Balkan War (1912–1913), Bulgaria, allied with Serbia, Montenegro, and Greece, attacked and defeated the Ottomans, forcing that fading power to retreat from most parts of southeastern

Europe.

The victors then fell out with each other over the division of the former Ottoman territories. This led to what was called the Second Balkan War in 1913. Bulgaria, fighting against almost everybody else in the region, lost that war. As a result, the Bulgarians were forced to surrender part of their own territory which was divided up among the victors.

World War I—Bulgaria Loses More Territory

Bulgaria took part in the First World War as an ally of Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire. The defeat of the Central Powers in this conflict led to Bulgaria having to disarm and pay large reparations under conditions similar to those imposed on Germany and Austria. In terms of the November 1919 Treaty of Neuilly, Bulgaria also lost most of the land it had acquired in the First Balkan War.

Internal Dissension

The period between the First and Second World Wars was marked by political instability. A dictatorship, established in 1919, was overthrown in a coup in 1923, and in 1925, Greece invaded Bulgaria over a territorial dispute.

Intervention by the League of Nations, the forerunner to the United Nations, ended the war, with Greece formally blamed for the conflict. In 1934, the Bulgarian king, Tsar Boris, staged a coup of his own and established a royal dictatorship, a state of affairs which remained in place until 1944.

World War II—Pro-German Government Overthrown

The Bulgarian king's sympathies lay initially with Germany during the Second World War. In March 1941, Bulgaria officially joined the Axis powers, allowing German troops to use the country as part of the springboard for the invasion of Greece.

Bulgaria then took an active part in the war against Greece and Yugoslavia, officially declaring war on these two countries in April 1941. As a result of the defeat of the latter two states, Bulgaria occupied all of Yugoslav Macedonia, Grecian Thrace, and eastern Greek Macedonia.

In December 1941, Bulgaria followed Germany's example and declared war on the United States and Britain, fulfilling its obligations to the Axis powers in terms of the international anti-Communist “Anti-Comintern” pact which it had signed the previous month.

БРАТЯ И. АБАДЖИЕВИ
ГОТОВИ ДРЕХИ

German Wehrmacht troops in Bulgaria, 1943. As the Soviets approached from the East, the Bulgarian government was overthrown and the country switched sides in the war.

Bulgaria never formally declared war against the Soviet Union. This remained the case even after the Bulgarian king died in August 1943 and a pro-German government in Bulgaria strengthened the country’s ties with Germany. By 1944, however, it was clear that Germany was going to lose the war. In May 1944, the pro-German government in Bulgaria was overthrown in a coup.

The new government immediately cut its ties with Germany, hoping to avoid war with the Soviet Union. The move was to no avail: as the Soviet armies neared the borders of Bulgaria, the Communist giant formally declared war on Bulgaria in September 1944. The Bulgarian government agreed to an immediate surrender and ordered its army not to fight. In terms of the armistice agreement, the Soviet army was given free passage across Bulgaria and that country then declared war on Germany. Finally, the armistice agreement included an undertaking to install a pro-Communist government in Bulgaria under direct Soviet military supervision. This became reality in 1947 and the Communist government remained in power until the last decade of the twentieth century.

The Communist Period—Dramatic Fall in Living Standards

The first move by the new Communist rulers was to expel the Bulgarian king in 1946. Bulgarian participation in the war was formally ended by a treaty in Paris in 1947 in terms of which the country was compelled to pay reparations to Yugoslavia and Greece, and cede all territories gained during the course of the war.

Bulgaria became one of the most restrictive Communist countries of the entire Warsaw Alliance. This caused a dramatic fall in living standards, and the country was heavily subsidized by the Soviet Union to prevent a total collapse.

Official Bulgarian Anti-Turkish Policy

During the 1980s, the Bulgarian government started a deliberate program to drive the remaining Turks out of the country. Cunningly, this program was executed under the guise of officially claiming to integrate the Turks into the rest of the population. In reality, these measures boiled down to an attempt to extinguish Turkish culture in Bulgaria.

Turks were forced to adopt Slavic names and it became illegal to speak Turkish in public. In 1989, more than three hundred thousand Turks left the country, crossing the border into Turkey. The policy was abandoned later that year when the Soviet Union fell and the Communist regime collapsed.

Eastern Bloc's Collapse—but Bulgarian Communists Win Elections

Democratic reforms after the abolition of the one party state led to the first ever democratic elections in Bulgaria in June 1990. They were won by the reformed Communist Party, which renamed itself the Bulgarian Socialist Party.

This crypto-Communist electoral victory, combined with the usual economic problems associated with converting an economy from state control to free enterprise, caused a further massive decline in living standards in Bulgaria. This economic recession lasted until the end of the twentieth century.

Immigration and Gypsies

Largely due to its unfavorable economic situation, Bulgaria has not been a focus of immigration, legal or illegal, and as such possessed no significant Third World immigrant population at the beginning of the twenty-first century.

However, the effect of centuries of Asiatic and Ottoman occupation—and a Gypsy (originally Indian) population of over half a million—has left a clearly identifiable mark upon a significant minority of the population.

ALBANIA

The original Albanians were Old Europeans called Illyrians who had settled large parts of the Balkans centuries prior to the Indo-European invasions.

These Old Europeans established a Neolithic civilization in the region, interrupted only by the settlement of Indo-European Greek colonies along the coast during the sixth century BC.

With the dissolution of the people of classical Greece, the Grecian colonies in Albania also went into decline. By the end of the third century BC, the Grecian influence had all but disappeared.

Their descendants, who had mixed with the original Old European population, then established a number of independent kingdoms which lasted well into the second century AD.

Illyrians Source of Recruits for Roman Army

The Roman Empire, in the course of its expansion eastward, invaded the Albanian coastline in 229 BC, sparking off a conflict with the natives known as the Illyrian Wars. By 168 BC, the Romans had subdued all of the Illyrians and had incorporated the region into the Roman Empire under the name of Illyricum.

Rome ruled the region for the next six centuries, but the Illyrians resisted assimilation and their distinctive culture and language survived.

As Roman numbers declined, the Empire was forced to use increasing numbers of mercenaries in its armies. The Illyrians were, along with the Germans, one of the biggest sources of these mercenary forces. They became completely integrated into Roman society to the point where several emperors were of Illyrian stock.

Roman Byzantine Rule from 395

In 395, the Roman Empire was split into two, with western and eastern sections. Illyria fell under the auspices of the Eastern Empire. By this time, Illyrians had achieved positions of great prominence in the Eastern Empire, with one of the most famous Illyrians being the emperor Justinian I, who reigned from 527 to 565.

Under Byzantine rule, Christianity also became the official religion of Illyria, replacing the mishmash of Old European beliefs and the Greco–Roman pantheon of gods which had previously held sway. This process was temporarily reversed by the Goths who passed through Illyria on their westward migrations.

Asiatic Invasions Leave Their Mark

Illyria, however, was to be irreparably marked by the Asiatic invasions which followed the Goths. First to occupy Illyria were the Huns, followed by the Avars, Bulgars, and Magyars. These invaders devastated the country, destroyed large towns, and killed or enslaved large numbers of the population.

Almost all Illyrians were dispersed as a result of these invasions. The country was then absorbed into the neighboring Slavic states which emerged after the Asiatic invaders had been driven out. Those Illyrians who had survived the Asiatic invasions were absorbed into the states of Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia.

Only in the very south of the land did any significant numbers of Illyrians survive. They were later to form the core population of the state which became known as Albania.

GEORGE KASTRIOTI—WHITE HERO OF ALBANIA

The nation of Albania was all but destroyed by the nonwhite Turkish Ottoman invasion of 1388. By 1430, the Ottomans had conquered all of Albania. An uprising led by the Albanian patriot George Kastrioti, popularly known as Scanderbeg, resisted the invaders for twenty-five years, but the Turks crushed all opposition by 1506, exacting a terrible revenge upon the Albanians.

Shqiperia—Country of the Eagle

The region became known as Albania, or Shqiperia (Country of the Eagle), during the eighth century. It was, however, subjected to waves of different invasions from the ninth century onward, each of whom brought their own specific subracial types to Albania.

The Bulgarian Slavs brought a mixed Indo-European strain and added a slight Asiatic admixture.

The Norman Crusaders brought Viking blood, while the Italian Angevins brought a mixed Nordic/Alpine stock. The Serbs brought more Slavic blood while Venetians brought Germanic Lombardic genes to the country.

The end result was the creation of a mix of all the main white subracial groups in the country, with a slight admixture of “dark” types who were descended from the Asiatic invasions.

During the Middle Ages Albanian cities expanded and commerce flourished. Education, art, and culture grew, and although the Illyrian language survived, Greek and Latin became the official languages.

Serbian Invasion Disrupts Illyrian Civilization Circa 1350

This flourishing civilization was broken by two major historical events which took place in quick succession. The first was the conquest of the region by the expanding Serbian state in 1347, which saw hundreds of thousands of the small Albanian population migrate to Greece. The second event, which was even more dramatic, was the Turkish Ottoman invasion of 1388.

Ottoman Invasion Resisted for Twenty-five Years

By 1430, the invading Ottomans had conquered all of Albania. An ultimately unsuccessful uprising led by the Albanian patriot George Kastrioti, popularly known as Scanderbeg, resisted the nonwhite invaders for twenty-five years, but by 1506 the Turks had crushed all opposition. They then exacted a terrible revenge upon the Albanians for having resisted so fiercely. The viciousness of the Turkish reprisals and the nature of their rule caused another 25 percent of the Albanian population to flee to Italy.

As a result, Albania became massively depopulated. The loss of large segments of its population to Greece, casualties in the quarter century- long war with the Ottomans, and refugees fleeing the Turkish victors decimated the number of remaining Albanians.

Turkish settlement in Albania and physical mixing between the few remaining Albanians in the largely depleted countryside resulted in the population becoming majority (two thirds) Muslim by the end of the seventeenth century. It was no surprise, therefore, that a number of these “Albanians” rose to positions of prominence in the Ottoman government in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. More than two dozen “Albanians” became grand viziers (prime ministers) of the Ottoman Empire.

TURKISH DESTRUCTION OF ALBANIA LEAVES ITS MARK AMONG PRESENT-DAY ALBANIANS

The mixed-racial ancestry of many, but not all, Albanians can be seen in this 1999 photograph of two soldiers from the Kosovo Liberation Army, who fought against the Serbian government in that year. The soldier on the left is "Turkish" in appearance and ironically carries the two headed eagle flag of the original white Albanians, the Shqiperia.

Albanian Independence 1912

Although two thirds Muslim, a tiny number of Albanians remained who had not mixed with the Turks. It was under this group's leadership that an independence movement was organized which finally sprang into life early in the twentieth century after nearly five hundred years of Ottoman rule.

Between 1910 and 1912, Albanian nationalists waged an armed struggle against the Ottomans. When the First Balkan War broke out in 1912, the Albanian nationalists seized their chance and proclaimed independence upon the Turkish defeat.

Most of Western Europe recognized Albania's independence, but after pressure from Serbia, the Albanians were persuaded to give up the region of Kosovo to their Serbian neighbors—despite the majority of inhabitants being ethnically Albanian. This partition caused conflict between the Serbs and the Albanians which lasted until the end of the twentieth century, when it flared up so violently that European and American forces intervened in 1999.

Albania Invaded by Italy in 1939

The original Albanian Shqiperia population was almost entirely gone. The state was taken over by an autocratic king named Zog in 1929, but his rule ended when Fascist Italy under Mussolini invaded Albania in 1939.

After Yugoslavia was occupied by the Germans in 1941, the region of Kosovo was returned to Albania by a benevolent Germany. Kosovo remained part of Albania until 1944, when the Germans withdrew from the region. In that year, Kosovo was once again seized by Serbia.

The World's First Atheist State

The collapse of Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy at the end of the Second World War allowed the Communists to seize control of much of Eastern Europe, and Albania was no exception. In fact, the Albanian Communist Party had seized power in its homeland in November 1944 upon the Axis powers' withdrawal from the Balkans.

The Communists established a one party state and sovietized the already impoverished country. This caused a steady drop in the standard of living and the Soviet Union was forced to prop up the Albanian state with loans and financial gifts.

Ideological differences with the Soviet Union saw the Albanian Communists switch their allegiance to Red China, and under Maoist influence, Albania became even more hard-line. In 1967, all religious bodies were banned and Christian churches and Muslim mosques were confiscated. Albania was formally declared the world's first atheist state. The collapse of Communism in 1989 saw gradual democratic reforms in Albania. By the end of the twentieth century, thousands of Albanians had fled their wrecked country and entered Western Europe by illegally immigrating via Italy. They were, however, a shadow of the race which once produced the great Roman emperor, Justinian.

GREECE

Roman Rule—Greece under the Eastern Empire

Greece was occupied by Roman armies in 146 BC after the end of the Punic Wars. The Roman occupiers were surprised to find much of the country in ruins, and subsequently arranged for many of the collapsed monuments to be rebuilt. As a result, many of the ruins of buildings seen today in Greece are, in fact, Roman-era reconstructions.

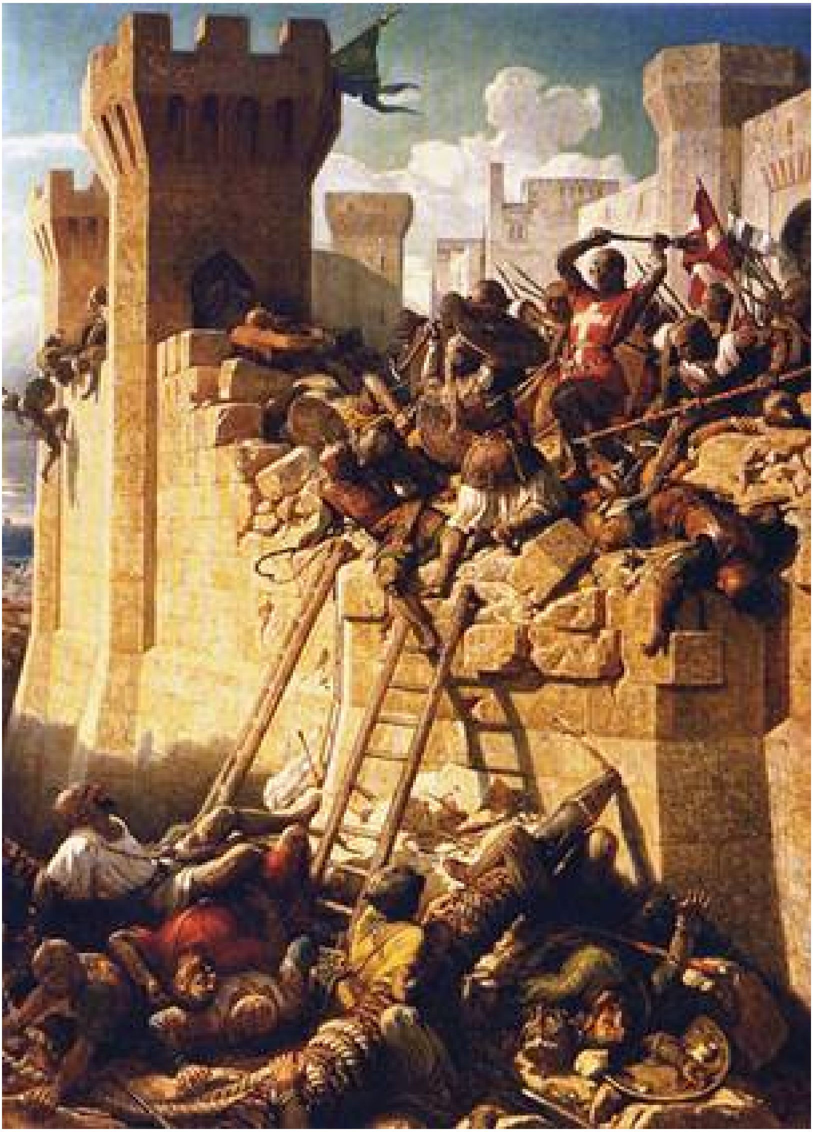
Initially the Romans did not have complete compliance from the occupied Greeks. The city of Athens led some of the other Greek cities in rebellion against Roman rule in 88 BC, which forced General Sulla to invade Greece with a new Roman army. This time the suppression of dissent was complete, and Roman Emperor Augustus formally organized Greece as the province of Achaea in 27 BC.

Its geographical position made Greece the key eastern province of the Roman Empire. Greek became a major language of the empire, and the classical Grecian philosophers and scientists were highly regarded in Rome.

As part of the Roman Empire, Greece also fell under the influence of Christianity after it was adopted by the emperor Constantine. At the time of the division of the Roman Empire into eastern and western halves, Greece was included in the Eastern Empire.

Greek history then featured in the ongoing Roman conflicts with the Goths and the Asiatic Hunnish invasions which plagued all of eastern Europe until the end of the first millennium. Athens was seized by Goths and threatened by the Huns, among many other trials and tribulations–but ultimately always returned to the fold of the Eastern Roman, or Byzantine Empire.

TWO HUNDRED YEAR RACE WAR ON ISLAND OF RHODES



Just off the southwest shore of Turkey lies the island of Rhodes, where white knights had established a Crusader state in 1306. Rhodes was subject to numerous attacks by Turks for over two hundred years. Each time the attackers were beaten away after fearful battles. With the passage of time, European reinforcements dried up, and the defenders of Rhodes became fewer and fewer. Finally in 1522, the island was overrun by the Turks. Here the knights can be seen defending Rhodes during the great siege of 1480, where they held out under ferocious attack for more than two months.

Crusader Rule from 1204 to 1261

Byzantine rule over Greece was interrupted in 1204, when a Crusader army which had been diverted from its original intent of freeing Palestine attacked Byzantium instead. The Crusaders divided the Greek peninsula into feudal fiefs, with the best known being the Duchy of Athens. All of these states were incorporated into what officially became known as the Latin Empire of the East.

Crusader rule was too short-lived and their numbers too small to substantially alter the racial makeup of the region, and they were driven out in 1261 when the Byzantines reconquered much of Greece.

After the fall of Constantinople to Muslim armies in 1453, most parts of Greece fell under the control of various Western European states, including the French, Spanish, and Italians. All of these nations sent colonies of their own people to the regions they occupied, causing an infusion of new European blood there.

The Ottoman Invasion 1460—Harsh Rule

The Ottoman Muslims planned on invading all of Europe, starting with the Balkans. By 1460, almost all of Greece had been occupied. Over the course of the next two centuries, an unrelenting race war raged between the invading Ottomans and the European powers that had outposts in Greece. It ended with the entire peninsula finally being overrun by the Turks. The final chapter in that saga came with the Turkish capture of Crete in 1669.

Greece remained under Turkish rule until the nineteenth century. Nearly 450 years of nonwhite dominion inevitably led to another infusion of Middle Eastern blood into the peninsula. The enmity that had developed between Greeks and Turks as a result of the harsh Ottoman occupation militated against the integration process. Many Greeks actively avoided integrating with the occupiers. As a result there exists to this day great distrust between many Greeks and Turks.

Sporadic Russian Intervention Unsuccessful

In the late eighteenth century, Greek nationalists launched a series of attempts to expel the Turks. In this they were aided by Russian adventurers, who felt an affinity with the Greek Orthodox Christian Church, which had served as the genesis of the Russian Orthodox Church.

In 1770, the Russian count, Aleksey Grigoryevich Orlov, landed a fleet of ships in the Peloponnesus and led an unsuccessful revolt against the Turks. In 1821, Alexander Ypsilanti, a former aide-de-camp of the Russian tsar, Alexander I, entered Moldavia with a small force and proclaimed Greek independence. The tsar refused to give any support to the expedition, and the Turks crushed the small force, killing all the rebels they captured.

Thereafter Greek nationalists fought a series of wars against the Turks. Initially they fought without any allies, aided only by money and individual volunteers from European countries who felt personal sympathy with the anti-Turkish campaign. These campaigns drew little success, and it was not until the Western European powers intervened that the Turks were finally expelled.

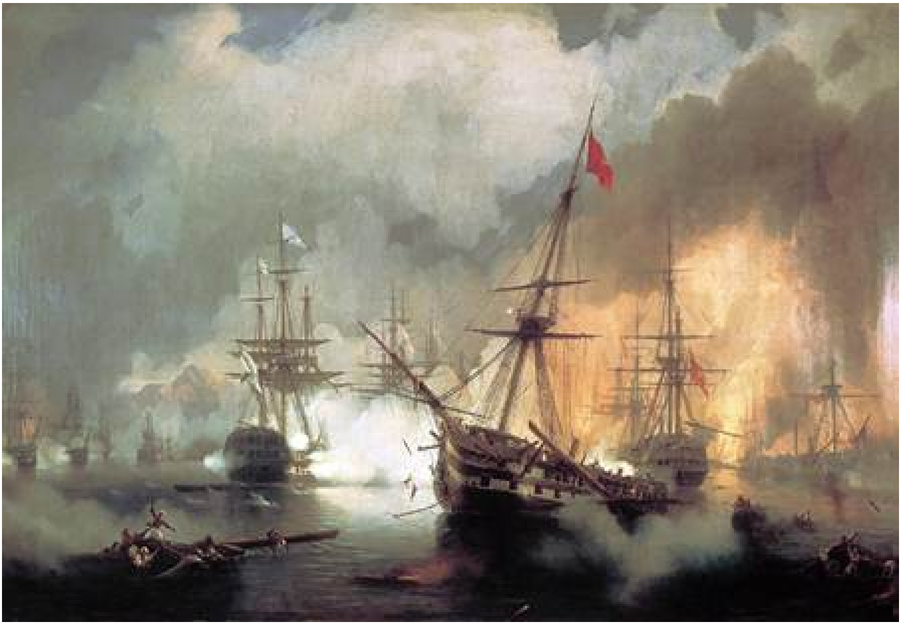
Egyptians Occupy Greece

The nations of Western Europe finally intervened when the Ottomans deployed Muslim troops from Egypt to Greece to help suppress the ongoing rebellions. The Egyptian troops arrived in 1825, and they occupied the entire southern part of the Greek peninsula.

What was in effect a nonwhite Egyptian Muslim invasion of the European mainland proved too much for the European powers to bear, and, in 1827, a combined navy from Russia, Britain, and France was sent to the Mediterranean to attack the Ottomans.

The Ottoman navy was decisively defeated and destroyed at the Battle of Navarino in 1828, forever destroying Turkish naval power. The Ottomans, incensed at the Russian navy's participation in the European attack force, then closed the Dardanelles to Russian shipping. In response, Russia declared war on the Ottomans and the Russo–Turkish War of 1828–1829 broke out. The Russian land forces advanced to within forty miles of Constantinople while a French infantry force landed on the mainland of Greece. Together with Greek rebels, the French forces drove the Turks and the Egyptians off the Greek mainland.

BATTLE OF NAVARINO 1827



The Battle of Navarino, October 20, 1827, was a great European victory which gave birth to present-day Greece. This victory spurred on further victories for the European forces on land which culminated in the independence of Greece under European protection in 1830.

Treaty of Adrianople 1829 Results in Independent Greece

The military defeats suffered by the Ottomans forced the Turks to seek an armistice. The war was ended with the Treaty of Adrianople, signed in 1829, in terms of which the Ottomans made major territorial concessions to Russia. Greek independence was also recognized. The following year, 1830, Greece was declared an autonomous kingdom under European protection.

Independence Marred by Strife

Three hundred and sixty-nine years of Ottoman rule had left its mark. There had been an inevitable amount of mixing with the Turks, and this, combined with the various white infusions, led to the composition of the Greek population today, which is clearly divided between European and mixed elements.

The young state also proved to be highly unstable and a period of civil war and strife followed independence in 1830. This was aggravated by a number of inept rulers, including a Bavarian king, Otto I, who was given the throne in 1832 by the European protectors of Greece.

It was only in 1864 that Greece achieved a measure of stability when a new constitution, based on universal male adult suffrage, was introduced. A national plebiscite among the Greeks chose Prince Alfred, second son of Queen Victoria of Great Britain, as Greece's new king. This idea, however, was rejected by the British government, who instead nominated Prince William George, second son of King Christian IX of Denmark. This compromise was accepted, and as a result a Dane became king of Greece in 1865.

Protracted Rebellion to Liberate Crete and Macedonia

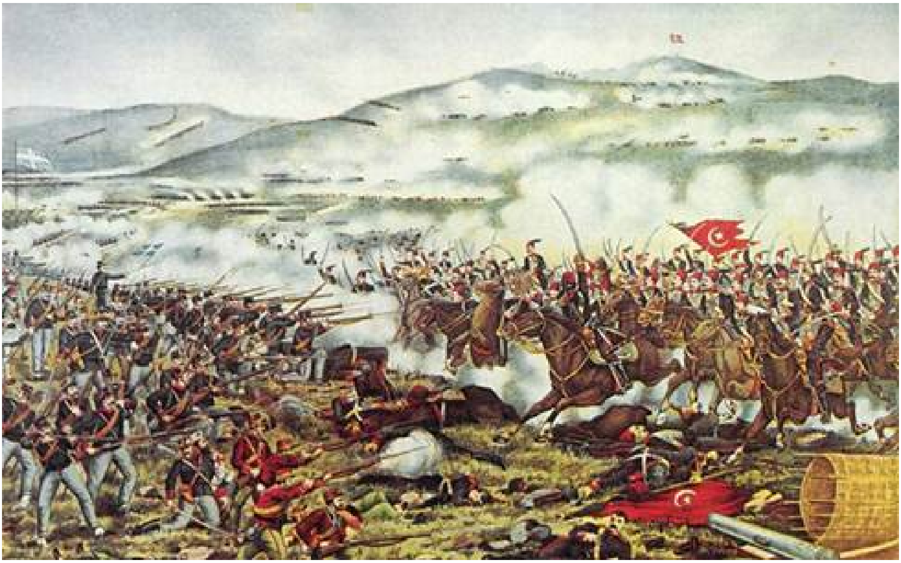
The island of Crete and the region of Macedonia still remained under Turkish rule, a fact which was regarded as a national insult in Greece. The Greeks launched an unsuccessful military attempt to seize both those territories from the Turks, but were thwarted by European intervention in the conflict.

Undeterred, the Greeks encouraged rebellions in both Crete and Macedonia. In 1886, the Cretans revolted against their Turkish rulers, and Greece sent an armed expedition to the island. At the same time, members of a secret Greek nationalist society, the Ethnike Hetairia, attacked the Turks in Macedonia.

These events sparked a new war with Turkey. The Greeks were defeated and once again it was only the intervention of the Western European powers that prevented the Turks from reoccupying Greece. Only in 1898 was Turkey finally compelled by the European powers to withdraw its forces from Crete. The island was placed under the joint protection of the European powers and, by 1912, the island had been formally reunited with Greece.

Macedonia, however, remained firmly under Turkish rule until 1903 when an insurrection broke out. Much to Greece's disappointment, most of the rebels declared themselves in favor of unification with Bulgaria. In 1912, all the Balkan states formed an alliance against the Ottomans in the First Balkan War. Turkey was utterly defeated and was driven out of almost all of its footholds on the European continent. Greece and Serbia then teamed up against Bulgaria over possession of the former Turkish-held territories in the Second Balkan War. Bulgaria was defeated and forced to hand over Macedonia and two other regions to Greece.

GRECO-TURKISH WAR OF 1897 ENDS IN DEFEAT FOR GREEKS



The Battle of Velestino, fought between Greek and Turkish forces during the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. Also Called the Thirty Days' War, the conflict was caused over the status of the island of Crete during the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. The conflict was not a success for Greece, which was forced to make border concessions and pay reparations to Turkey. It was however, to be a training ground for the Balkan Wars, which broke out two years later and in which Greece was victorious.

World War I—Greece Rewarded with Thrace

When the First World War broke out in 1914, Greece remained neutral until 1917 when it entered the conflict on the side of the Allies. As a reward, Greece received significant territorial rewards: western Thrace from Bulgaria, and eastern Thrace and many Aegean islands from Turkey.

The final unification of Greece did not provide political stability. The country was subjected to a long line of military coups, royal dictatorships, and attempted democracies before a dictatorship emerged in 1936 which finally brought the unrest to a halt.

World War II—Crete Invaded from the Air

Greece's attempts to remain neutral in the Second World War came to an end when Italy invaded in October 1940. The Greek army not only stopped the Italian invaders but also threw them into a headlong retreat back into Albania.

Only a hasty German invasion of April 1941 saved the Italians from certain defeat, as by then the Greeks had seized a quarter of Albania from the Italians.

The German army overwhelmed the Greeks. Athens was taken by the third week of the campaign and Greece was forced to surrender. A pro-Nazi government was then installed in Athens after the island of Crete was invaded by a German airborne force—the first great airborne invasion in history.

Many Greeks actively resisted the German occupation, supporting Communist partisans who operated with relative ease in the mountainous countryside. By October 1944, the German army had withdrawn from Greece, and rivalry between the competing Grecian partisan forces saw British troops sent to Athens to try and stabilize the situation.

Civil War between Partisans Ends in 1949

Civil war erupted between the competing partisans, which only ended in February 1945 with a settlement offering all parties a chance to form part of the government. In spite of this settlement, the Communist-supported partisans resumed the war which dragged on until 1949 when, exhausted, all sides agreed to halt. A democratic form of government was then introduced but remained unstable due to the large number of parties represented in it.

Cyprus—Independence 1960

The island of Cyprus, which had been a British possession since its seizure from the Turks in 1878, became the next focus of Greek foreign policy. Requests by the Greek government that the islanders be allowed to vote on possible union with Greece were rejected, and the island was formally granted independence in 1960.

Colonels' Coup 1967

In 1967 Greece was subjected to yet another coup which saw a group of army officers seize power. Thousands of Communists were arrested and many civil liberties were suspended. The army remained in firm control of Greece until 1974. In that year, Turkey declared that the Turkish population of Cyprus was being persecuted, and launched an invasion of the island.

The military government in Greece rushed troops to the island to protect the Greek population and, after a brief conflict, the island was partitioned into Greek and Turkish zones.

The crisis provoked by the Cyprus invasion, combined with continued unrest in Greece, caused the military junta to step down. Democratic elections were finally allowed and Greece has remained relatively stable since then.

Third World Entry Point

Although not a prosperous nation in its own right, Greece has become the focus of Third World illegal immigration, if only as one of the first ports of call by such immigrants in their attempts to move on to Western Europe. The capital city of Athens has, in particular, been severely affected by this mass movement of Third World immigrants.

CHAPTER 36: Risorgimento—the Resurrection of Italy after the Fall of Rome

The original Roman people who created the great classical civilization had, by the fall of the Roman Empire, been thoroughly dissipated among the peoples they had conquered. In the southern parts of the empire, which stretched deep into the Middle East and North Africa, the Romans were quickly overwhelmed by the culturally and racially dissimilar natives, while in northwestern Europe, the Romans were absorbed into the racially similar but culturally dissimilar Europeans.

This process, combined with uncontrolled immigration and the importation of masses of slaves into Rome, resulted in the native Roman population being almost completely replaced by newcomers before the end of the third century. The disappearance of the Roman people led to the disappearance of the Roman Empire. Thus, like all great civilizations whose founding people no longer exist, there are only Roman ruins to be seen today.

After the final fall of Rome in 410, the ferocious Goths and other invaders from north of the Alps ransacked Italy. The continual invasions slowly decimated the mixed-race population, which went into dramatic decline as the trading infrastructure of the Roman Empire collapsed.

The Eastern Roman Empire launched several attempts to reoccupy Italy with Germanic mercenaries. All these attempts to reestablish the Western Empire in Italy fell on stony ground for the simple reason that the Romans themselves no longer existed.

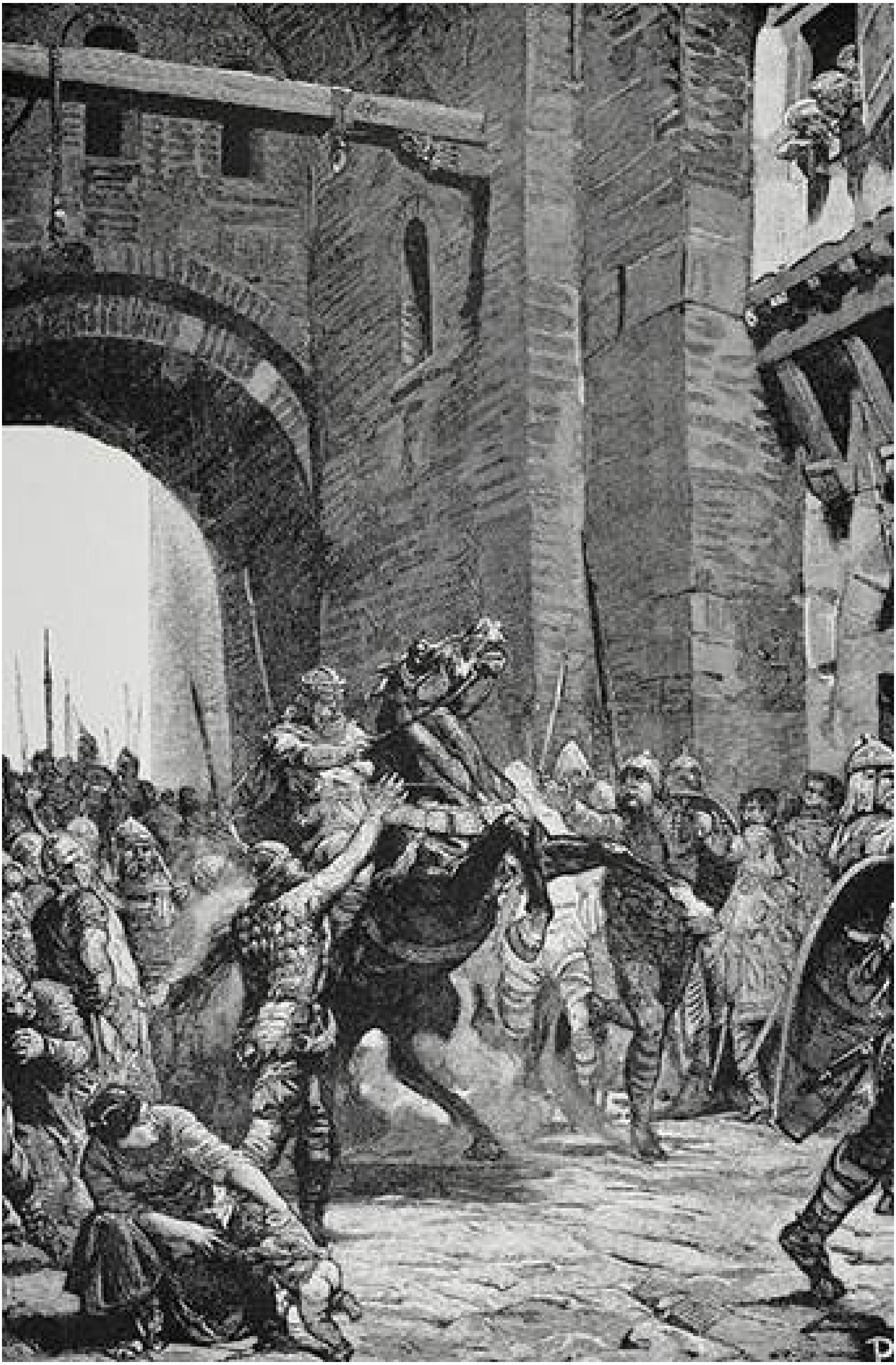
The Germanic Lombards Drive "Latins" into the Foot of Italy

Most of the marauding European invaders of Italy did not stay for any length of time. However, one invading Germanic tribe, known as the Lombards, did finally settle in Italy. This tribe crossed the Alps around the year 570 and occupied large portions of northern Italy, so that even today it is known as Lombardy.

The infusion of the Lombardic tribes into northern Italy accentuated the existing subracial divisions within Italy, ensuring that the north became more Nordic in nature than the south. The new Germanic invaders also forced the remainder—and partially mixed—

population of Italy to move south, amplifying the physical division of the country even more. This settlement of northern Italy by the Lombards was to be the most important racial change in Italy since the fall of the Romans.

GERMANIC LOMBARDS INVADE ITALY



Alboïn, king of the Lombards, enters the Italian city of Pavia. The Lombards were a Germanic people originally from northern Europe who invaded Italy in 568 under the leadership of King Alboïn. They established a Kingdom of Italy which dispersed what was left of the post-Roman Empire population. The region of Lombardy in northern Italy is named *after them.*

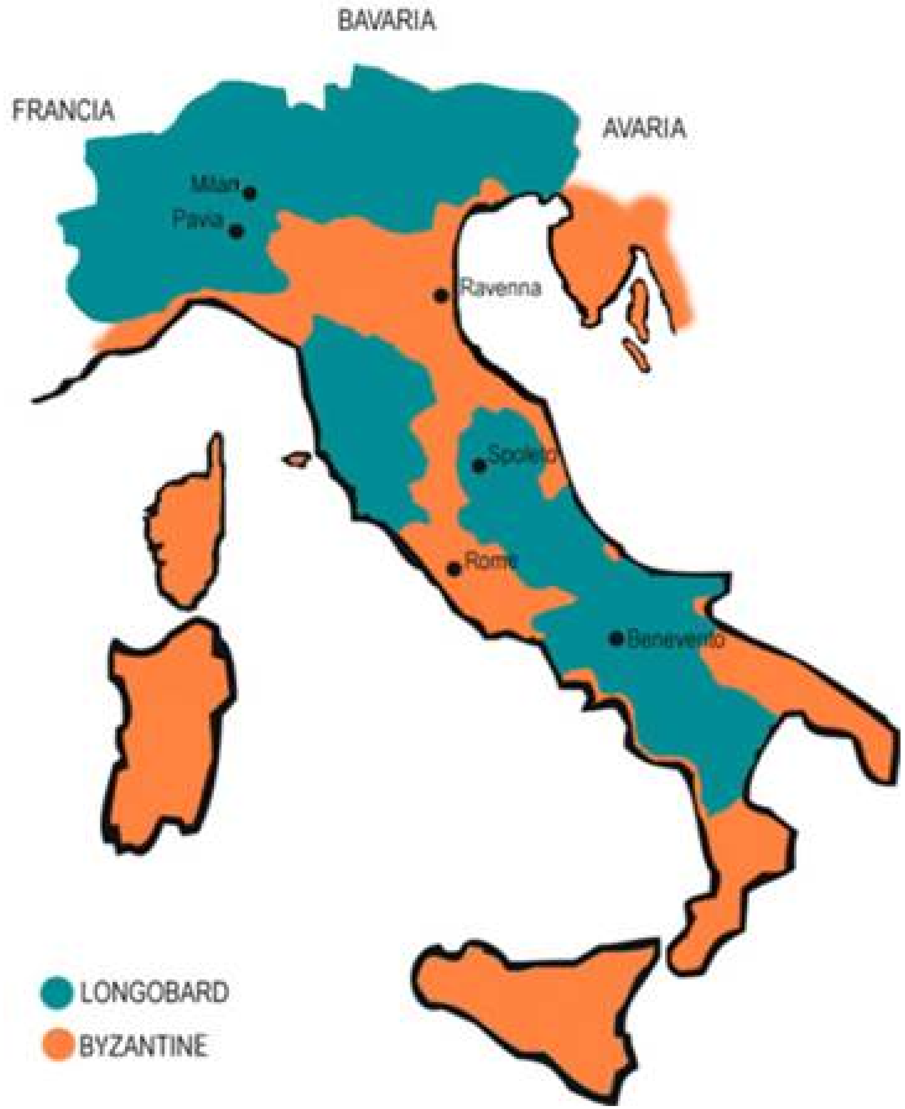
Alboïn, the "Conqueror of Italy"

Prior to their invasion of Italy, the Lombards were located in eastern Austria. Having gained fame as warriors, they were initially invited to Rome to help defeat a Gothic invasion. In this endeavour their king, Alboïn, was highly successful, and after returning home, he hatched his plan to seize Italy for his own people. The neighboring Saxons supplied Alboïn and his army with twenty thousand additional men to fight in the campaign. Alboïn led his huge army over the Alps and seized the Venetian city of Cividale del Friuli. There, he created the first Lombard duchy, which he entrusted to his nephew Gisulf. The Lombardic army then proceeded to capture the cities of Vicenza, Verona, and the remaining cities of Venetia.

From there the victorious Alboïn marched on and took the centers of Liguria, laying siege to the city of Pavia for three years. The conquests continued, and within another year the Lombards had taken all the land as far as Tuscany, with the exception of Rome and a few other fortified cities. All those who resisted the Lombardic march were massacred. As a result, the Lombards ethnically cleansed entire regions of Italy for their own people.

Alboïn made Pavia into his capital city and from there the Lombards launched several military campaigns which eventually drove the Byzantines (who had tried to recapture Italy for themselves) out of all but the southernmost part of that country. Due to Alboïn's exploits, he was given the title "Conqueror of Italy." He died in 573 without leaving a successor, and for a long time the Lombards had no king. Regional leaders known as *duces* emerged and created the basis of the dukedoms which were to feature so greatly in later Italian history.

LOMBARDS—BASIS OF MODERN NORTHERN ITALIANS


BAVARIA
FRANCIA
AVARIA
Milan
Pavia
Ravenna
Spoleto
Rome
Benevento
LONGOBARD
BYZANTINE

The arrival of the Lombards—hence the region called Lombardy in present-day Italy—was the greatest change in the racial demographics of Italy since the fall of the Roman Empire. The significance of the Lombardic invasion cannot be overstated. It forced the remnants of the largely mixed-race population further south into the boot of Italy and provided a new wave of European blood which significantly repaired the damage done to the country's gene pool. Many present-day Italians trace their lineage back to this Germanic invasion which occurred long after the Roman Empire had crumbled. The south of Italy also received renewed infusions of European blood as many German and Norman invasions established kingdoms in Sicily and southern Italy over the course of time. Thus, in the south of Italy *there are also some who can rightly claim German or Norse ancestry, as witnessed by the occasional blue eyes and fair hair which can be seen among the population.*

The Franks Invade under Charlemagne

The Lombards also differed from the rest of the Italian population in religion. Many of them were pagan, and those who were Christian followed the Arian version, which taught against the divinity of Jesus Christ.

As a result, there was no love lost between the Lombards and the Catholic Church in Rome, represented by the pope. Ongoing conflicts between the Lombards and the Catholic hierarchy in Rome led the Frankish king—and fanatic Catholic—Charlemagne to invade northern Italy from France in 774. This invasion subdued the Lombards and also added to the western European racial element of that region.

Moors Invade Southern Italy 801

The southern part of Italy, in contrast to the Germanic-invaded north, was subjected to a series of nonwhite Muslim invasions. Using Tunisia as a launching pad, the Aghlabid Saracens conquered Palermo in 831 and Messina in 842. In 846 they sacked Rome, but were driven off when the pope called on the Frankish king Louis II, Charlemagne’s great grandson, for assistance.

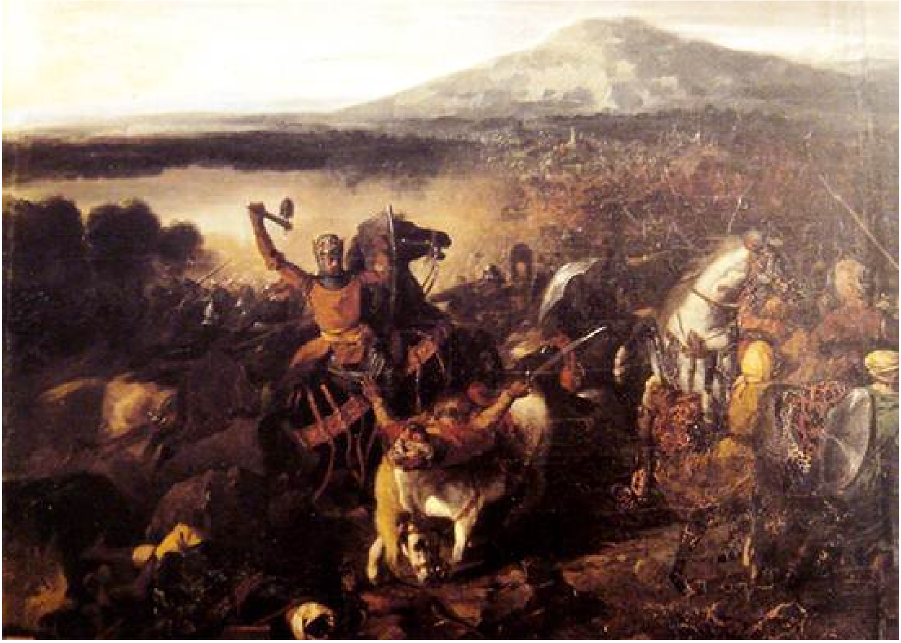
Nonetheless, the Moors went on to seize Enna in 859, Syracuse in 878, Catania in 900, and the last Byzantine fort of Taormina in 902. After the last conquest, the seized lands were set up as a caliphate in Italy and the popes were compelled to pay tribute in return for Rome not being overrun.

The Saracens Expelled by Viking Descendants

The Byzantines and Lombards launched several military campaigns against the Saracens and eventually succeeded in expelling them from the Italian mainland by the year 1100. However, it was only with the invasion of Sicily by the Normans—Christianized Vikings who had settled in France—that the Saracens were expelled from Sicily in 1127. Sicily was established as a Norman kingdom and enjoyed a period of prosperity under Norman rule. By 1266 the occupying forces had become sufficiently weak that a popular revolt in 1282 saw power on the island being passed to the Spanish house of Aragon.

The genetic fingerprint of the Moorish occupation of southern Italy and Sicily contributed significantly to the racial mix. However, the influx of Nordic blood into southern Italy bolstered the white population of this region. Southern Italy, which has seen a multitude of different races crisscross its lands over the course of history, bears testimony to this process in the wide range of coloring and subracial types which can be seen there today.

VIKING DESCENDANTS ESTABLISH KINGDOM OF SICILY



Viking descendants invaded Sicily. Roger Guiscard, one of the Normans from France—who were originally Vikings from Scandinavia—lands on the coast of Sicily. Guiscard launched a race war against the nonwhite Muslim occupiers of Sicily in 1061. With the aid of many of his countrymen, he succeeded in driving the Muslims out of much of Sicily by 1090, setting up a kingdom there. Due to the infusion of Viking blood, it is still possible to find blue-eyed blonds among the Sicilian population. Above, Roger at the battle of Cerami (1063), in which he was victorious against 35,000 Saracens.

German Otto I Conquers Northern Italy

The lack of unity among the dukedoms and city-states which the Lombard invasion had created inevitably led to a number of disputes which erupted into localized wars. These conflicts were only ended in 962 when the German king Otto I occupied northern Italy and was crowned Holy Roman Emperor by the pope.

This title was meant to signify a union of the Christian lands stretching from Rome northward including all the Germanic-occupied lands to the Baltic Sea. It was to mark the beginning of a long and tortured relationship between the German states and Rome.

Wars with German Holy Roman Emperors

The feudal system which had become firmly established in France and Germany had never taken proper hold in the north of Italy, where the larger population densities and smaller land area had tended to create city-states. As a result, there was a greater concentration of power in the hands of various Lombardic princes, who put up intermittent resistance to rule by the German Holy Roman emperors from north of the Alps.

The conflict with the German kings finally came to a head in 1167, when an alliance of cities, known as the Lombard League, was formed to engage the Holy Roman emperor Frederick I.

The League’s armies defeated those of Frederick at the Battle of Legnano in 1176. Further fighting between Frederick and the Lombardy principalities ended in 1183 with the Peace of Constance, which forced him to concede a large measure of autonomy to the cities of northern Italy.

Lombardic Trading Empire Expands Overseas

The city-state of Venice, through its participation in the Fourth Crusade, obtained trading posts and colonies in the Middle Eastern lands formerly dominated by the Byzantines. Other Lombardic city-states also expanded their influence, with Pisa, Genoa, Milan, and Florence all establishing colonies throughout the Middle East.

The Black Death Kills Third of Europe

The arrival in Europe in the mid-1300s of the bubonic plague, or the Black Death, as it came to be known, was the result of a deliberate act by an Asiatic tribe who carried the disease with them from Central Asia where it had been known from at least 200 BC.

One of the trading posts set up by the Genoans in the Crimea came under attack in 1347 by a tribe of nomadic Asiatics known as the Kipchaks. While besieging the white outpost, the Kipchaks deliberately lobbed plague-infected human corpses into the town by catapult.

The disease soon struck down a large number of Genoans in the outpost. When the survivors went back to Italy, they inadvertently brought the disease with them.

The first outbreak occurred at their first stop in Sicily, where it is suspected that infected rats on board their ship came ashore. The plague swept through Sicily in 1347 and the next year spread to Italy, France, and Spain.

By 1349 it had reached Hungary, Austria, Switzerland, England, Germany, the Low Countries, and finally infected Scandinavia in 1350. It recurred no less than five times afterward, in 1361–63, 1369–71, 1374–75, 1390, and 1400. Some twenty-five million Europeans died during this plague.

Foreign Powers Invade Italian City-States

By the end of the fifteenth century, the Italian states had become the focal point for a series of wars between Spain, France, and Austria.

These wars came to an end when the Austrian Habsburg empire annexed most of northern Italy. However, this was not to be the end of territorial grabs in Italy. In the following centuries the Italian city-states became prizes in the combat between the increasingly powerful centralized northern European states.

From the sixteenth to the eighteenth centuries these states changed hands between the French, Spanish, and Germans in what seemed to be an endless merry-go-round of rulers. None of these changes had any major impact on the population makeup, as none of the occupiers moved there in sufficient numbers to effect a significant change.

Napoleon Crowned King of Italy

After the French Revolution in 1789, a series of major conflicts took place between the French Revolutionary government and several European states. These were called the French Revolutionary Wars and they were fought from 1792 until 1802.

During one of these conflicts in 1796, Italy was invaded by Napoleon Bonaparte’s army. The French army was victorious and two states were created in northern Italy based on constitutional principles similar to those of revolutionary France. These became known as the Cisalpine and Ligurian republics and had their capitals at Milan and

Genoa respectively.

Napoleon was crowned king of Italy at Milan in 1805, and in 1806 he annexed the kingdom of Naples. By 1810, Rome had been added to the French Empire, which now stretched, either directly or through vassals, across the length and breadth of Europe.

Napoleon's ultimate defeat saw the Austrians restored to a position of preeminence over northern Italy, while in other parts of Italy some regions became independent. This set the stage for the next stage in Italy's unification process.

The Risorgimento—Reaction against Austrian Domination Starts 1830

The Austrian domination of Italy led to the growth of a disorganized resistance movement known as the *Risorgimento*. Within its ranks were a number of widely disparate Italian patriots and groups.

Members of the *Risorgimento* organized rebellions in a number of Italian states in 1820. The unsuccessful uprisings were suppressed with violence by the Austrian army. Undeterred, Italian nationalists seized the opportunity created by the 1830 revolution in France to once again launch a series of uprisings. The Austrians were forced to send a large military force into Italy to quell the uprisings.

Giuseppe Mazzini and Resistance to Austria

One of the most popular leaders of the movement to gain independence for all of Italy was Giuseppe Mazzini, who became known as the "Soul of Italy" for his ultimately successful efforts in helping to create the present-day Italian state.

Born in Genoa, Mazzini became a republican at an early age and was exiled for many years in Switzerland, France, and England after organizing several unsuccessful rebellions. By 1830, Mazzini had chosen the island state of Sardinia as the base of his operations.

In response to the 1830 uprisings, which also contained demands for democratic reforms, Sardinia proclaimed a liberal constitution. Mazzini then publicly called on the king of Sardinia, Charles Albert, to forcefully liberate the rest of Italy from Austrian rule. Fearing an Austrian attack, Charles Albert ordered Mazzini arrested, forcing the republican activist to flee to Marseilles in France. There Mazzini established a paramilitary organization called *La*

Giovine Italia (“Young Italy”) which launched armed revolutions in Italy against Austrian rule. It also worked toward the goal of Italian unification.

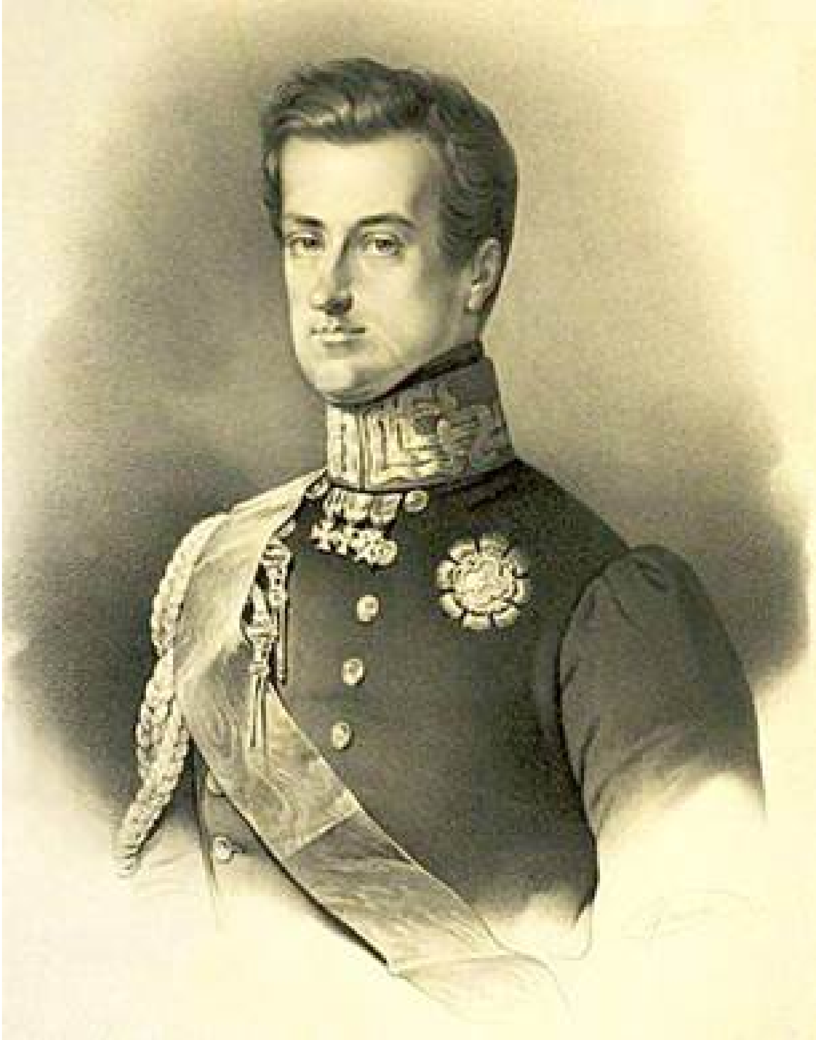
In response to the activities of the Mazzini-inspired revolutionaries, the rulers of many Italian states started cautious reforms in the hope of averting full-scale rebellions. These reforms, however, instead of capping dissent, served only to only increase demands for further freedoms.

The Uprisings of 1848—Austrians Expelled from Milan and Venice

A new round of revolutions struck Europe in 1848, all with the common demand for greater democracy and individual freedoms. When the Austrian capital of Vienna was shaken by an uprising, Italian nationalists seized the opportunity to organize a rebellion in Milan. Austrian troops were driven out of the city and soon afterward were forced to evacuate Venice as well. The autocratic rulers of Parma and Modena were forced to flee.

Charles Albert of Sardinia then attempted to turn the chaotic situation to his advantage and invaded northern Italy, casting himself as the liberator of Italy. His intervention created a measure of stability although he abdicated after suffering a military defeat. His throne was taken by his son, Victor Emmanuel II.

CHARLES ALBERT OF SARDINIA LEADS FIRST WAR OF INDEPENDENCE AGAINST AUSTRIANS



Charles Albert (1798–1849), king of Piedmont–Sardinia. He is revered in Italian history as leader of the First War of Independence against the Austrians. In 1848 he declared war on Austria, aided by volunteers from all over Italy. The intention was to drive the Habsburgs out and unite Italy. Initially Charles had great success, but when the pope withdrew his support, the Italian alliance fell apart and Charles's forces were defeated at the Battle of Custoza in July 1848. Undeterred, he resumed the war the following year, but was decisively defeated at the Battle of Novara. Charles then abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel, who oversaw the final unification of Italy.

The Pope Flees—Sparks Foreign Intervention

Pope Pius IX refused to join or endorse the growing Italian liberation movements. A resultant popular insurrection in Rome forced Pius IX to flee in November 1848. In his absence, the power of the pope was abolished and a full republic established in Rome, with Mazzini at the head of the government.

The Catholic Church was deeply angered and called upon the Catholic powers of France, Austria, Spain, and Naples to overthrow the republic in Rome. Despite Mazzini's best efforts and the capable military leadership of another Italian patriot, Giuseppe Garibaldi, the Austrians successfully invaded and occupied northern Italy. The Spanish invaded from the south and, finally, in July 1849, the French occupied Rome. The pope was once again restored.

The new king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel II, remained true to the liberal constitution promulgated by his father and gave refuge to activists who fled from the failed republics.

Garibaldi and Cavour

In 1852, Count Camillo Benso di Cavour became prime minister of Sardinia. A shrewd politician, Cavour led his country into the Crimean War on the side of Britain and France against Russia in 1855. He thereby obtained the sympathetic ears of both these Western European nations for the liberation of Italy from foreign occupation.

In 1858, Cavour and the new French king, Louis Napoleon, drew up a secret agreement to launch a Franco–Sardinian war against Austria for the liberation of Italy. The war subsequently broke out the next year as planned.

After some initial costly victories, the war was ended with the Treaty of Zurich in terms of which Austria ceded most of Lombardy to France. In turn, France transferred the Lombard cities of Peschiera and Mantua to Sardinia.

In 1860, Garibaldi, who had also fled Rome for Sardinia, acquired Cavour's help in preparing a military expedition to aid a rebellion in Sicily. Garibaldi seized the island with such ease that he then crossed onto the mainland and took Naples in September of that year. Cavour intervened when Garibaldi threatened to march on the papal city-states around Rome which were protected by the French army. With French consent, Cavour moved a Sardinian army into the papal states, ostensibly to prevent Garibaldi from seizing Rome.

Cavour, however, was cleverer than that. The occupation of Rome by Sardinian forces meant that the city and its surrounding areas became *de facto* absorbed in the Sardinian kingdom. In this way, Cavour achieved what Garibaldi had intended to do, but without the international opprobrium which would have followed an invasion of the pope's seat of residence.

MAZZINI, EMMANUEL, CAVOUR, AND GARIBALDI—CREATORS OF PRESENT-DAY ITALY

The creators of present-day Italy. Far left: Giuseppe Mazzini, a leader of the Risorgimento, labored ceaselessly for Italian unity, establishing a paramilitary organization, La Giovine Italia ("Young Italy"), to agitate for this purpose; Second from left: Victor Emmanuel II, king of Sardinia, who, together with his prime minister, Count Camillo Benso di Cavour (second from right), succeeded in politically uniting Italy. Far right: Giuseppe Garibaldi, Italian patriot who led much of the physical fighting. He invaded Italy from the south, forcing unity. Together, these four men engineered the unification of Italy through conquest and diplomacy.

1871 Italian Unification

In March 1861, the Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed. Victor Emmanuel II was declared king and Cavour became the prime minister. However, the city of Rome, as an independent state protected by French troops; and Venice, held by the Austrians, remained outside the newly declared state.

Undeterred, Garibaldi went to Sicily in 1862 and organized a new march on Rome. He was once again blocked by forces from Sardinia. He tried again in 1867, but was defeated by a combined Franco–Papal army at the city gates.

It was only in 1870 when the Franco-Prussian War broke out that France was forced to withdraw its troops from Rome. With the French gone, Rome lay open to the nationalist movement and in July 1871 the city was declared the official capital of Italy.

It was a momentous occasion, as it was the first time since the fall of the Western Roman Empire some 1,400 years earlier that Italy was a united country once again.

Colonies and the Triple Alliance

The united and revitalized Italy launched an aggressive foreign policy in an attempt to make up what it perceived to be lost ground in the European colonial race. It first secured its northern borders by concluding a formal alliance with Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire in 1878 (a pact which became known as the Triple Alliance).

Italy then turned its eyes south and, in 1885, seized Eritrea, a large piece of territory in eastern Africa. A protectorate was also established over the Somali coast. In 1911, Italian troops occupied Libya, sparking off a war with the fading Ottoman Empire. The Turks were defeated and forced to acknowledge Italian control over Libya.

World War I—Switches Sides and Gains Tyrol

Italy refused to enter the First World War on the side of Germany and Austria, choosing instead to revoke its membership of the Triple Alliance. After a period of neutrality, Italy joined the war on the side of the Allies once it perceived that the tide had swung against its former partners.

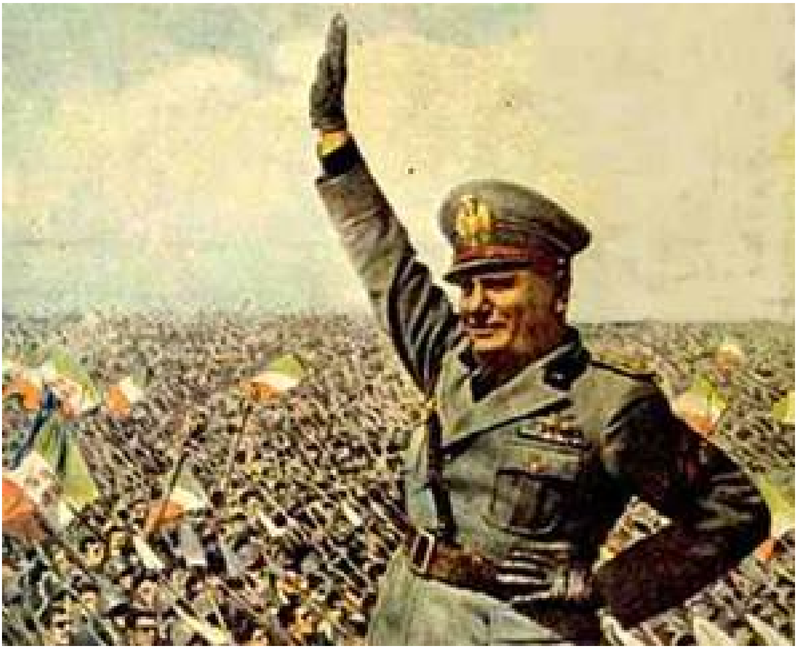
Italy attacked Austria but made only minor gains. The end of the war and the defeat of Austria saw Italy rewarded with the German territory of South Tyrol. More than half a million Italians were killed in the First World War.

Fascism under Benito Mussolini Ends Chaos

Italy ended the war in social and economic chaos, mostly caused by the presence of a powerful Communist Party which continually agitated for a full-scale revolution as had happened in Russia. The Communists' greatest opponent was the National Fascist Party (PNF), created by a former Socialist named Benito Mussolini.

Street battles between the Communists and the Fascists became the order of the day and the country slid ever nearer to complete civil war. In 1922, Mussolini and his followers led a march on Rome as an attempted coup. Although the march failed to deliver power directly to the PNF, the show of force persuaded the Italian king Victor Emmanuel III to appoint Mussolini as prime minister that year.

BENITO MUSSOLINI AND THE RISE OF FASCISM



Benito Mussolini (1883–1945), Fascist leader of Italy from 1922 to 1945. Originally a Socialist, Mussolini came to power because of his oratorical skill and ability to recreate many of the outer symbols of Roman greatness. After World War I he developed a popular support base. He marched on Rome in 1922 and was subsequently appointed to the government by the Italian king. Mussolini was initially hostile to Hitler, and threatened to invade Austria in 1934 during the attempted Nazi coup. However, Germany was the only country not to censure Italy after Mussolini invaded Ethiopia in 1935, and the two dictators warmed to each other. Fascist Italy and Nazi Germany concluded an alliance in 1936. World War II was a disaster for Italy, which was invaded by the Allies in 1943. Mussolini was deposed by the Italian king, and held prisoner awaiting trial. Hitler then sent a crack German unit to rescue his old ally and Mussolini was restored by the Germans as leader of the part of Italy not under Allied occupation. He held this position until all of Italy was overrun in 1945. Mussolini was executed by Communist partisans in northern Italy on April 28, 1945, and his corpse was strung upside down in public view in Milan. His body was eventually moved to a family vault in 1957, and is still a place of neo-Fascist veneration.

Fascism and Nazism—Key Differences

Although Mussolini and Adolf Hitler were allies during World War II, and both were often called Fascists, this term only applies to Mussolini's followers, and not to Hitler or his movement. National Socialism, or Nazism, was, in fact, completely different to Mussolini's ideology. Fascism essentially had to do with the economic and social organization of the state along nationalistic and authoritarian lines, whereas National Socialism had to do with organizing the state along racial lines.

Anti-Semitism was also a key dividing issue. Mussolini was originally pro-Jewish, and for a long time the head of the National Fascist Party in Rome was the Grand Rabbi of that city. This contrasted with National Socialism which maintained anti-Semitism as one of its central policy positions. Under the influence of Hitler, Mussolini introduced racial laws and anti-Semitic policies in 1938, but they were nothing like the measures introduced by the Nazis. The difference between Nazism and Fascism has been obscured by decades of propaganda, yet it is important in the historical context to realize Mussolini was a Fascist, and Hitler was not.

Mussolini Consolidates Power—Vatican Becomes Mini-State

After his appointment as prime minister, Mussolini governed constitutionally, heading a coalition government that included representatives of parties as diverse as Liberals, Nationalists, Catholics, and Fascists. However, after a much disputed election in 1924 which was marked by outbreaks of serious violence, Mussolini suspended the constitution and made himself answerable only to the king. By 1926, all opposition parties had been suppressed and the PNF became Italy's sole legal political organization.

Mussolini proceeded to reorganize the Italian state along Fascist lines, both economically and politically. The issue of the status of the pope in Rome—which had never been fully settled—was cleared up by Mussolini, who, in 1929, created the independent mini-state in Rome called the Vatican. This was a constitutional arrangement which exists to the present day.

Mussolini's semi-Socialist reorganization and centralization of the affairs of state meant that Italy weathered the Great Depression better than many other countries. The scenes of mass poverty which featured in North America and elsewhere in Europe were not as pronounced in Italy, and all this helped to cement support for *Il Duce,* as Mussolini became known, throughout the country.

Alliance with Germany

The rise of Hitler was initially regarded with great hostility by Mussolini, who viewed a nationalist Germany as a potential threat to Italy. Important ideological differences, as discussed above, also led to a distrust of the new German government after 1933.

Mussolini played an instrumental role in helping to suppress a Nazi coup in Austria in 1934 by threatening invasion if Germany intervened. His bold actions and threats forced Hitler to back down rather than face the possibility of a war with Italy.

However, Mussolini changed his opinion of Hitler after the international uproar created by the Italian occupation and annexation of Ethiopia in 1936. That country—the oldest independent African state—was no match for the Italian tanks and aircraft, and many thousands of Ethiopians lost their lives during the course of the invasion.

Italy was roundly condemned at the League of Nations for the Ethiopian invasion, and Mussolini was surprised to find that the only country which did not condemn the attack was Germany. Shortly after this, Mussolini concluded an agreement with Hitler providing for cooperation between the two countries.

This agreement was followed in 1939 by a pact between Italy and Germany in terms of which each nation promised military assistance to the other in the event of war. This pact became known as the Pact of Steel, or the “Axis” from which the term the “Axis Powers” came.

Hitler and Mussolini tour Rome in 1938.

World War II—Italy Changes Sides 1943

When the Second World War broke out, Italy remained neutral until July 1940 when it launched an invasion of France. The Italian army, however, was thrown back by a robust French defense, and only France's surrender to Germany prevented Italy from being invaded. The Italian war effort then blundered from one crisis to the next. It included an ill-fated attempt to invade Greece from Albania, which also nearly ended in disaster until German forces came to Italy's aid. Finally, Italy was invaded by Allied troops in 1943, an act which provoked the Italian king into dismissing Mussolini as prime minister that year. The PNF was outlawed, and a new Italian government then negotiated a surrender to the Allies in terms of which Italy joined the war against Germany.

Mussolini was placed under arrest and was awaiting trial when a daring German commando raid snatched him from the mountaintop jail and flew him to Germany. The part of Italy under Allied control—from Rome north—was declared independent as the Italian Social Republic (or the Salò Republic). The NPF was reconstituted as the Republican Fascist Party (PFR) and Mussolini became head of state. The Salò Republic then entered the war on Germany's side, dividing Italy into two opposing camps, north and south, each supporting an opposite side in the war.

The final victory of the Allied powers saw the Salò Republic collapse. Mussolini was arrested and executed by Communist partisans in 1945 and the PFR was dissolved and declared illegal, a ban which has been maintained in Italy to this present day.

Nearly half a million Italian soldiers and civilians died during the war, or just over 1 percent of the population.

Political Turmoil Characterizes Postwar Italy

Victor Emmanuel III's support for Mussolini prior to 1943 was not forgotten, and even though he had abdicated in favor of his son, Umberto II, in 1944, the writing was on the wall for the Italian monarchy. In 1946, Italy was declared a republic and the country's new constitution forbade any male members of the royal family from ever setting foot on Italian soil again. Umberto was exiled to Portugal and never returned.

Italy also lost territory at the end of the war. Under the Paris

Peace Treaties of 1947, the eastern border area was lost to Yugoslavia. Later, the free territory of Trieste was divided between Italy and Yugoslavia. The first election with universal adult franchise in Italy took place in April 1948.

NORTHERN SEPARATISM AND IMMIGRATION IN PRESENT-DAY ITALY

LEGA NORD
PADANIA
BOSSI
LA LEGA NON TI ABBANDONA

Umberto Bossi, leader of the northern Italian separatist group, the Northern League ("Lega Nord"), previously known as the Lombardic League ("Lega Lombarda"). This group has rep-resented the desire of many northern Italians to distance themselves from southern Italy because of the financial and social strain imposed upon the north by the impoverished and comparatively backward south. The League also opposes nonwhite immigration into Italy (as illustrated in the election poster alongside which shows Third World immigrants being given priority over Italians in public services).

North versus South—Economic and Social Divide

One of the main themes of postwar Italy was the continuing division between the north and the south. This was fueled by the fact that the southern population, by virtue of the historical process which created present-day Italy, contained a larger number of mixed-racial types than the north.

This north/south divide is reflected in the economic and social indicator differences between the regions. In 2006, for example, the Gross Domestic Product per capita in the south of Italy was 16,300 euros compared to the north's 27,886 euros.

Northern Italy is mostly urban and considerably wealthier than southern Italy, with its businesses accounting for two thirds of the entire country's Gross National Product (GNP). The south has a third of Italy's population but is responsible for half the country's unemployment. Its most famous export is the almost legendary criminal enterprise known as the Mafia.

During the 1990s, Sicily, Calabria, and Campania accounted for 66 percent of all murders in Italy. Repeated attempts to industrialize Southern Italy through large state projects have mostly ended in corruption scandals and intrigue.

As a result of the economic divide, the north of Italy effectively subsidizes the south through taxes. This issue—and an implicit understanding of the subracial divide which exists between the two regions—is the primary driver for a strong anti-southern Italian political movement which has long been an important factor in northern Italian politics.

The north/south divide has also been confirmed by numerous DNA studies which reflect the large population shifts which occurred in Italy over the last two thousand years. Several studies from Sicily and southern Italy have shown sub-Saharan African, North African, and Asiatic genetic strains mixed in with European.

This is not to say that all inhabitants of southern Italy are of mixed descent, but there are a far larger number of such individuals in the south than in the north. For example, tests in northern Italy have revealed sub-Saharan mtDNA markers at levels below 1 percent, while in Rome this figure rises to 4 percent and in the south it reaches 8 percent.

These trends are replicated for the other non-European admixtures. In Sicily, the non-European admixture varies greatly from region to region. Recent tests have produced varied results which range from 0 percent sub-Saharan admixture in certain villages to 14 percent in the town of Sciacca on Sicily's west coast.

Italy has also been the target for mass Third World immigration during the last part of the twentieth century and beyond. This migration has created a large and growing nonwhite population which is discussed later in this work.

CHAPTER 37: Gott Mit Uns—the Rise of Germany

German history after the fall of the Roman Empire was dominated by a seemingly never ending tale of internal intrigue, and international and religious wars. These conflicts were combined, however, with breath-taking technological and artistic development—a cycle of division and unity which has shaped much of central Europe.

Due to the highly individualistic nature of the Germans, they had a noticeably higher level of infighting than their neighbors. When German history is reviewed, the fact that they achieved unity at all is little short of a miracle.

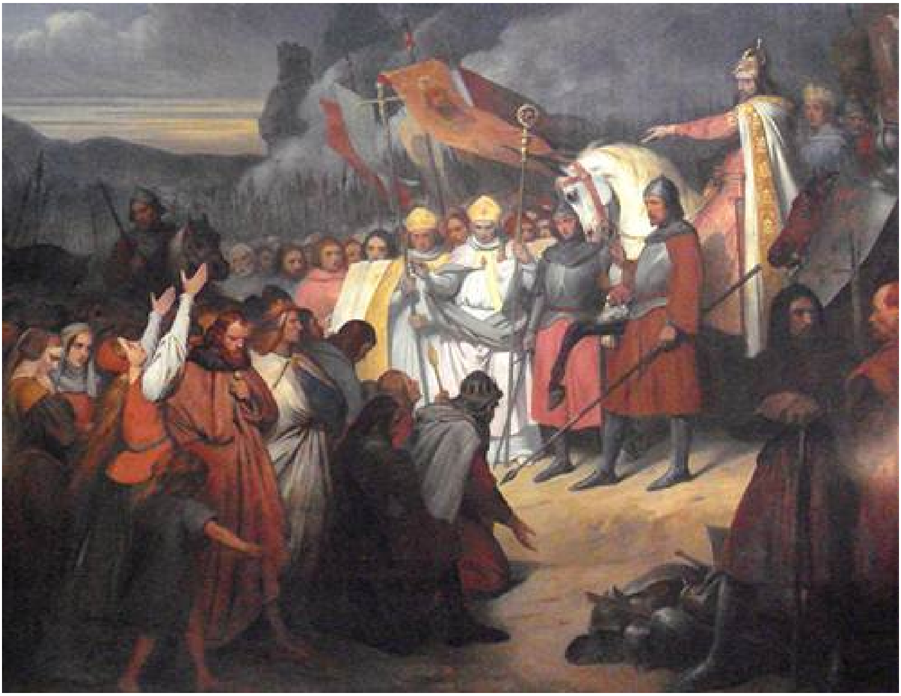
The only common thread among the centuries of internecine war was a refusal by the Germans to allow foreigners into their lands. This tradition ensured that Germany remained one of the most racially homogeneous societies in continental Europe until the last quarter of the twentieth century, when this policy was reversed. The previously high degree of homogeneity played a significant role in ensuring that the Germans survived their period of bitter civil wars and the devastating religious wars.

Charlemagne and Widukind's Rebellion

After the fall of the Western Roman Empire, Germany was left to its own devices until the eighth century when Charlemagne, king of the Franks, gained control of France and later much of southern Germany.

Charlemagne introduced Christianity to Germany, most often by violent conversion. This process did not go unchallenged. The German prince Widukind was the foremost opponent of Charlemagne's genocidal evangelism. He led a large number of Germans into open rebellion against the Frankish attempts to Christianize Germany. The pagan rebellion came to an end when Widukind was captured and forced to submit to baptism in 785. Christianity is deemed to have finally come to Germany from that date onward.

WIDUKIND SURRENDERS 785—LAST GERMAN RESISTANCE TO ENFORCED CHRISTIANITY DEFEATED



When the Frankish king Charlemagne destroyed paganism among the German tribes, he knew that it was vital to first get the leaders of the conquered tribes to convert to Christianity. Many leaders converted but others refused and were executed. One of the bitterest opponents of Christianity and Charlemagne was Prince Widukind, who led a major revolt against the Frankish king's Christianization policies. Widukind's greatest rebellion came when Charlemagne's attention was diverted while fighting in Spain against the Moors. Supported by other Germanic tribes such as the Danes and the Friesians, Widukind attacked the Christian colonies that Charlemagne had set up in Thurungia and Hesse, utterly destroying them. When Charlemagne returned to Germany, he exacted a terrible revenge on the rebels and captured Widukind. The German prince was forced to submit to baptism into Christianity in 785 and to show loyalty to Charlemagne, effectively ending paganism in central Europe. This picture shows Widukind being forced to bow before the Frankish king.

Charlemagne's Empire Divided

Upon Charlemagne's death his empire was divided up among his three grandsons by the Treaty of Verdun in 843. One grandson received West Francia (most of present-day France), and another received the imperial title and an area running from the North Sea through Lorraine and Bourgogne to Italy. The third, Louis the German, received East Francia, which became present-day Germany.

The Emergence of the German States

By ancient tradition, German kings were elected on a tribal basis. This tradition continued under the new division of the Frankish empire. Each tribe elected its own king and clearly demarcated its territorial boundaries. As disputes continually arose over succession and territory, Germany was steadily divided into a number of smaller states which varied in number between 200 and 340 over the period leading up to final unification. Despite this, the Germans continued with the tradition of electing a king. Not surprisingly, the power of this king varied according to how much support he had from any individual state. By the late thirteenth century the German states had limited the right of electing a king to a smaller number of nobles from each state, the so-called Seven Princes.

The First Reich—Includes Italy

In 936 the German princes elected Otto I, the son of a Saxon duke, as king. Through a combination of diplomatic skill and military ability, Otto won the loyalty of many of the German states and with their help was instrumental in defeating the great Magyar Asiatic invasion of Europe at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955.

Otto also led the German defense against attacks from the Danes and Slavs. The German armies were victorious, and Otto established German settlements in the lands he seized. The most prominent was the Archbishopric of Magdeburg which was created in 968.

A crisis in Italy then provided a new military campaign for Otto. In the year 951, the king of Lombardy was poisoned by a usurper named Berengar, who then seized his widow, Adelaide. She escaped captivity and sent a message to Otto in which she asked for help.

He agreed and invaded northern Italy, driving Berengar off the Lombardic throne. Otto then married Adelaide and took her dead husband’s title, thereby formally adding northern Italy to the lands ruled by the German king.

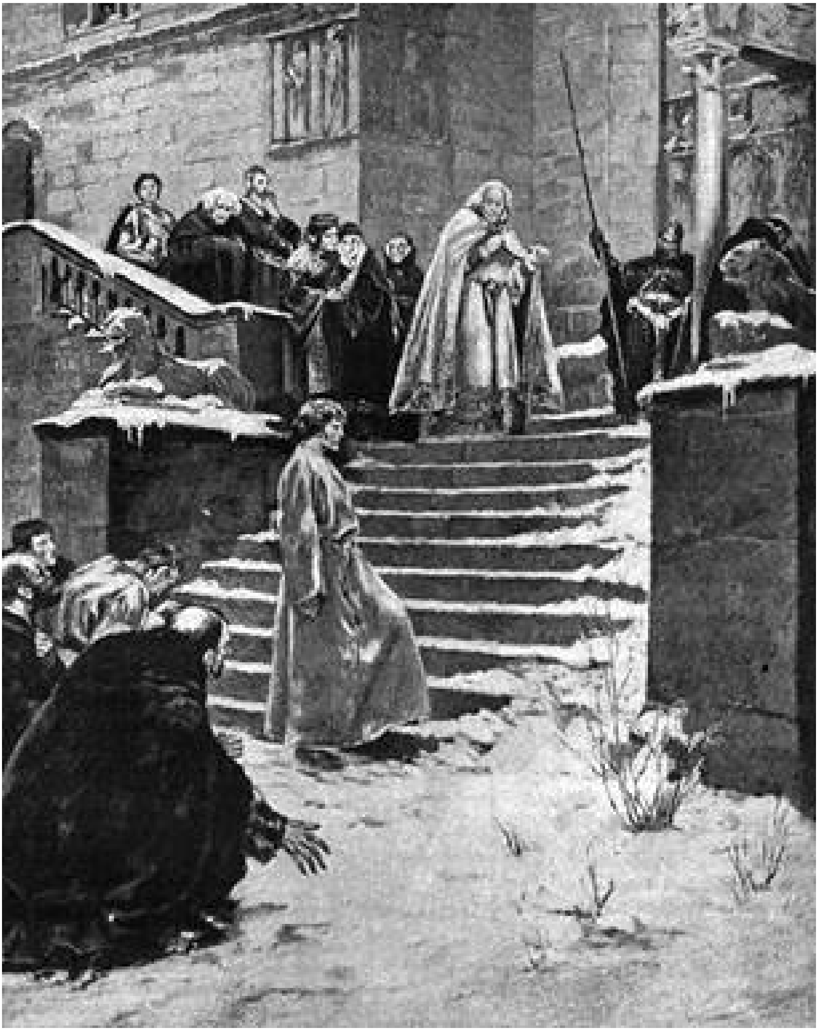
Berengar, however, was not finished. He led an alliance of independent Lombard nobles south and threatened Rome, prompting Pope John XII to appeal for aid from Otto as well. The German king then launched a second invasion of Italy, primarily to finally defeat Berengar and save Rome. His mission was successful, and the pope crowned Otto “Holy Roman Emperor” in the year 962.

Although Charlemagne had first been given this title, it was Otto who gave it true meaning and created what became known as the Holy Roman Empire. During Otto’s time, this empire consisted of the loosely associated German states and much of northern Italy, a dispensation which would last in name for several centuries. Otto’s successor, Otto II, added Charlemagne’s Eastern March (Austria) to the lands of the Holy Roman Empire but was defeated in his attempt to seize southern Italy from the invading nonwhite Moors.

German Kings Had No Fixed Capitals

The loose nature of the German states meant that Germany had no fixed capital city. The German kings therefore spent their time traveling around the territory which made up the Holy Roman Empire, being granted shelter and support by the local German princes. The vast majority of common German people lived as agrarian peasants in a feudalistic system. The few cities, such as Trier and Cologne, were populated by merchants, artisans, and uprooted peasants, the latter settled as free citizens under the authority of a prince.

CONFLICT BETWEEN GERMAN KINGS AND THE POPE—HENRY IV BAREFOOT IN THE SNOW



The power of the pope to decide the fate of kings and emperors was nowhere better demonstrated than with the humiliation of the German emperor, Henry IV. From the time of the Christianization of Germany, all German kings had to be recognized by the pope or risk losing the crown. A 1076 dispute between Henry IV and the pope led to the latter excommunicating the German king from the church. Henry, rightly concerned that he would lose everything as a result of the ban, went to beg forgiveness from the pope. He stood for three days in the snow, dressed only in the thin white robe of a penitent outside the pope's Apennine mountain retreat of Canossa. On the fourth day, the pope forgave him and lifted the ban, after forcing him to agree to humiliating terms of submission.

Papal Influence Decisive and Destructive

The important consequence of the establishment of Otto's Holy

Roman Empire was that the pope took on an important role in German affairs. Papal approval was required for each king’s appointment and on more than one occasion, civil war would break out based on whether or not the pope’s approval had been given for any particular kingship or other political event.

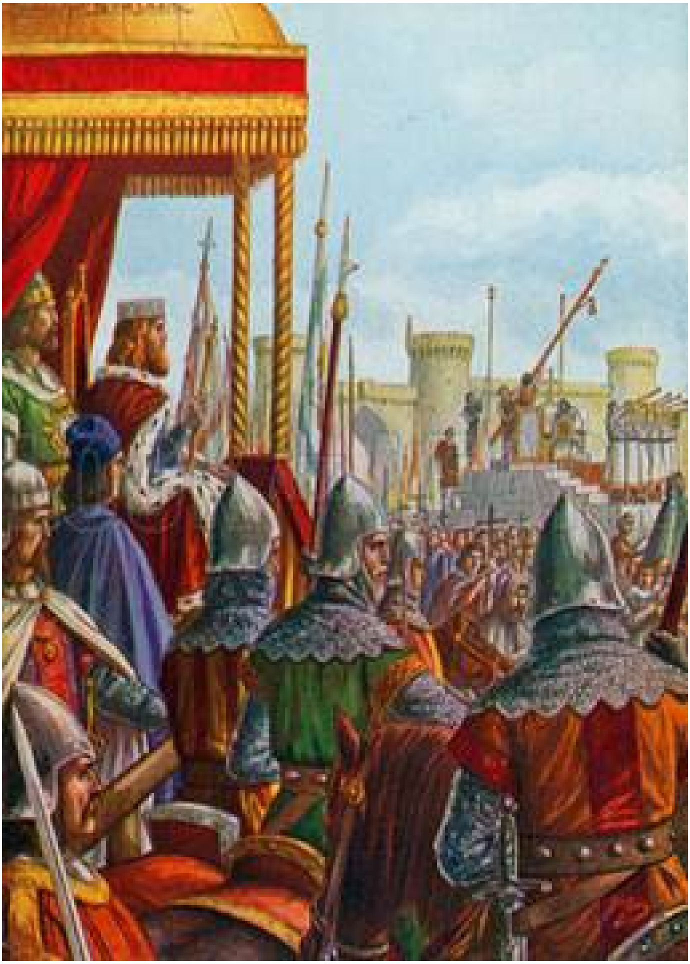
The eleventh century reign of King Henry IV serves as a good example. A series of conflicts with the pope resulted in the Catholic Church officially withdrawing its support for Henry IV. This caused several German states to refuse to recognize his kingship.

The result was twenty years of civil war which only ended when the rebellious German princes elected a new king, Rudolf, from their own ranks.

In such cases—and it happened more than once—the German king would march on Rome, seize the city and simply depose the offending pope, replacing him with one more favorably inclined. In 1080, Henry IV deposed the pope, and in 1175, Frederick I occupied Rome and threw an uncooperative pope out of the Vatican.

During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, Germany and Italy were wracked by endless internal squabbles over the succession to the throne. The Catholic Church officially intervened by supporting camps in which it saw the greatest benefit to itself, often prolonging or inciting further bloodshed in the process.

BARBAROSSA INVADES ITALY FIVE TIMES



Emperor Frederick Barbarossa enters Milan during one of his five invasions of Italy. In 1157, a dispute arose between Barbarossa and the pope and in the following year the German king crossed the Alps with an army. Barbarossa was to engage in several more serious quarrels with the Catholic Church until he died while on the Third Crusade.

Barbarossa—Invaded Italy Five Times

Eventually the Germans managed to elect a king whose parentage came from almost all the competing princedoms—thus reestablishing a measure of unity. Frederick I, also known as Barbarossa, spent most of his reign trying to consolidate the Holy Roman Empire, fighting with upstart German and Lombardic nobles in Germany and Italy.

Frederick invaded Italy successfully four times. The fifth, and last invasion, saw the defeat of his army at the Battle of Legano in

1176. Many cities in Italy became independent in all but name, which somewhat dissipated the Holy Roman Emperor's authority.

Four Issues Dominated German History

From the time of Frederick Barbarossa to the beginning of the nineteenth century, German history was dominated by four major issues:

- Holding the Holy Roman Empire together in the face of continual rebellions by German and Lombardic princes. This situation was complicated when the Normans, who had settled in northwestern France, established an outpost in southern Italy and Sicily. The Normans proved resilient foes, and allied with the Lombardic princes, led to more than one German military expedition in Italy floundering;

- Fighting a number of race wars against invading nonwhite Turks in central Europe and Sicily, and engaging in Crusades in the Middle East;

- Fighting a seemingly endless succession of European wars in an ever-rotating combination of alliances and enemies; and

- A devastating series of wars between Catholics and Protestants after the Reformation.

Cultural Development Starts in Earnest—Oldest German University in Prague 1347

During the course of the wars in Sicily, the German king Frederick II (also known as *Stupor Mundi* or the "Wonder of the World") established a large German settlement on that island. This settlement made a significant contribution to the small Nordic segment of the population. Frederick II also founded the University of Naples on the southern Italian mainland.

In 1347, Charles IV, king of Bohemia, was elected king of Germany. He turned the capital city of his own state, Prague, into a lavish court city, building many beautiful structures which still are in existence today. He also established the first German university in Prague, which continues to function to the present day.

Despite the civil wars, the German population continued to increase in size. The only hiccup in this growth pattern was the outbreak of the bubonic plague—the so-called Black Death—which struck all of Europe in the mid-fourteenth century. An estimated one third of the German population died in this plague.

The Pope's Authority Rejected

Papal approval of the German king was finally recognized as a major factor in the seemingly endless civil wars. As a result, a meeting of German princes at Rhense in 1338 revoked the right of the pope to approve the German king. The incidence of civil wars then declined. This significant shift was reflected in the title, made official in the fifteenth century, of the German king as "Holy Roman Emperor of the German Nation"—much to the protest of assorted popes—who were ignored.

The House of Habsburg 1418

In 1273, Rudolf I of the House of Habsburg was elected emperor of Austria. His ascension to the throne created one of the most powerful German dynasties ever, and in 1418, one of his descendants, Albert of Austria, became the first Habsburg to be elected emperor of Germany.

With Albert's election, another shift occurred in the process of selecting German kings: for the first time the crown became hereditary in the Habsburg line. This shift occurred in practice and not by any formal decision, with the Habsburgs simply being powerful enough to squash all dissent.

By the late fifteenth century, through marriages between Habsburgs and other noble families in Europe, the Habsburg royal house had acquired vast stretches of territory which encompassed most of central Europe and even colonies in America.

The 1521 Reformation

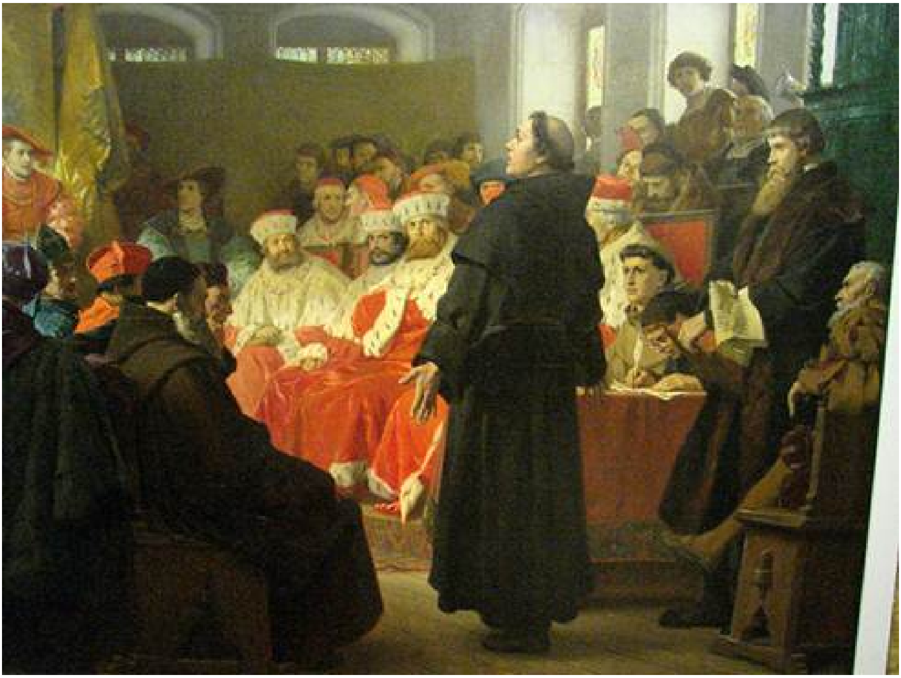
By the mid-sixteenth century, Germany was shaken by a revolt within the ranks of the Catholic Church. The demand for greater independence from Rome had already been expressed in the rejection of the pope's authority over the election of the German king and as such the scene had already been set for a more formal break with the Catholic Church. The adoption of the practice of indulgences by the Catholic Church provided the spark which was needed. Indulgences were little more than a fundraising campaign. In essence, the Catholic Church offered absolution for sins if the sinner made a contribution to church funds—selling God's forgiveness for cash.

This blatantly corrupt process so incensed an Augustinian priest, Martin Luther, that he publicly declared his opposition to the practice, placing him at odds with the church hierarchy.

Luther, who had earlier visited Rome and seen for himself how the church had turned into an organization focused on power and moneymaking rather than spiritual matters, published his famous *95 Theses* in 1517. He followed this in 1520 with three pamphlets proclaiming the "liberty of the Christian conscience."

Luther's open attack on the church provoked Pope Leo X to issue an official order (called a papal bull) condemning Luther's writings. In response, Luther publicly burned the bull and was excommunicated from the church. His popularity had started to spread, however, and increasing numbers of Germans, some motivated by genuine religious fervor, and others by a desire for German independence from Rome, started rallying to his cause.

The German emperor Charles V summoned Luther to defend himself at the Diet of Worms in 1521. When Luther refused to recant he was declared an outlaw. His life was now at risk, and one of his powerful allies, the elector of Saxony, Frederick the Wise, came to his rescue.



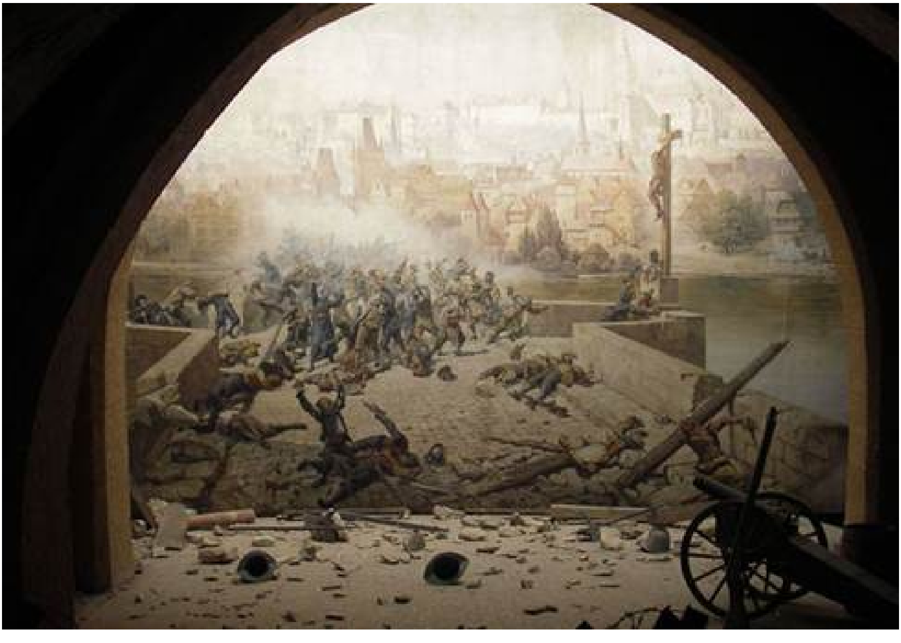
Luther at the Diet of Worms: "Here I stand, I can do no other."

Frederick set up an elaborate ploy whereby it appeared that Luther had been kidnapped so as to throw his real enemies off the track. In fact, Luther was taken to Wartburg Castle where, protected by Frederick, he started his next task, that of translating the Bible into German. This was a significant event both in religious and cultural terms.

Part of the Catholic Church's strategy of control was to keep the reading of the Bible out of the common people's grasp. As such, the Bible was only ever available in Latin and the ordinary folk had to rely on the clergy to interpret and read the scriptures for them. This was a disingenuous way of preventing people from seeing what the Bible actually said and ultimately allowed the many abuses which plagued the Catholic Church at this time. There was, however, another important and unintended effect of Luther's translation of the Bible. The dialect he used became standard German, largely replacing the variants of the language which had been entrenched in the assorted states. In that sense, Luther set the standard and created much of the present-day German language. Luther's works ultimately led to the Reformation and the major split in Christianity between those who protested (the "Protestants") and the Catholic Church.

This division then sparked a series of religious conflicts which came to a temporary end in 1555 with the Peace of Augsburg. In terms of that settlement, Charles V agreed to grant each German state the right to choose whether it wished to be Protestant (known there as Lutheran) or Catholic.

BATTLE OF PRAGUE IN THIRTY YEARS' WAR



In a major battle of the Thirty Years' War, the Swedish army under General Hans Christoff von Königsmarck attempted to capture the city of Prague for the Protestant side in 1648. After seizing the city's castle, the Swedes attempted to take the Old Town by crossing the Charles Bridge. The citizenry put up a valiant defense and drove the Swedes off with both sides suffering heavy losses.

Thirty Years' War Erupts

The conflict between Protestants and Catholics flared up once again in 1618 with the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War. This led to a devastating, four-phase Europe-wide war fought on German soil as neighboring Catholic and Protestant nations intervened at will. One third of all Germans were killed, either through conflict or famine as a result of the war. One half of the entire population of Bohemia was wiped out in this way. The war ended with the recognition of the sovereignty of each German state to determine its own religious practices.

Germans Join Crusade against Ottoman Invasion

The invasion of Hungary in 1663 by the Ottoman Turks diverted German attention away from the ongoing religious strife. German princes rallied their forces to defend the empire and rushed south. The Muslim forces were defeated and pushed back.

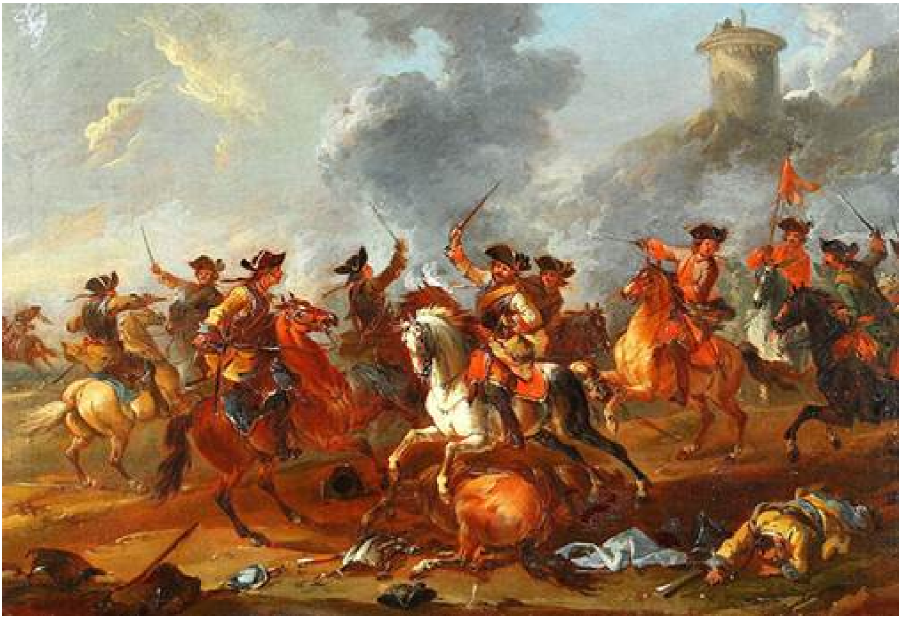
The Turks waited twenty years before trying again and in 1683 a new invasion reached Austria. In that year, the city of Vienna was besieged by the invading nonwhites. German and Polish armies relieved the city before it fell and drove the Turks back beyond the Danube River.

The victorious German armies then occupied the Hungarian territories, placing them under the sway of the Holy Roman Empire, and the Habsburgs inherited the Hungarian crown to add to their already long list of possessions.

The war against the Muslim invaders continued until almost all of Hungary had been regained. Prince Eugene of Savoy achieved a notable victory at the Battle of Senta in 1697. Thirty thousand Ottomans were killed, and the Austrians captured the sultan's harem, cannons, the royal treasure chest, and the state seal of the Ottoman Empire.

In terms of the Treaty of Karlowitz in 1699, the Habsburgs were able to formally absorb Hungary into their empire. By this time, Hungary had suffered great population losses as a result of the Ottoman invasions and the Habsburgs were able to settle large tracts of land with German military veterans as part of their pension. In this way a large amount of German blood entered Hungary once again.

INTERNECINE WARS DOMINATE GERMAN HISTORY



The Battle of Lobositz, in 1756, was the opening land battle of the Seven Years' War. The 29,000 Prussians under Frederick the Great prevented Field Marshal Maximilian Ulysses Browne's 34,500 Austrians from relieving their besieged Saxon allies, resulting in their surrender two weeks later. The history of pre-unification Germany is dominated by internecine feuds which developed into a powerful military tradition.

More Wars—More Territory Acquired

Although the devastation which followed the Thirty Years' War was immense, some of the German states were still powerful enough to engage in foreign adventures. Most notably, portions of Poland were seized by German states in the east, while others consolidated their borders by overrunning weakened and smaller German states.

Germany had scarcely recovered when the princes and the emperor plunged into a new round of dynastic struggles. The French, the Dutch, and some German states all became involved in a war known as the War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1714) which was fought over the German king’s right to inherit the Spanish throne. Large armies wreaked havoc in Bavaria and western Germany until the war ended with the Peace of Utrecht in 1714.

Prussian–Austrian Wars

By the beginning of the eighteenth century, Austria and Prussia had emerged as the biggest and strongest German states. True to form, they entered into a competition for leadership of all of Germany. The first phase of this conflict was the War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748 over the right of Maria Theresa, daughter of the Habsburg Emperor Charles VI, to inherit parts of the empire. An area of particular dispute was Silesia, which Prussia saw as falling within its sphere of influence and which it invaded in 1740.

This sparked a war which saw the Bavarians, the Saxons, and the French invade Austria and Bohemia, while Britain, the Netherlands, and Russia came to the aid of Austria. The war ended in defeat for Austria and her allies, and Prussia formally annexed Silesia.

Although the Austrians had gained Bavaria during this conflict, they planned a revenge attack on the Prussians and struck a deal with Russia for this purpose.

The Prussian king, Frederick I, anticipated the attack and invaded Saxony and Bohemia in 1756. This launched the conflict now known as the Seven Years’ War which lasted until 1763. The Austrians responded by invading Silesia and the Russians invaded Prussia while the French attacked Hanover.

Faced with attacks on all fronts, Prussia nearly collapsed. It was rescued at the last minute by the sudden death of the empress of Russia, Elizabeth, who was then replaced with Peter III. The new Russian tsar was an admirer of the Prussian king Frederick and made peace at once. The anti-Prussian alliance broke down; all the exhausted combatants agreed to make peace, and the original status quo was restored.

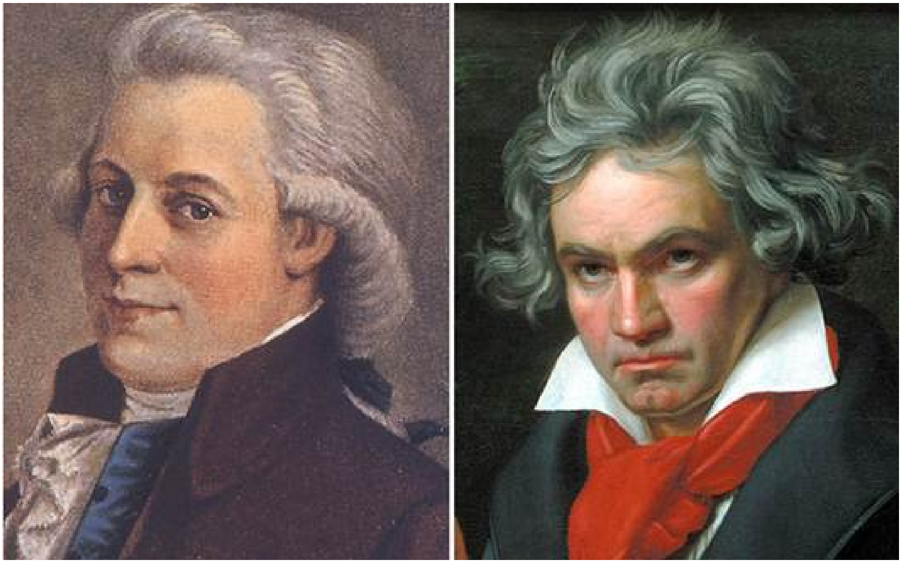
Germans Leave for the New World

The German princes financed the endless series of wars by imposing increasingly high taxes upon the peasantry and working-class Germans. As a result, many discontented Germans packed their bags and emigrated to North America. This emigration reached such numbers that eventually Germans made up as much as 60 percent of all white Americans.

Music of Germany

Germany has produced many composers and musicians of note. Among the first of these composers was the organist, Conrad Paumann, who, though born blind, was one of the most talented musicians of the fifteenth century. In the sixteenth century, polyphony, the intertwining of multiple melodies arrived in Germany. Protestant chorales predominated, and composers included Martin Luther, leader of the Protestant Reformation.

UNPARALLELED GERMAN ARTISTIC GENIUS



Two German artistic geniuses. Left: Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (1756–1791), the Austrian–German musical genius. He had learned the piano at four, and undertook his first European concert tour at six. His first opera was written when he was twelve. Right: Ludwig van Beethoven (1770–1827) is universally regarded as the greatest composer of all time, composing most of his masterpieces while he was completely deaf.

Germany was one of the most active centers of early baroque music. The baroque era culminated in the work of Johann Sebastian Bach in the first half of the eighteenth century. By the middle of the eighteenth century, the cities of Vienna, Dresden, Berlin, and Mannheim were orchestral music centers. Joseph Haydn invented the classic format of the string quartet, symphony, and sonata. Later that century, Vienna’s Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart emerged, mixing German and Italian traditions into his own style. Ludwig van Beethoven was a crucial figure in the transitional period between the Classical and Romantic eras in Western classical music, and remains one of the most acclaimed and influential composers of all time.

Napoleonic Wars and the Occupation of Paris

The German states were invaded by Napoleon in 1806. Initially, Napoleon enjoyed some success and occupied Vienna and Berlin. The Germans recovered enough to defeat the French at the Battle of Leipzig in 1813. They also invaded Paris as part of a joint offensive spearheaded by Prussian, Russian, and Austrian armies.

At the Congress of Vienna (1814–1815) which ended the Napoleonic Wars, the Holy Roman Empire was formally dissolved and replaced by a German confederation represented by an assembly (which was essentially powerless). The prominence of old style autocrats such as Austria’s Prince Klemens Metternich in the confederation prevented the implementation of any democratic reforms. This remained so even though the 1830 revolution in France spawned similar uprisings in Germany.

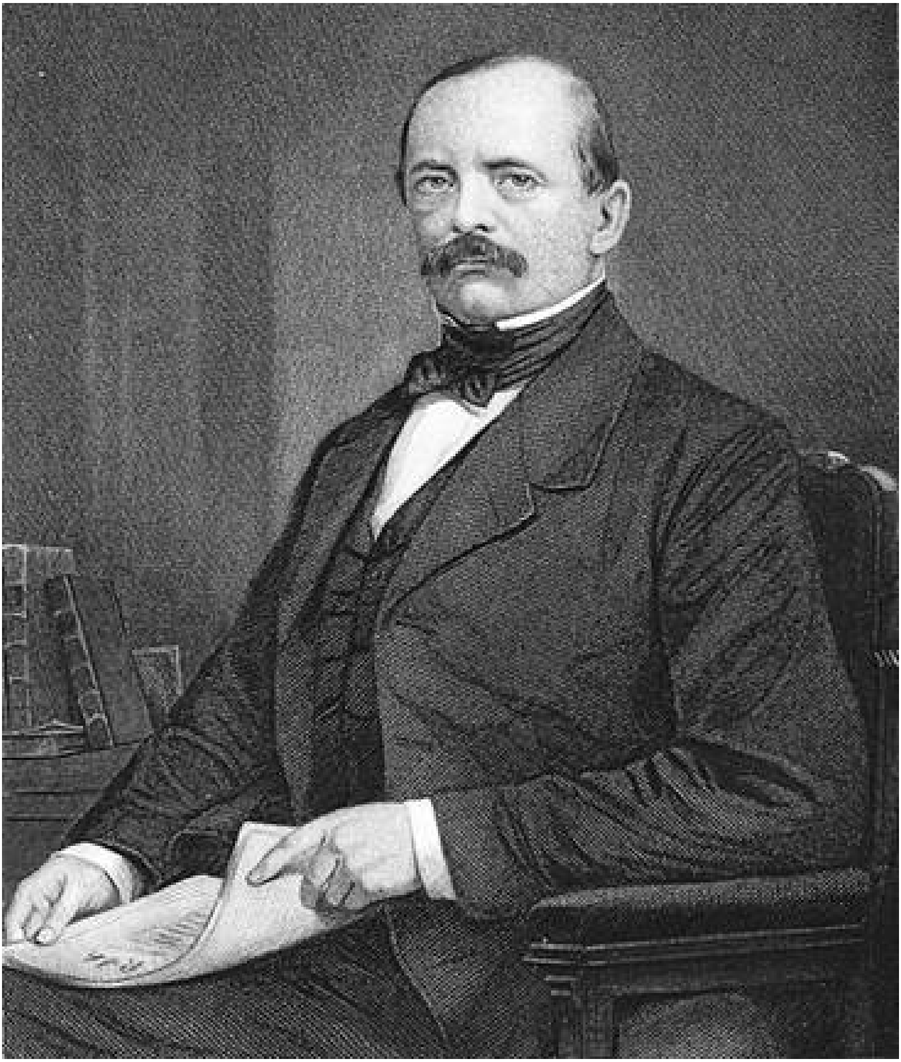
Revolutions of 1848

In 1848, another wave of revolutions, beginning in Paris, engulfed much of Europe. Nationalist groups rebelled in Hungary, Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and Lombardy. Uprisings also took place in Bavaria, Prussia, and southwestern Germany. The common theme which united all these revolutions was a demand for constitutional reforms and more democratic government.

In the face of the popular uprising, Prince Metternich resigned. Austria implemented a liberal constitution which met many of the demands, while Hungary declared itself a republic. Shocked at the rapidity of the changes, the German princes agreed to send delegates to a congress in Frankfurt to address the demands for reform.

The German congress became known as the “do-nothing” congress, as it accomplished nothing and the rebellions were all crushed shortly afterward. Austria revoked its short-lived liberal constitution, and Hungary was forcibly subdued and reincorporated back into the Austrian empire.

BISMARCK—ARCHITECT OF UNIFICATION



Otto von Bismarck, the architect of the unification of Germany and of the Second Reich. Using a combination of diplomacy and force, which became known as "realpolitik," Bismarck was the first German in history to unite almost all of his countrymen.

Bismarck Drives German Unification

Meanwhile, the Prussian king William I, together with his able chief minister, the famous Otto von Bismarck, had been plotting to unite Germany under Prussian leadership. Bismarck invented "realpolitik," which combined diplomacy with military power to ensure Prussia's supremacy. First he set up treaties with Russia, Italy, and France which guaranteed their neutrality. Then he invited Austria to participate in an invasion of the Danish-ruled German region in

1864.

The Austrians and Prussians quickly defeated the Danes, but fell out with each other over control of the conquered territories. Bismarck launched the Seven Weeks' War against Austria in 1866, with the famous General Helmuth von Moltke leading the victorious Prussian army. In terms of the peace treaty which followed, Austria was forced to give up Venetia to Italian nationalists while Prussia annexed Schleswig–Holstein, Hanover, and some other states. Bismarck then organized the North German Confederation in 1867 under Prussian leadership.

The Franco–Prussian War—France Crushed

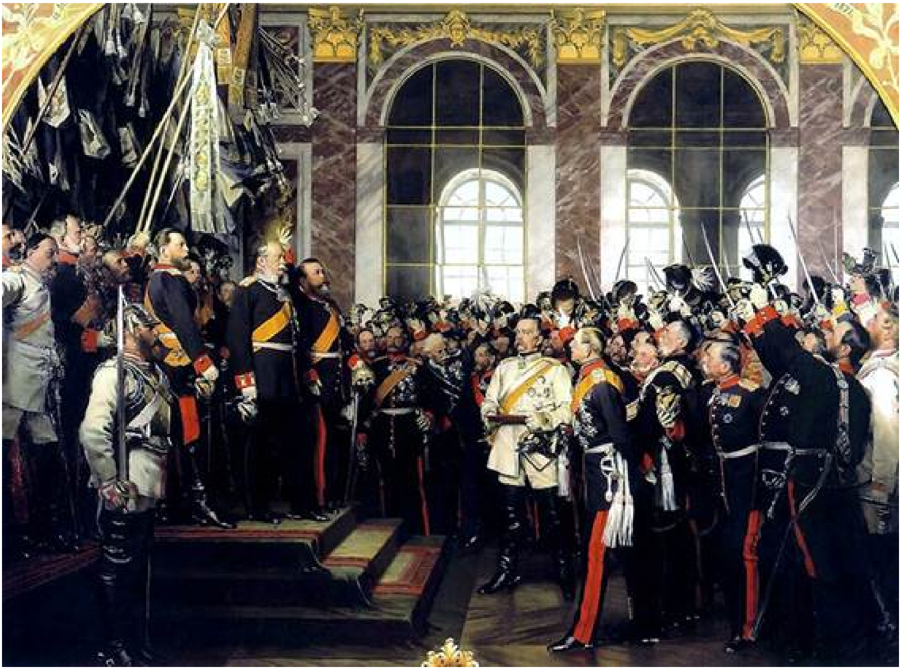
In 1870, Bismarck maneuvered France into declaring war on Prussia and the North German Confederation over the issue of succession to the Spanish throne.

Propelled by a growing national loyalty, the independent southern German states backed Prussia in the conflict. The well-trained, well-armed, and now experienced Prussian army made short work of the French at the famous Battle of Sedan and then headed for Paris which they besieged and occupied in 1871. The war ended in total victory for the Prussians.

The Second Reich—a United Germany 1871

The ease with which Prussia had beaten the French did not go unnoticed by the southern German states. They quickly fell into line and became part of a unified Germany, whose new emperor, or kaiser (caesar), Wilhelm I, was crowned in the Palace of Versailles outside Paris in 1871. The Second Reich had been created, mostly through the efforts of one man, Bismarck. Not content with political union, Bismarck then engaged in a series of social reforms which ensured that Germany also became one of the world's foremost industrialized nations.

VERSAILLES 1871—WILHELM I PROCLAIMED KAISER



Wilhelm I is sworn in as kaiser of the new united Germany, January 18, 1871. The venue was the Hall of Mirrors at the Palace of Versailles, outside Paris. Although the French had been decisively beaten, they declared war on Germany twice more in the seventy years which followed.

Bismarck Sees Catholic Church as a Threat

Bismarck was keenly aware of the divisive influence the Catholic Church had exercised in German history. He believed, quite correctly, that the Catholic Church, which had declared the infallibility of the pope in 1870, threatened the independence of the newly-created German state.

The German chancellor started what became called the Kulturkampf ("culture struggle") during which many Catholic religious orders were dismissed and their members imprisoned or exiled. Bismarck also tried to abolish the growing Socialist party in Germany, but he was dismissed from office by the new German kaiser, Wilhelm II, before he succeeded in this goal.

The age of the unification of Germany saw the great musical traditions of Germany taken to new heights. Franz Peter Schubert, Johannes Brahms, and Richard Wagner were some of the German composers who wrote music during this time period.

World War I—Kaiser Deposed

Europe became increasingly divided as the twentieth century dawned. Colonial competition, inter-European rivalry, and growing nationalism all combined to split the Continent into two camps by 1907: the Triple Alliance consisting of Germany, Austria, and Italy; and the Triple Entente which consisted of Russia, France, and Britain.

The creation of these alliances contributed to the outbreak of the First World War, the course of which is related elsewhere in this work. Suffice to say here that it ended in defeat for Germany and Austria with the signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 and the abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm II. Germany would never again have a king.

The victorious Allies severely punished the losers. Germany lost the territory of Alsace–Lorraine to France and was forced to cede western Prussia to Poland. The latter territory created a Polish Corridor which split Prussia from the rest of Germany. The major city in that region, Danzig, was declared a “free city” and administered by the League of Nations.

Germany also lost all its colonies and had to give up most of its coal, trains, merchant ships, and navy. The defeated Germans also had to agree to limit the size of their army and submit to Allied occupation of the Rhineland for fifteen years.

Finally, in what was clearly an outrage, Germany was obliged to accept full responsibility for causing the war and consequently to pay its total cost. This bordered on the bizarre, given that the Allies had declared war on Germany and not the other way around. As a result, the stipulations of the Treaty of Versailles become known as the “Shame of Versailles” and provided much propaganda for the postwar German nationalist movement.

YOUNG ADOLF HITLER IN MUNICH CROWD HEARING NEWS OF OUTBREAK OF WORLD WAR I

A young Adolf Hitler (circled), in the crowd outside Munich's Feldherrnhalle in 1914, listens to the announcement of the start of the First World War. This photograph was taken by Munich photographer Heinrich Hoffman who did not know Hitler at the time.

The Weimar Republic—Catastrophic Inflation Follows Domestic Unrest

As the war drew to a close, the German domestic political situation was dominated by large-scale social unrest and an attempted Communist revolution which tried to emulate the Bolshevik seizure of Russia the year before. The German Communist revolution, known as the Spartacist Uprising, took place in 1919 in Berlin and was led by the German Jewish Communists, Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg. Although suppressed, the Jewish leadership of the attempted coup help cement in the German public's consciousness an association between Jews and Communism which was later exploited by the Nazi party.

Once the Communist revolution had been suppressed, a new democratic constitution was drawn up which included an elected parliament. The new state was called the Weimar Republic because the first parliament sat in the town of that name. Although the state had been created by Socialists, it was opposed by hard-line militant Communists as not going far enough, while on the right, groups of disaffected military groups launched their own attempted coup, called the Kapp Putsch in 1920. The rightists sought to utterly destroy the Communist movement in Germany, arguing that they had been "stabbed in the back" by Communists at home while they were fighting on the front. The Kapp Putsch was also suppressed by the state.

In addition to dealing with armed insurrection, the Weimar Republic faced severe financial crises. As Germany could not meet reparations requirements, France invaded the Ruhr in 1923 to take over the coal mines, using sub-Saharan African occupation troops. The German government encouraged its citizens to engage in passive resistance, all the while printing massive amounts of money to try and pay off the war reparations. This resulted in a wave of inflation which, when combined with the effect of the 1929 Great Depression, wiped out savings, pensions, insurance, and other forms of fixed income. Millions of German households were ruined as a result.

Adolf Hitler Elected to Office

Millions of Germans then turned to either the Communist Party or Adolf Hitler's National Socialist German Workers' Party as salvation for their country's desperate situation. Eventually Hitler was elected to office by a democratic vote and became supreme ruler of Germany.

Using a combination of nationalist and socialist policies, some of which were highly unorthodox, the Hitler government repaired the German economy and eradicated unemployment. German workers enjoyed one of the highest standards of living in Europe and were also the highest paid. Hitler undid all the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, thereby restoring Germany's honor in the eyes of many of its citizens. As a result, a referendum in January 1938 saw the German people endorse the Hitler government by a 99 percent majority vote.

World War II Erupts after Germany Invades Poland

Hitler's desire to take back all the German lands which had been stripped away by the Treaty of Versailles resulted in the reoccupation of the Rhineland, the incorporation of the Sudetenland from Czechoslovakia, and the annexation of Austria. The only part of Germany which remained under foreign rule by 1939 was the Polish-held corridor which split Germany from Prussia and which contained the German city of Danzig.

The Poles refused to make any concessions on the "Danzig Corridor," as it became known, even when Germany offered to let the Polish occupation remain in place in exchange for the right to build rail and road links to East Prussia. After all peaceful avenues had failed, Germany invaded Poland in September 1939 to force the return of the Danzig Corridor. This caused Britain and France to declare war on Germany (although those nations failed to declare war on the Soviet Union when it invaded Poland from the east that same month), which led to the Second World War.

The course of that tragic conflict is discussed in another section of this work. Suffice to say here that initial German victories saw Poland, Denmark, Norway, Holland, Belgium, France, Yugoslavia, and Greece occupied by German troops. Further German campaigns saw large parts of North Africa and nearly half of the Soviet Union west of the Ural Mountains overrun.

Germany's opponents (Britain, America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the Soviet Union), being numerically superior, overwhelmed and utterly defeated the German army by 1945. Some seven million Germans were killed, either as combatants or civilians who died in the carpet bombing of that country by the Allied powers. Huge sections of German territory in the east were permanently stripped away with the resident German population forcibly expelled.

During the course of that expulsion, some two million additional German civilians perished. Finally, some 800,000 German prisoners of war were starved to death in Allied POW camps after the war, with the Soviet Union only releasing the last of its German prisoners in 1955.

COLOGNE'S DESTRUCTION SYMBOLIZES GERMANY'S DEFEAT IN 1945

The destruction surrounding the famous Cologne Cathedral in this 1945 photograph symbolizes the defeat of Germany in World War II. Years of carpet bombing destroyed the majority of buildings in every major city, and Germany's infrastructure was reduced to ruins.

The Berlin Wall Is Built

The end of the war saw Germany divided into four occupation zones, each controlled by a major Allied power. The French, British, and American zones were located in the west of Germany, while the Soviet zone encompassed the east. Even though Berlin was deep inside the Soviet-occupied zone, it, too, was divided into four zones. The Western Allies controlled approximately half of the city while the Soviets kept control of the remainder.

After it became clear that the Soviet Union was not going to give democratic government to the parts of Eastern Europe it had occupied by the war's end, tensions rose between that power and the Western Allies. This conflict became known as the Cold War and lasted right up to 1990, when Communism finally collapsed.

During the course of the Cold War, however, the division between East and West Germany became the focal point of that conflict, with Berlin being a literal front line. In 1948, the Soviets started a blockade there, hoping to drive the Allied occupation forces out and to starve the Western zones into submission.

BERLIN WALL DIVIDES GERMANY AND SYMBOLIZES COLD WAR

The Berlin Wall, erected in 1961 by the Communist German Democratic Republic, completely encircled West Berlin. The wall succeeded in halting the mass exodus of Germans fleeing Communism, and was only knocked down after 1989 when the East German regime fell. The fall of the Berlin Wall symbolized not only the unification of Germany, but the fall of Communism.

The American, British, and Allied air forces kept supplying the city through a massive airlift operation. After nearly a year, the Soviets gave up. In the interim, the Western Allies gave self-government back to the western parts of Germany which became the Federal Republic of West Germany. Although meant to be a full democracy, the new state’s constitution banned political parties deemed a threat, which included the Nazi Party and an early version of the German Communist Party.

ALLIED AIRCRAFT SUPPLY BERLIN 1948–1949

An American aircraft lands in West Berlin as part of an air supply lifeline to the western-controlled zone during the Berlin Blockade which lasted from June 24, 1948 to May 11, 1949. The blockade was one of the first major international crises of the Cold War. The Soviet Union blocked the Western Allies' railway and road access to Berlin with the aim of forcing the Western Allies out of the city. In response, the Berlin airlift was organized. The United States Air Force, Royal Air Force, and Commonwealth nations flew over 200,000 flights providing thirteen thousand tons of food daily to Berlin. By the spring of 1949 it was clear that the airlift was a success and the Soviets called off the blockade.

In response to the creation of West Germany, the Soviet Union created the German Democratic Republic, better known as East Germany. Tensions between the two competing German states heightened with the 1961 erection of a wall which encircled all of West Berlin.

This construction, known as the Berlin Wall, was initially meant to halt the tide of East Germans fleeing to West Germany, but quickly became an international symbol of the Cold War.

West German Economic Miracle

Despite suffering huge infrastructure damage during the war, the West German economy was rebuilt within a matter of fifteen years. By 1960, West Germany was the most powerful economy in Europe, a status which it has maintained ever since. All of the major cities were rebuilt and almost all traces of the wholesale destruction were obliterated.

This contrasted strongly with East Germany, which, under a strict Communist regime, failed to perform as well as its western neighbor. Much war damage remained unfixed until the 1990s, and the East German economy, although the best performing in the entire Communist bloc, was never comparable to that of West Germany.

Attempted Communist Insurrection Fails

In the 1960s, West Germany was shaken by the emergence of extreme left-wing terrorist movements dedicated to the destruction of capitalism in that state. The Red Army Faction (RAF), also known as the Baader–Meinhof Group, was the most well-known of these organizations. It operated in various guises from the late 1960s to 1998. The RAF's high point came with a series of attacks in 1977 which led to a national crisis that became known as "German Autumn."

Although more well-known, the RAF conducted fewer attacks than the Revolutionary Cells (RZ), which, between 1973 and 1995, committed hundreds of terrorist incidents including bomb attacks and arson.

These organizations were all funded and financed by East Germany in one form or another, and only faded as a national threat with the collapse of the Communist bloc.

1989 Berlin Wall Falls

The fall of the Soviet Union and the collapse of the Communist Bloc in 1989 resulted in the Berlin Wall being torn down by a deliriously happy German mob. In October 1990, East and West Germany were formally reunited, boosting the German population to approximately eighty million, which including at least seven million non-German guest workers, or "Gastarbeiters." The newly unified Germany joined the European Union that same month, becoming its twelfth member. Finally, in 1994, the last Russian and Allied troops left Berlin—the first time in forty-nine years that it was free of foreign occupation.

“GASTARBEITERS” LEAD TO PERMANENT RESIDENCE

The influx of nonwhite caused the single most significant racial change in the makeup of the German population since ancient times. Beginning in the 1950s, Turks came to Germany to do manual labor. At first the idea was that these nonwhites would be “Gast-arbeiters,” guest workers, who would then leave when their contracts expired. This did not happen, and, in 2000, the German government started giving these foreigners citizenship. Above, “Turkish Day” in Berlin, 2010.

Population Shifts—Nonwhite Numbers Swell

It was only in the last quarter of the twentieth century that Germany, like its European neighbors, allowed large numbers of nonwhites to enter its borders in significant numbers. The initial influx came from Turkey, but eventually large numbers from all over the world settled there as well. By the beginning of the twenty-first century, at least 12 percent of the total population of Germany was nonwhite, with a proportionally far greater number among the school-age population. These developments and their significance are discussed later in this work.

CHAPTER 38: The Doomed Empire—Austria and Hungary

The histories of Austria and Hungary have been intertwined since the days of the Roman Empire. The story of these two nations is tumultuous: they were invaded by Asiatics and Turks and had to fight perilous battles for their very existence. After surviving these trepidations, the two names were united as the Austro–Hungarian Empire which lasted till the end of the First World War.

Both nations dramatically influenced the course of events in Europe. Important racial battles which kept the Huns, Avars, and Ottomans from destroying Europe were fought on Austrian and Hungarian soil.

PRE-EMPIRE AUSTRIA

Ancient Austria—Site of the Hallstatt and Urnfield Cultures

Although there is evidence of an Old European culture in Austria, the country is most famous in prehistory terms for its early Iron Age sites. Excavations at Hallstatt, near Salzburg, have produced some of the best preserved early Indo-European artifacts all dating from before 1000 BC. One of the most significant finds was an intricate wagon which displayed a high degree of craftsmanship.

Due to the location in which they were found, these artifacts became known as the Hallstatt Culture. Similarly, other early finds in the region have become known as the Urnfield Culture (the “urn field” culture) with the discovery of many grave sites containing urns and intricate pottery.

Part of the Urnfield Culture exhibition in the Universitätsmuseum für Kulturgschichte, Marburg.

Roman Occupation 15 BC Leads to Founding of Cities

The Celtic tribes occupying the area now called Austria had established a kingdom known as Noricum. This kingdom was overrun in 15 BC by the expanding Roman Empire and incorporated into the province of Styria. The Romans knew that this territory formed a natural defense protecting northern Italy from German invasion, and built a number of important forts and towns in Austria, the remains of which can be seen to the present day.

Germanic Invasions after Roman Decline

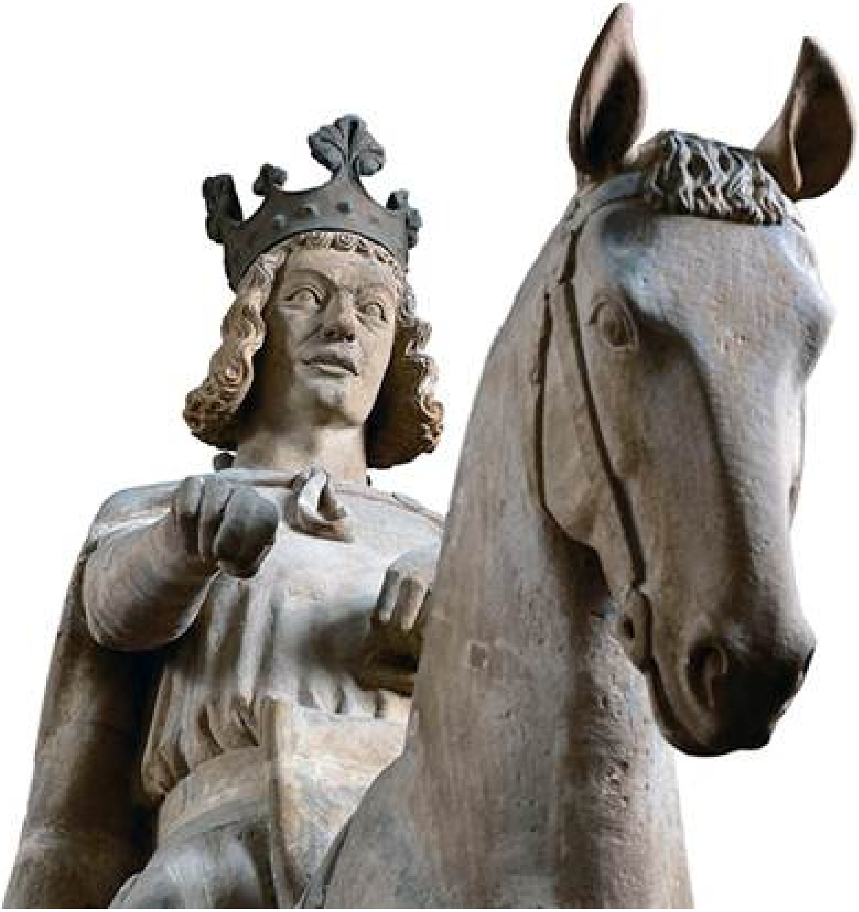
The Romans never conquered the Germanic tribes to the north of Austria. As a result, the border with Germania, as it was named by the Romans, remained heavily guarded. Despite this, German raids remained a constant problem and became increasingly serious after the year 166. The decline in Rome’s power meant that the last frontier outposts in Austria collapsed by the fourth century. This resulted in the entire region being seized by Germanic tribes who established a series of tribally based principalities.

Charlemagne and the Eastern Mark

During the eighth century, the Frankish king Charlemagne conquered the German tribes and forced Christianity onto them. He then set up military bases and declared it the “Eastern Mark” or, in

German, the “Ostmark” (from which the present-day German name for Austria, Österreich is derived). Charlemagne set up the Eastern Mark to act as a buttress against the attempted invasion of central Europe by the Asiatic Avars. This ploy worked, and the Avars were defeated and driven away without the Frankish kingdom ever being threatened.

OTTO I—DEFEATS MAGYARS, FOUNDS AUSTRIA 955



Otto I (912–973), the founder of Austria. He defeated the Asiatic Magyar invasion at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955 and thereafter created a formal government in the region now known as Austria. Otto’s other exploits were equally spectacular. In 951 he marched to Italy to assist Adelaide, the widowed queen of Lombardy, against a usurper. Otto married Adelaide, thereby becoming ruler of northern Italy. Upon his return to Germany, he crushed a rebellion of nobles led by his son Liudolf, and halted a Hungarian invasion in 955. In 962, he was crowned Holy Roman Emperor —but the next year he deposed Pope John XII and had Leo VIII elected in his stead.

Otto I Founds Austria 955

The Avars were replaced by a new threat, the Asiatic Magyars. A determined military campaign under the leadership of the German king Otto I saw the Magyars defeated at the Battle of Lechfeld in 955. During the campaign, Otto took control of the Ostmark and set up a formal government in the region. This move laid the basis for the present-day Austrian state, and Otto can rightly be regarded as its founder.

Austrian Empire Grows under German Noble Houses of Babenburg and Habsburg

Under the rule of the German noble house of Babenburg, the Austrian empire gradually increased in size and improved its infrastructure. This period came to an end when the male line of the Babenburgs became extinct in 1246 after Frederick II, called "the Quarrelsome," was killed in battle.

After some years of struggle known as the *interregnum,* the crown passed to Rudolph I of the House of Habsburg after 1276. His descendants were to rule Austria until 1918.

Through a process of military campaigns and political marriages, the Habsburg empire grew steadily in size. By the mid-1550s it had grown so large that it included Spain. The administrative burden of ruling such an expansive territory grew too great, and it was divided into two parts: Spanish and Austrian under separate Habsburg rulers.

The Thirty Years' War—Protestant Rebellion Divides Austrians

The Protestant rebellion against Catholicism spread to the Austrian Empire. In 1618, this became a European-wide conflict known as the Thirty Years' War. It was fought mainly on German soil after a Catholic king of Austria had been deposed by Protestant rebels. Ultimately, the House of Habsburg was defeated at the end of the Thirty Years' War and, in terms of the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their centralized control of the empire was reduced to a loose union of independent states.

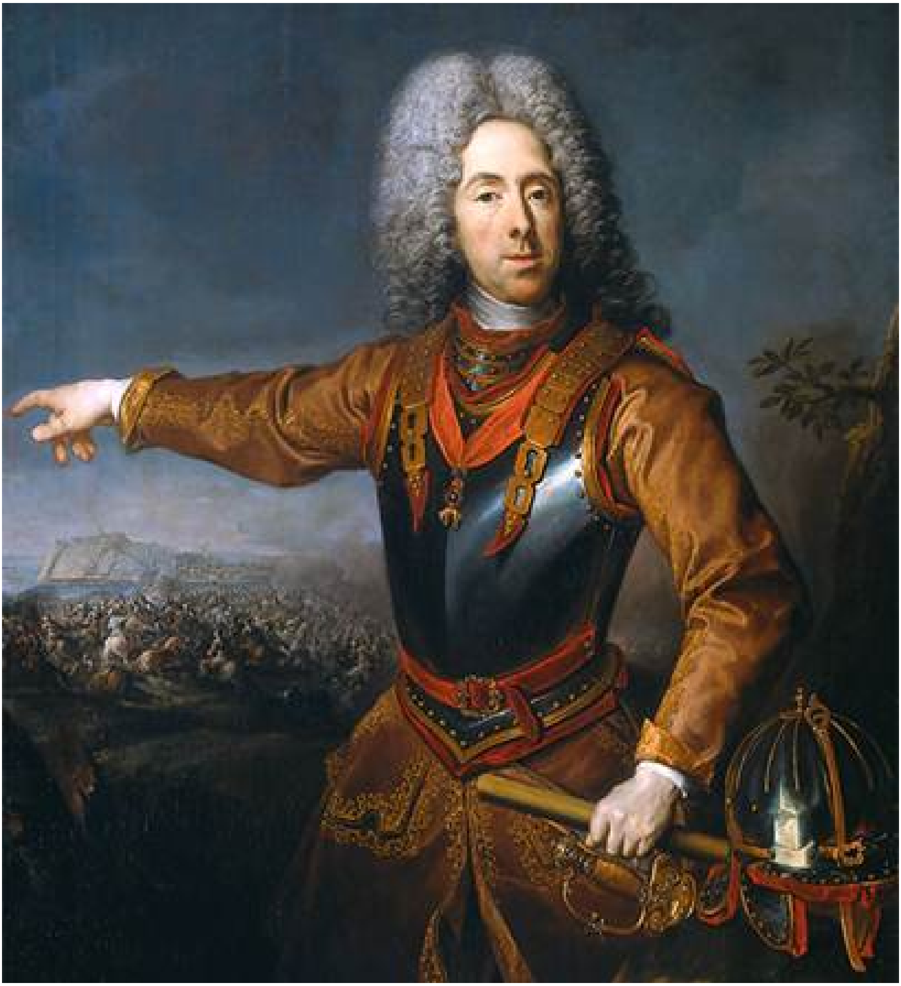
The Ottoman Invasion—Vienna Besieged 1683

No sooner had the Thirty Years' War ended than the nonwhite

Ottomans invaded from their bridgehead in the Balkans. The city of Vienna was besieged by the invaders in 1683 forcing the Austrian king to withdraw his court to Linz.

Most of the city's inhabitants followed the king, while a small garrison stayed behind to defend the capital. The siege was lifted when a combined Austrian, German, and Polish army defeated the Ottomans and forced them to retreat. The avenging Austrian army pursued the fleeing Ottomans south and thereby occupied the territory later known as Hungary.

TURKISH FOE—FRENCH-BORN EUGENE OF SAVOY



A great hero: Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663–1736). Although remembered as an Austrian general, he was born in Paris of French parents. His mother was exiled by the French king Louis XIV, whereupon Eugene renounced his

French citizenship and joined the Austrian army. He took part in many European wars, notably against the armies of Louis XIV, but it was his continual victories against the Ottoman Turks that brought him his greatest fame. In 1697, as commander of the Austrian army in Hungary, he utterly defeated the Ottomans at the Battle of Senta. In 1716, he again led an army, this time consisting of Hungarians, against the Turks and defeated them at the battles of Petrovaradin, Temesvár, and Belgrade. In 1781, he led a decisive rout of the nonwhite armies which forced the Turks back even further south.

European Wars See Austria Emerge as Leading Power

The period following the Ottoman defeat saw the emergence of Austria and its now subject Hungarian territories emerge as a major European power. This brought it into conflict with the other emerging German power, Prussia. A series of internal wars and conflicts, which culminated in the Seven Years' War (1756–1763), saw Austria lose the important provinces of Silesia and Bohemia to Prussia. From 1792 to 1815, Austria was dragged into the Europe-wide conflict known as the French Revolutionary Wars. Invaded by Napoleon's armies, Austria fell under French rule and in 1806 Napoleon formally abolished the Holy Roman Empire.

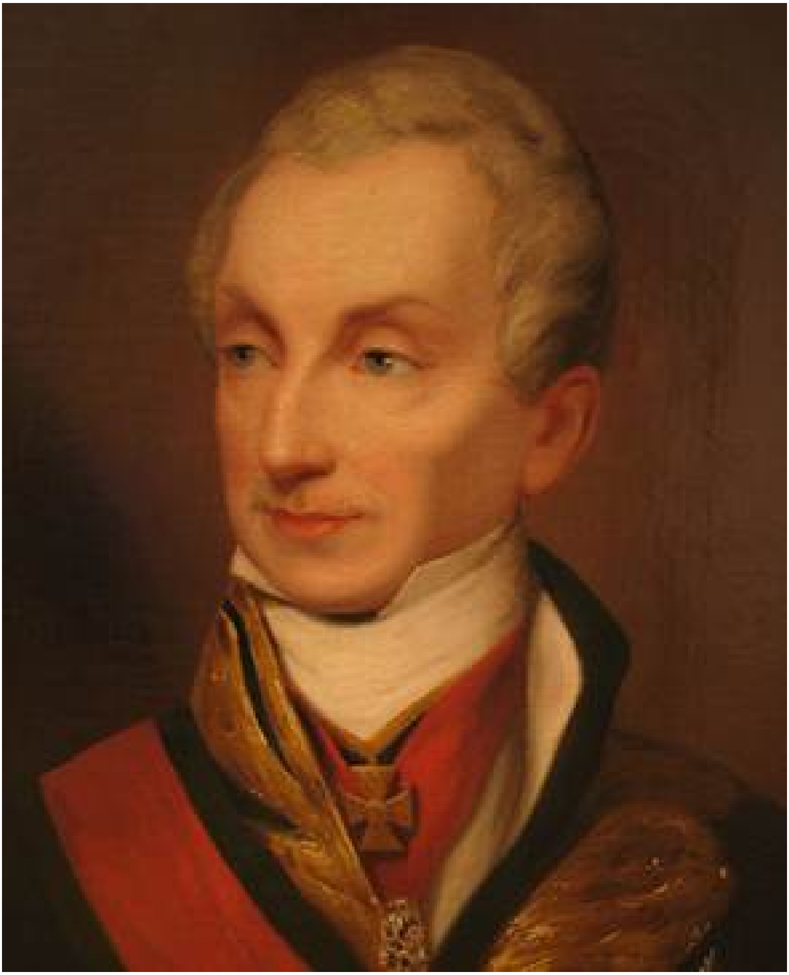
The Austrians rose in rebellion and formed part of the combined anti-Napoleonic forces which finally defeated the French imperialist adventure. Austria gained considerable prestige as a result of its war efforts, something which was reflected in the fact that the main conference ending the wars was held in Vienna in 1815. That conference, known as the Congress of Vienna, reestablished the House of Habsburg and its territories.

Autocrat Metternich Bolsters Austrian Empire

The reestablished Austrian state was dominated by its chancellor, Prince Clemens von Metternich. Appointed by the king and answerable only to him, Metternich transformed the Austrian branch of the Habsburg empire into the leading power on the European continent.

A stern autocrat, Metternich was taken by surprise by the 1848 wave of revolutions in Europe which forced many royal houses to implement constitutional and social reforms. Metternich resigned in the face of a peasants' revolt in Vienna, and the Austrian king introduced a parliamentary government in Austria. This concession was short-lived and the Austrian king abolished the new constitution shortly afterward.

METTERNICH—DOMINANT PERSONALITY AT CONGRESS OF VIENNA



Prince Clemens von Metternich (1773–1859). A skilled diplomat, he played a major role in creating the coalition which led to the final downfall of Napoleon. He was also a major player at the Congress of Vienna. Metternich dominated European politics as the avowed champion of conservatism, bitterly opposing the pro-democratic reforms that were gaining ground on the Continent in Napoleon's wake. Taken unaware by the revolutions of 1848, he was forced to resign.

Creation of the Austro–Hungarian Empire 1866

The Hungarians, who had been under Austrian rule since the end of the Ottoman invasion, had in the interim launched a series of political and military campaigns for independence. Despite some military victories which temporarily drove the Austrians out at the beginning of the eighteenth century, Austrian rule was reestablished.

In 1848, however, renewed uprisings in Hungary allowed its nationalists to declare independence. A hastily raised Hungarian army defeated an invading Austrian army and the Habsburg king was forced to call on the Russian monarchy for aid. Russian forces invaded Hungary from the east and, together with a renewed Austrian offensive, crushed the independence movement once again. Archduke Albrecht von Habsburg was appointed king of Hungary and the region once again fell under the sway of the House of Habsburg.

Austria's trial of strength with the Prussians had continued unabated. Defeat in the Seven Weeks' War (1866) with Prussia forced Austria to make concessions to the Hungarians.

In terms of this compromise, the two countries gained equal status, sharing a common monarch but retaining separate constitutions, governments, and languages. This created what became known as the Austro–Hungarian Empire.

ANCIENT HUNGARY

The territory known today as Hungary was first occupied by Old European peoples who were some of the first to be assimilated by the Slavic Indo-European invaders of the fourth millennium BC. Together with the Old Europeans, these Slavic tribes formed the basis of the population in Hungary ever since, although they were subjected to a number of other ethnic and racial influences over the centuries. These have included Romans, Germans, Asiatics, and Ottoman Turks.

Roman Occupation—Eastern Limits of Empire

The Slavic tribes in Hungary were primarily an agricultural people who did not have any large centers or cities. Disorganized, they were easily overrun by the Roman Empire and incorporated into the province of Pannonia. This Roman province was situated at the furthermost eastern point of the continental Roman Empire and thus on its front line.

As such, Pannonia was always the first to bear the brunt of invasions and attacks. It was the first Roman province to fall to the Germanics and the first region to be invaded by Attila the Hun. After Attila's death, the Germanics reoccupied Hungary. They were expelled again in the fifth century by the Avars who were in turn smashed by the Frankish king Charlemagne. The remainder of the Avars were virtually exterminated by the Slavic Moravians who proceeded to seize the northeastern parts of Hungary.

The rest of Hungary was occupied by Charlemagne who further extended his series of buffer states against the Asiatic invaders, a process which was completed by 797.

Asiatic Magyar Invasion Defeated at Lechfeld 955

In 896 the Magyars—a mixed race of Asiatic subracial types—invaded Europe. They conquered the Hungarian region of Moravia, raided Italy, and made incursions into Germany. Unchallenged, the Magyars ranged over central Europe for more than half a century and reached as far as central France in 955 when they devastated the region of Bourgogne. It was only in 955 that they were finally defeated by the German king Otto I at the Battle of Lechfeld.

After this battle, the shattered remnants of the Magyars withdrew to the east, leaving behind only scattered traces of their people who soon became absorbed into the still overwhelmingly Slavic stock of the region.

Most Hungarians not Descendants of Magyars

Although the mixed-race Magyars had been driven out by the Germans, their cultural influence remained strong. Their language laid the basis for present-day Hungarian which is one of the few European languages not Indo-European in origin.

Small numbers of Magyars survived the destruction of their empire in Hungary and were absorbed into the Germanic and Slavic occupiers. The Hungarians called themselves “Magyars”—although, of course, the vast majority of present-day Hungarians have no historical or genetic link to Asia.

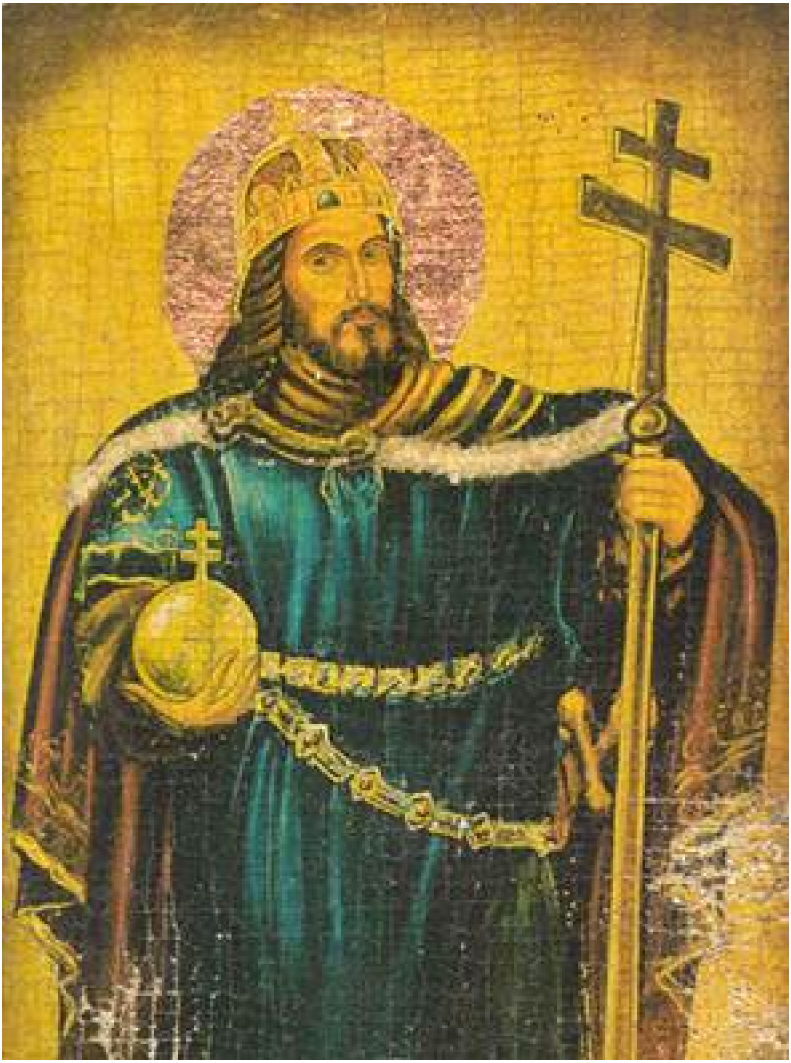
The term “Magyar” has taken on a misleading meaning in many historical works. It is, in fact, a cultural term rather than a racial association with the original nonwhite Magyar tribes. Nonetheless, as a result of these continuous invasions and counterinvasions lasting nearly one thousand years, certain parts of the present-day Hungarian population show slight signs of Asiatic ancestry. Hungary also has a significant number of Gypsies, who were Indians who entered eastern Europe in small numbers around the time of the first Asiatic invasions.

Christianity and the First Hungarian State

The first major convert to Christianity in Hungary was a leading noble, Grand Prince Géza. His conversion in 975 resulted in his son, Stephen I, raised as a Christian. Stephen was the first leader since Roman times to set up a formal state infrastructure along Christian lines.

As a result, he was granted formal recognition by the pope in the year 1001, and appointed the first king of Hungary. One of his first acts was to declare Christianity his state's official religion and all forms of paganism were suppressed.

STEPHEN I—FIRST HUNGARIAN KING ENFORCES CHRISTIANITY



Stephen I, the first king of Hungary. Recognized by the pope as the formal ruler of Hungary in the year 1001, Stephen set about enforcing Christianity upon the largely pagan population. When he died in 1038, the country *collapsed into anarchy over succession to the throne. It also experienced a series of pagan uprisings.*

When Stephen I died heirless in 1038, a succession struggle broke out between his sister's son, Peter Orseolo, and Stephen's brother-in-law, Samuel Aba. Simultaneously, the pagans—who Stephen had not managed to completely suppress—broke out into open rebellion.

Orseolo managed to beat Aba for possession of the crown, but his rule ended in 1046 when he was captured by pagan rebels during a renewed conflict over his continued Christianization of Hungary. With the assistance of the pagans, another distant member of Stephen's family,

Andrew, who had been exiled by the first king, returned and seized power. King Andrew I, as he became known, pacified the pagan rebels and forced them to accept the restoration of Christianity to Hungary.

Andrew also started dividing the Hungarian state into smaller fiefdoms in a move which he hoped would lead to his greater control of the entire country. In reality, it precipitated further conflict between the competing duchies.

As a result, when Andrew appointed his son, Solomon, king in 1057, a period of further conflict followed over succession to the throne. The period from 1063 until 1080 was characterized by frequent conflicts between King Solomon and his cousins, Géza, Ladislaus, and Lampert.

The political divisions created by Andrew allowed Géza to declare himself king in the eastern part of Hungary. When he died in 1077, his supporters disregarded his sons and proclaimed his brother Ladislaus king.

King Ladislaus I persuaded King Solomon, who was still recognized as king in some of the western regions of Hungary, to abdicate. This unified the country once again. However, even this did not halt the infighting, and finally the Byzantine Empire, claiming its role as leader of eastern Christianity, stepped in and seized Hungary for itself.

Although the Byzantines seized control of the Hungarian throne, they were too weak to hold it for a sustained period, and Byzantine influence declined with the 1180 death of Emperor Manuel

I Comnenus.

Mongol Invasion Kills Half of Hungary's Population

In 1241 Hungary was invaded by a new wave of Asiatics called the Mongol Tatars. A desperate Hungarian defense led to the Battle of Mohi, also known as the Battle of the Sajó River, in April 1241.

Despite a valiant defense, the Mongols were victorious and rampaged through Hungary. Nearly half of the towns and villages were destroyed by the Mongols in the trail of devastation which followed. The Hungarian king Béla IV fled. It is estimated that up to half of Hungary's then population of two million were killed in the Mongol invasion.

The Mongols only stayed in Hungary for one year, and left in 1242, undefeated. King Béla returned and ordered the construction of hundreds of stone castles and fortifications to defend the country against any further Mongol invasions. Béla's prediction came true in 1286 when another Mongol attack took place. This time, however, the Hungarians were protected by their fortifications, and the invading Mongol force was defeated near Pest by a skillful counterattack organized by the new king, Ladislaus IV.

Charles Robert Becomes Hungarian King 1308

With the death of the Hungarian king Andrew III in 1301, the last of the male claimants from Stephen I's extended family line became extinct. The closest direct descendant was Charles Robert Anjou, whose paternal grandmother, Mary, a daughter of King Stephen V of Hungary, declared her claim to Hungary following the death of her brother, Ladislaus IV. Charles was the only son of Charles Martel, Prince of Salerno, and his wife Clementia, a daughter of King Rudolph I of Germany.

The usual infighting took place until 1308 when Charles managed to suppress all opposition. He became King Charles I, thereby creating the first western royal family house in eastern Europe. Charles I made a number of territorial acquisitions for Hungary during his reign. These included Bosnia and part of Serbia, and, through his marriage to Elizabeth, the sister of King Kazimierz III of Poland, he ensured the succession of his son Louis to the Polish crown.

First Ottoman Invasion Turned Back 1396 and Janos Hunyadi Defeats Muslims at Belgrade

The Ottoman Turks penetrated the southern borders of Hungary and were met in battle in 1396 by a Hungarian army under the command of a new king, Sigismund. Although the Hungarian army was defeated, the ferocity of the Hungarian defense checked the Ottoman advance for nearly fifty years.

Once the Turks had regained their strength, they launched a new attack. This time, Hungary was saved from complete annihilation by its national hero, Janos Hunyadi, who won renown for breaking the Muslim siege of Belgrade (one of Hungary's major southern towns at the time) in 1456.

HUNGARIAN HERO JANOS HUNYADI DEFEATS TURKS 1456

HUNYADI JANOS

Janos Hunyadi, one of Hungary's greatest heroes, who broke the Turkish siege of the city of Belgrade in 1456. For this act and other deeds against the Turks, he is honored with a place on Budapest's Hero's Square, where his statue stands.

Hungarians Defeated at Battle of Mohacs 1526

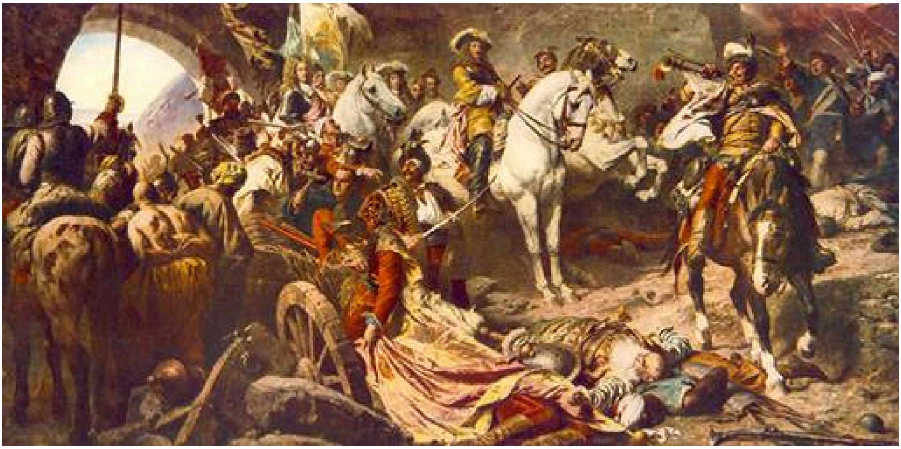
In August 1521, an Ottoman army under Sultan Suleiman I captured Belgrade, the major Hungarian stronghold in the south. In 1526, Suleiman crushed the Hungarian army at Mohacs, where King Louis II and more than twenty thousand white soldiers were killed. After his army captured the city of Buda in September 1526, Suleiman withdrew from most of central Hungary. The Austrians then seized parts of western Hungary while other parts of the former Hungarian kingdom were ruled either by the Ottomans or local princes.

Habsburgs Drive Turks out 1686

For the next 150 years, Hungary was the scene of almost continuous strife, chiefly among three groups: the Catholic Habsburg (Austrian) Holy Roman emperors, who seized control over the western portion; the Muslim Ottomans, who controlled the central area; and groups of the Protestant native nobility, especially from Transylvania.

In 1686, the Austrians launched a military campaign to expel the Ottomans from their part of Hungary. Once this process was completed, the Habsburgs quelled all further local resistance to their rule through military means and political concessions (particularly with regard to limited self rule and religious dissenters) by 1711. Thereafter followed nearly a century of relatively tranquil rule and growth which saw Hungary become established as a major component of the Habsburg Dynasty.

AUSTRIANS DRIVE TURKS OUT OF BUDAPEST 1686



For nearly 150 years the city of Buda (today united with a neighboring town called Pest, hence "Budapest") had been held by the Turks and was an important center of Ottoman power. After the Turkish armies had been defeated in their second attempt to take Vienna, the Austrian king, Leopold I, sent his armies into Hungary. On September 2, 1686, the Austrians crushed the Turkish forces in Buda. In this illustration, Austrian soldiers enter the city by literally riding over dead Turks.

Third Independent Hungarian State and Union with Austria

By 1849, the ideals of social and constitutional reform, the mainspring of the 1848 revolutions in Europe, had reached Hungary. In that year, the Hungarian parliament proclaimed the country's independence from Austria. However, the Austrian emperor, Francis Joseph I, in alliance with Russia's Tsar Nicholas I, invaded and suppressed the Hungarian revolutionary government. In 1866, Hungarian revolutionaries took advantage of an Austrian war with Prussia to declare independence once again.

Weakened, Austria was forced to agree to a compromise with Hungary: the country could have its own legislature, language, and constitution, but in exchange the two countries would share a common emperor. This compromise created the Austro–Hungarian Empire which lasted until 1919.

AUSTRO–HUNGARIAN EMPIRE

Large Number of Subjugated Peoples Sets Scene for Ethnic Conflict

With Austria and Hungary united, but still retaining their own individual constitutional structures, it was inevitable that the subjugated peoples within the borders of the empire would agitate for similar status. The resultant unrest which brewed in southeastern Europe would eventually lead to the First World War.

Territorial Expansion into Eastern Europe

The Austro–Hungarian Empire expanded further after the Russians defeated the Ottoman Turks during the Russo–Turkish War of 1878. When that conflict ended, an international conference, called the Congress of Berlin, was held to divide the newly seized Ottoman territories in southeastern Europe. It ruled that the Austro–Hungarian Empire be given permission to administer the territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Through further treaties and localized conflicts, the Austro–Hungarian Empire eventually included the territories known today as Austria, Hungary, Slovakia, and the Czech Republic, as well as parts of present-day Poland, Romania, Italy, Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.

Triple Alliance with Germany and Italy 1882

During Prussia's rise to ascendancy, the Austrian Habsburgs attempted to curtail their northern neighbor's growth through a combination of military campaigns and diplomacy, but their efforts were ultimately in vain. Finally, in 1879, the Habsburgs gave in to the inevitable and the Austro–Hungarian Empire signed a formal alliance. They were joined by Italy in 1882 and the pact became known as the Triple Alliance.

MAJESTIC SEAT OF THE AUSTRO–HUNGARIAN EMPIRE ON THE DANUBE RIVER

The nineteenth century Hungarian parliament building on the banks of the Danube River in Budapest. It is the largest parliament building in the world and is resplendent with gilded roofs and stunning Gothic architecture. During the Communist era, a large red star as added to the central steeple, but this was pulled off the building after the collapse of Communism.

Serbia and the Origins of World War I

By 1903, Serbia was strong enough to launch an attempt to create a united Slavic state in southern Europe. Its first natural areas of expansion were the territories of Bosnia and Herzegovina which were administered by the Austro–Hungarian Empire. The latter viewed with alarm the growing power of Serbia, and in a preemptive move, formally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908—amidst the protests of Serbia and its ally, Russia. Tensions between Serbia and the Austro–Hungarian Empire rose considerably as a result.

On June 28, 1914, the heir to the Austro–Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his pregnant wife, Sophie, Duchess of Hohenberg, were assassinated by a Serbian nationalist, Gavrilo Princip, while on an official visit to Sarajevo. Princip and his accomplices were arrested and during questioning, implicated senior officers in the Serbian army as having helped planned the assassination.

This led to the Austro–Hungarian Empire issuing an ultimatum to Serbia containing a number of demands which Serbia rejected. Supported by Germany, the Austrians invaded Serbia. A set of international alliances then swung into action, with first Russia and then France and Britain declaring war on Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire. The conflict quickly spun out of control and became the First World War. The course of that war is detailed later in this work. Suffice to say here that it ended catastrophically for both Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire.

POSTEMPIRE AUSTRIA

Austro–Hungarian Empire Breaks Up

Defeat for the Austro–Hungarian armies on the battlefields of the First World War, combined with mutinies and rebellions at home, caused the Austro–Hungarian Empire to dramatically splinter in 1918. The Czechs proclaimed independence in October of that year, while the Hungarians announced their complete separation from Austria in November.

By mid-November 1918, the last Habsburg emperor had abdicated and Austria and Hungary had declared themselves republics.

When the Austrian republic came into existence, it was dramatically smaller than the empire from which it had emerged. The new state was a small area consisting of some seven million people, devastated by the war, and economically crippled.

The breakup of the empire had deprived Austria of its major industrial regions, Bohemia and Moravia. The only realistic option open to the new state was union with Germany, but this was specifically forbidden by the Treaty of Versailles which ended the First World War.

Alone, the new Austrian state experimented with democracy. Elections were held for the first time in 1920, but political instability plagued the country. This culminated in a Communist riot in Vienna in 1927, when the main court building, the Palace of Justice, was burned down. Police fired upon the demonstrators and at least one hundred people were killed.

Democracy Suspended under Dollfuss 1934

The instability grew worse after the 1927 riot. Finally, in 1933, the Austrian chancellor, Engelbert Dollfuss, abolished the democratic constitution and instituted rule by absolute decree. In February 1934, the Communists were outlawed and later that same year all other parties—including the fledgling Austrian Nazi party—were banned, as Austria officially became a one party state.

The suppression of all opposition politics led to an attempted Nazi coup in July 1934. It was unsuccessful, but Dollfuss was killed in the violence which followed. His replacement, Kurt von Schuschnigg, maintained Dollfuss's policies—which led him into direct conflict with the now mighty Germany under Adolf Hitler.

AUSTRIA INCORPORATED INTO GERMANY 1938

Anschluss—the union of Austria with Germany, 1938. In a League of Nations-screened plebiscite on March 13, 1938, 99.73 percent of Austrians voted for Anschluss with Germany. Above, some 200,000 Austrians packed Vienna's Heldenplatz to hear Hitler formally announce the union.

99.7% Support Union with Germany 1938

The continual instability within Austria provided the intervention opportunity for which the Austrian-born Hitler had searched. In 1938, German troops entered Austria and the country was annexed to Germany in a move now famous as the *Anschluss* (which is the German word for annexation).

Austria was reconstituted as a region, or *gau,* of the greater German Reich and given its original name, the *Ostmark.* A plebiscite, adjudged by the League of Nations to be free and fair, was held which offered all Austrian voters the chance to approve or reject the *Anschluss*. A massive 99.7 percent voted in favor of union with Germany.

As part of the Third Reich, Austria shared in the economic prosperity of that country—but also in its defeat at the end of the Second World War. Its cities were bombed and, by 1945, Austria had been invaded by the Soviet Union from the east and the Allies from the west. Placed under Western control, Austria was reconstituted as a democracy under Allied supervision in 1946.

Independence in 1955—Under Restrictions

The Allies and Austria signed a treaty in May 1955 in terms of which an independent Austrian Republic was formally established. The treaty prohibited union between Austria and Germany, denied Austria the right to own or manufacture nuclear weapons or guided missiles, outlawed the Nazi party, and obligated Austria to give the Soviet Union part of its crude oil output. As a result of the treaty, Allied troops left Austria in October 1955.

South Tyrol Question Settled in 1970

The region known as South Tyrol on the Austrian–Italian border was originally part of the Austro–Hungarian Empire and had been incorporated into Italy at the end of the First World War despite being majority German speaking. It had briefly been reincorporated into Germany during the Second World War, but then handed back to Italy at the end of that conflict.

In 1957, Austrian nationalists in South Tyrol launched a limited campaign of sabotage against Italian rule. The dispute simmered on until 1970, when an agreement was reached whereby the linguistic and cultural rights of the German-speaking population were entrenched. South Tyrol then became an autonomous province of Italy, called Bolzano–Bozen.

Economic Growth and Prosperity

Austria fully recovered from the damage suffered during the war and reorganized its economy around a state owned banking and service industry. It soon became one of the most prosperous countries in Europe, and settled down to a period of peace and stability unparalleled in its previous 1,500 years of existence.

Austria's high degree of racial homogeneity played a major part in allowing it to survive the tumultuous events of its history. Austria, like all Western European nations, has become a destination for Third World immigration. This has given rise to a number of anti-immigration parties which have had considerable success at the polls. The implications of these immigration trends are discussed later in this work.

POSTEMPIRE HUNGARY

No sooner had Hungary declared itself independent from the Austro–Hungarian Empire in 1918, but it was faced by a fierce Communist revolution, led by Béla Kun. The Communists seized power in Budapest but committed such terrible atrocities that a popular counterrevolution broke out which forced Kun and his henchmen to flee.

Hungary was proclaimed a constitutional monarchy in 1920. One of the first acts of the new government was to sign the Treaty of Trianon which officially ended Hungary's participation in the First World War. The treaty stripped away about two-thirds of Hungary's territory, including the regions of Transylvania, Croatia, and Slovakia.

Partly as a result of admiration for Adolf Hitler's Germany and partly out of a desire to see the humiliating terms of the Treaty of Trianon overturned, Hungary witnessed a rise of nationalistic fervor during the 1930s. Hungary shared in the territorial division of Czechoslovakia in 1938, and concluded a formal alliance with Germany in January 1939. This agreement formed part of the newly developed international anti-Communist alliance, called the Anti-Comintern Pact, whose members included Germany, Italy, Japan, Romania, Bulgaria, Spain, Denmark, and Finland.

World War II—Solid German Ally

Hungary supported the German invasion of the Soviet Union in 1941. Hungarian troops fought on the eastern front with great distinction. During the war years, a fully-fledged pro-Nazi government was installed in Hungary. As the tide turned against Germany, and Soviet troops occupied Hungary in 1944, the Hungarian army put up a desperate and heroic defense of Budapest.

It was all in vain, as the Soviets were far too numerous to be beaten. Many hundreds of thousands of ethnic Germans and pro-

German Hungarians fled Hungary in the face of the Communist victory.

Soviet Era—Economic Hardship

The Soviet Union promised its Western allies that it would install democracies in all the Eastern European nations it occupied during the course of the war. These promises were discarded once Germany had been beaten, and pro-Communist dictatorships were set up in all of the nations seized by the Russian Army. Hungary was no exception, and within a few years a Communist one party state had been firmly established in Budapest.

Economic decline followed the Sovietization of Hungarian society, which was aggravated by the forced payment of reparations to the Soviet Union for its pro-German stance during the war.

1956 ARMED REBELLION AGAINST SOVIETS

Groups of Hungarian patriots wave the Hungarian flag on top of a captured Soviet tank in Budapest, 1956. The world stood by while a Soviet army unit attacked the city and fierce street battles ensued for days.

The 1956 Uprising—Jews Targeted

Popular discontent with the Communist Party culminated in the outbreak of public demonstrations in 1956, following similar protests in Poland. The dissent was seized upon by Hungarian nationalists who proclaimed Hungary neutral. This precipitated a mass uprising which quickly turned violent. It was marked by a vehement anti-Jewish streak, caused by the fact that many of the leading Communist Party officials were Hungarian Jews.

The uprising was on the point of victory when the Soviet Union intervened. Russian tanks rolled into Budapest and literally crushed the lightly armed rebels. Hundreds of Hungarians were executed and thousands imprisoned while 200,000 fled the country. A new Communist dictatorship was installed which punished the rebels and their families for years.

Soviet Collapse Leads to Democracy

The collapse of the Soviet Union and Communism in 1989 was echoed throughout Eastern Europe. In that year, the Communist Party finally relinquished its hold on power and changed the constitution to allow for multiparty democracy. The transformation from Communism to free enterprise was difficult and the Hungarian economy struggled for nearly a decade to get back on its feet.

Large Gypsy Population

Largely because of its geographical position, Hungary has served as a point of entry, along with other Balkan states, for waves of illegal Third Worlders seeking entrance into Western Europe. Hungary also has a large Gypsy population which was estimated to be in the region of 7 percent of the population—or 700,000 people—in 2009.

CHAPTER 39: The Rise and Fall of the Tsars—Russia 862–1917

The land which comprised the Russian Empire was significant for three major reasons:

- It included the Caucasus area, the original source of the Indo–European peoples;

- It was the white people of this area who bore the brunt of the great Asiatic invasions of Europe; and

- It was this region which was the first important power to be seized by the Communists, an act which had ramifications far beyond Russia.

For these reasons, an understanding of the origins and tribulations of this great nation are vital to any understanding of world history.

Ancient Russia—Indo-European Homeland

Southern Russia, between the Black and Caspian seas, has the distinction of being the original source of the Indo-European peoples who so greatly influenced European and world history. Unfortunately, Asiatic invaders from the east overran this region several times over the course of history. As a result, most traces of this original racial homeland were destroyed. Nonetheless, the name "Caucasian," often used to describe white people, is derived from the Caucasus Mountains in southern Russia, or, more accurately, present-day Georgia.

Indo-European Tribes in Russia

The Cimmerians, Scythians, and Sarmatians, were early Indo-European tribes who settled west of the Ural Mountains. They were later joined by the easternmost branch of the great Celtic peoples, the Slavs. All of these groups were originally Nordic in subracial makeup. In certain areas they mixed with Old European types who had established small Neolithic settlements. This occurred mainly in the south which would have been climatically more hospitable.

The name Russia came from the Indo-European tribe called the Rukhs-As. Also known as the Alans, the Rukhs-As were the very last

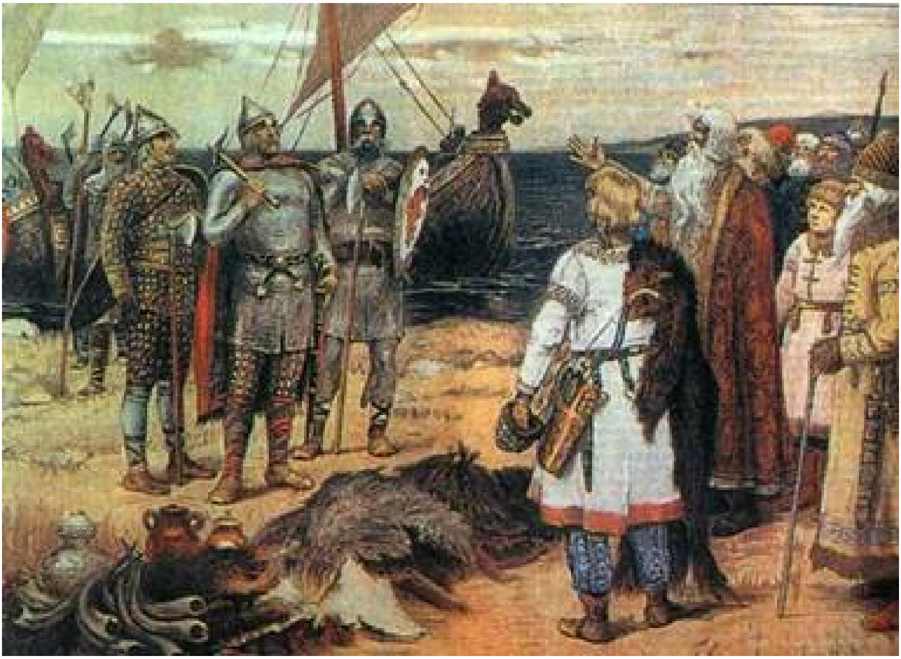
Indo-European tribe who emerged from the Caucasus region just before it was overrun and destroyed by the Mongols.

Asiatic Invaders Push Goths Westward

One of the last great Indo-European tribes to emerge from southern Russia were the Goths, who established their first state on the coast of the Black Sea. The Asiatic Hun invasion of the fourth century destroyed this state and pushed the survivors westward to the borders of the Roman Empire. The story of the violent interaction between the Goths and the crumbling Roman Empire is detailed elsewhere in this work. Suffice to say here that the Goths eventually sacked Rome and settled in Iberia.

The Huns pushed as far west as Vienna before turning back. They continued to occupy a large part of southern and central Russia for several hundred more years. After the Huns came further Asiatic invaders, including the Avars, Magyars, and the Khazars. Considering that the south of Russia had been the original source of the Indo-Europeans, the Asiatic extermination of the indigenous people of that region may well have been one of the most significant racial genocides in history.

RURIK—THE VIKINGS HELP FOUND RUSSIA



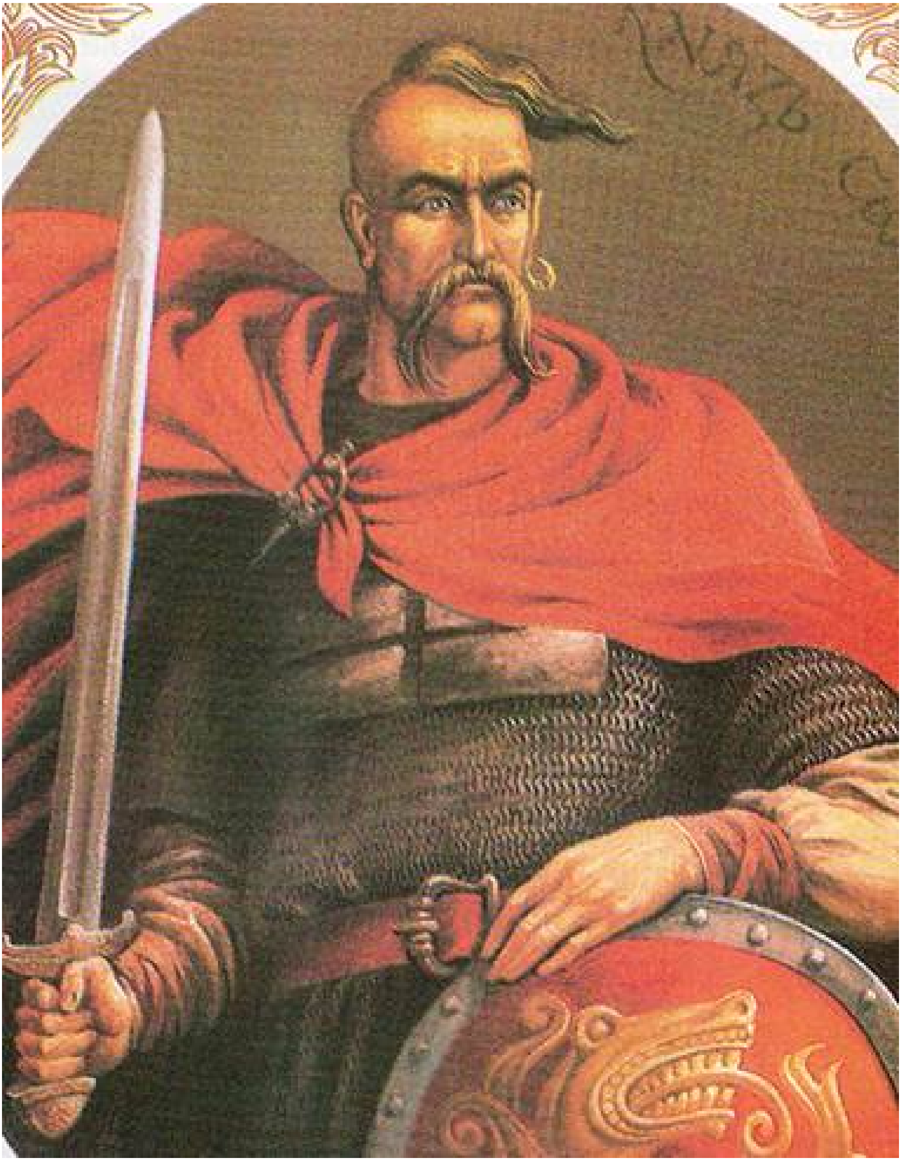
The first of the Russians—Rurik the Rodsen, from Scandinavia, landed in 862 on the Russian shore of the Baltic. Along with his brothers Suineus and Truvor, he conquered the land which ran from Novgorod to the Volga River. From Rurik, who died in 879, came the House of the Rurikovich which ruled Russia till the end of the sixteenth century.

Khazars Attack—Vikings Called on for Help

The Slavic tribes in central Russia sent a call for help to their Scandinavian cousins after they were attacked by the Khazars in 856. Rurik, ruler of southern Jutland and Friesland in Denmark, answered the call and came to their aid, quickly warding off the Khazar attack. Acclaimed as a hero and savior, Rurik asserted his authority and, by 862, had become ruler of the city of Novgorod which is situated between the present-day cities of Moscow and St. Petersburg. With the aid of two fellow Vikings, Dir and Askold, Rurik also took possession of the city of Kiev and successfully organized the defense of the territories belonging to the two city-states.

When Rurik died, he was succeeded by Oleg of Novgorod who gained almost mythological status because of his aggressive policy of expansion which laid the basis of the Russian state. Oleg's first major acquisition was the kingship of the city of Kiev which he obtained by uniting the two cities in 882. Oleg also subdued and incorporated many neighboring tribes, including the Rukhs-As.

With this consolidated power, Oleg launched raids into the Mongol-held territory in the south. By 911, Oleg's forces had reached as far south as Constantinople where, after a short conflict, they signed a trading treaty with that ancient city, starting a bond between Russia and the southeast of Europe which would outlast Constantinople. Oleg died in 945 and was succeeded by his widow Olga. She became the first Christian ruler in Russia in 955.



Svyatoslav, slayer of the Khazars and Bulgars.

Svyatoslav Attacks Asiatic Invaders

In 964, Olga abdicated in favor of her son, Svyatoslav, the first prince of the House of Rurik to have a Slavic name. Svyatoslav recaptured much of the south of Russia from the Mongols and Asiatics. He also attacked and decimated the Khazars, scattering their survivors all over central and western Russia.

Svyatoslav then turned his attention to the remaining Asiatic

Bulgars who had occupied land along the Danube River. In 967, he overran the last of these Asiatic tribes, incorporating large areas of Bulgaria into Russia in the process.

Svyatoslav then hurried back to Kiev which was under attack by the Patzinak Turks, a nomadic Asiatic mixed-race tribe. He fought off the invaders, but was killed in a later battle with the Turks in 972. Upon Svyatoslav's death, his empire passed to his youngest son, Vladimir, in 972.

Vladimir Declares Christianity Official State Religion 988

Although Christianity was known in Russia at this time, it was still a minority religion among the mainly pagan Rus and Slavic peoples. Svyatoslav's son, Vladimir the Great, converted to Christianity in 988 and declared it the state religion. Vladimir divorced his pagan wife and cemented the links between Constantinople and Russia by marrying Anna, the sister of the Byzantine emperor Basil II.

The Russian Orthodox Church was created in the manner of Byzantine Christianity. Vladimir is credited with Christianizing Russia and building the first Russian Orthodox stone church building in Kiev, called the Church of the Tithes, in 989. Vladimir's death in 1015 sparked off a bloody family feud. His eldest son, Svyatopolk, had two of his siblings, Bors and Gleb, murdered and then took the throne.

Svyatopolk became known as "the Accursed" for this deed and his reign was cut short when his youngest brother Yaroslav led a rebellion. Yaroslav became king and Svyatopolk was exiled to Poland.

Yaroslav Defeats Renewed Patzinak Turk Invasion

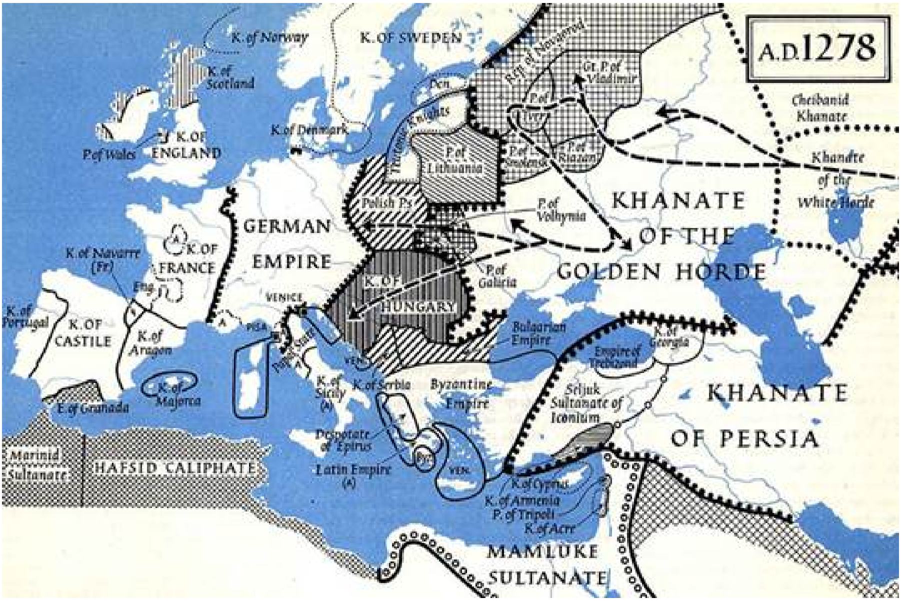
In 1017, the Patzinak Turks launched a new attack on the Russian state. Yaroslav decisively defeated this invasion the same year, and to celebrate the great victory, St. Sophia's church in central Kiev was commissioned and built. This magnificent edifice can still be seen today. Yaroslav became a Russian hero for this deed, and was given the name "the Wise" as a result.

Yaroslav also tried to boost ties with the Scandinavian countries through a series of treaties. In doing so, he attempted to weaken the Byzantine influence on Kiev. In this objective he and his successors were ultimately to fail.

Yaroslav was also successful in creating a strong degree of unity among the tribes of western Russia. Upon his death in 1054, the tenuous unity which he had created was destroyed. His lands were divided among his sons, none of whom wanted to submit their territory to the rule of another. Russia was divided into a number of principalities and duchies, all of which competed with each other commercially and sometimes militarily. Ultimately, the Duchy around the settlement of Moscow came to dominate the others because of its size.

Genghis Khan Invades Russia 1223

In 1223, the Asiatic Mongol armies of Genghis Khan invaded the southeast of Russia. Faced with this communal threat, a number of Russian principalities banded together in a military alliance to defend themselves against the nonwhite invasion. The united Russian army met the Mongols at the Battle of the Kalka River. The Russians were utterly defeated. The survivors fell back and awaited the worst, which did not come. The Mongol armies had come to a standstill because of Genghis's early death. Only when a new leader, Batu, took charge did they resume their advance into Russia in 1237.


A.D.1278
K. of Norway
K. OF SWEDEN
K. of Scotland
K. OF ENGLAND
P. of Wales
K. of Denmark
Den
Teutonic Knights
Rep. of Novgorod
Gr. P. of Vladimir
P. of Tver
P. of Smolensk
P. of Riazan
P. of Lithuania
Polish Ps
P. of Volhynia
Cheibanid Khanate
Khanate of the White Horde
KHANATE OF THE GOLDEN HORDE
GERMAN EMPIRE
K. OF FRANCE
K. of Navarre (Fr)
Eng.
K. of Portugal
K. OF CASTILE
K. of Aragon
K. of Majorca
E. of Granada
Marinid Sultanate
HAFSID CALIPHATE
VENICE
PISA
K. OF HUNGARY
P. of Galicia
Bulgarian Empire
Empire of Trebizond
K. of Georgia
K. of Sicily (A)
K. of Serbia
VEN
Byzantine Empire
Despotate of Epirus
Latin Empire (A)
Seljuk Sultanate of Iconium
KHANATE OF PERSIA
K. of Cyprus
K. of Armenia
P. of Tripoli
K. of Acre
MAMLUKE SULTANATE

A map of Europe in 1278 showing the full extent of the Khanates and the Mongol intrusion into Russia and eastern Europe.

Huns Sack Kiev and Attack Poland

Batu Khan marched north in an attempt to smash the white strongholds in central and western Russia. A combination of unfavorable terrain and determined resistance halted his progress. Batu then turned west and attacked the city of Kiev in 1240. Despite a desperate resistance, the Asiatics took and sacked the city. Batu pushed on into Poland and Hungary before he returned to southern Russia where he established his capital on the lower Volga River.

This was located near the present-day Russian city of Volgograd, which was more famous during the twentieth century under the name of Stalingrad. From this base, Batu founded an Asiatic empire known as the Khanate of the Golden Horde, which was independent of the greater Mongol Empire which now stretched from Russia to China.

The destructive effect of this powerful nonwhite invasion upon the development of Russia cannot be overemphasized. Parts of Russia which had not been seized by the Mongols developed the elements of self-government by representative assembly which mirrored developments in Western Europe. In the areas under Mongol control, however, these developments were stifled, along with the progress of industry and culture.

The cumulative effect of this was to keep Russia nearly two centuries behind Western Europe in terms of technological and philosophical development. The Mongols convincingly proved the principle that the people who occupy a region determine the society or civilization in that region. In southern Russia, the nature of the society was changed from that of a budding white civilization to that of an Asiatic society through the replacement of the white population by an Asiatic population.

Large parts of Russia were depopulated as a result of the Hunnish invasion and the establishment of the Khanate. The region around Kiev, one of the oldest cities in Russia, dating from the time of the earliest Indo-European settlers, was almost entirely stripped of its population.

Groups of survivors moved westward: one such large group, culturally influenced by the Poles and Lithuanians, eventually became known as Byelorussians, or “White Russians.”

A second group, formed of the Slavic population from the region of Kiev and adjacent regions, became known as “Little Russians,” or Malorussians. In northern Russia, the inhabitants became the principal group of Russian Slavs known as the “Great Russians.”

Alexander Nevsky Defeats Teutonic Knights

While still devastated from the effects of the Asiatic Khanate in the south, Russia was attacked from the west by a Swedish invasion. In 1240, a Swedish army landed on the banks of the Neva River with the intention of seizing Novgorod which was the only city of any size not destroyed by the Mongols.

The prince of Novgorod, Alexander Yaroslavovich, led his people in the defense of the city and utterly defeated the Swedes. He was given the name Alexander Nevsky ("of the Nevsky River") as a result of this great and unexpected victory.

ALEXANDER NEVSKY DEFEATS TEUTONIC KNIGHTS AT LAKE PEIPUS

On April 5, 1242, Alexander Nevsky and his troops defeated the Germanic Christian Teutonic Knights at the Battle of Lake Peipus. In this photo, a still taken from a Soviet anti-German documentary film of 1938, Nevsky is depicted in personal combat with a Teutonic Knight.

Two years later the Teutonic Knights, a religious military order established to crush pagans in the Baltic, attempted to seize western Russia. Alexander led a Russian army west and defeated them at the Battle of Lake Peipus.

Despite these victories, Alexander and the northern Russians were still in serious trouble. To the south, the Asiatics dominated, while to the west the threat of renewed invasion always loomed. Alexander resorted to diplomacy to stave off attacks and agreed to pay an annual tribute to the Khanate. Soon, all the major principalities had followed his example.

In this way, the Russians were able to gain enough time to recuperate from the series of conflicts and become powerful enough to prevent further incursions from the west.

Moscow Develops as Russian Center

In 1263, Alexander Nevsky gave the duchy of Moscow to his younger son, Daniel. His descendants followed the policy of keeping peace with the Mongols while at the same time extending their own territories in the north and center of Russia.

By 1328, one of these descendants, Ivan I, had persuaded the Russian Orthodox Church to take up residence in Moscow. The new status given to Moscow accordingly filtered through to all the remaining Russian principalities. Starting with Ivan, the dukes of Moscow styled themselves princes "of all Russia."

DUCHY OF MOSCOW GROWS TO DOMINATE RUSSIA

Dritte taffel: In welcher die ſtatt Moſcau / ſo für ein ſchloß gehalten / mit ſampt den vmligenden bürgern heüſeren / ſo für die groß ſtatt geacht / zu begriffen.
ARX
MO
SCO
WIE
In diſem waſſer / ſo auch Moſcau geheiſſen / ſcheffet man in die flüß Occa, Rha oder Volga, vnd das Caſpiſchmeer.

The first map of Moscow, 1556. As the city grew in size and importance, it came to dominate all the other cities in European Russia. It became the capital after the Russian Orthodox Church moved its headquarters there

Dmitry Donskoy Strikes at Mongols 1380

By the mid-1300s, the Mongol Khanate had come under pressure from internal dissension. Other Mongolian tribes attacked the Golden Horde from the east, stripping away territory and resources.

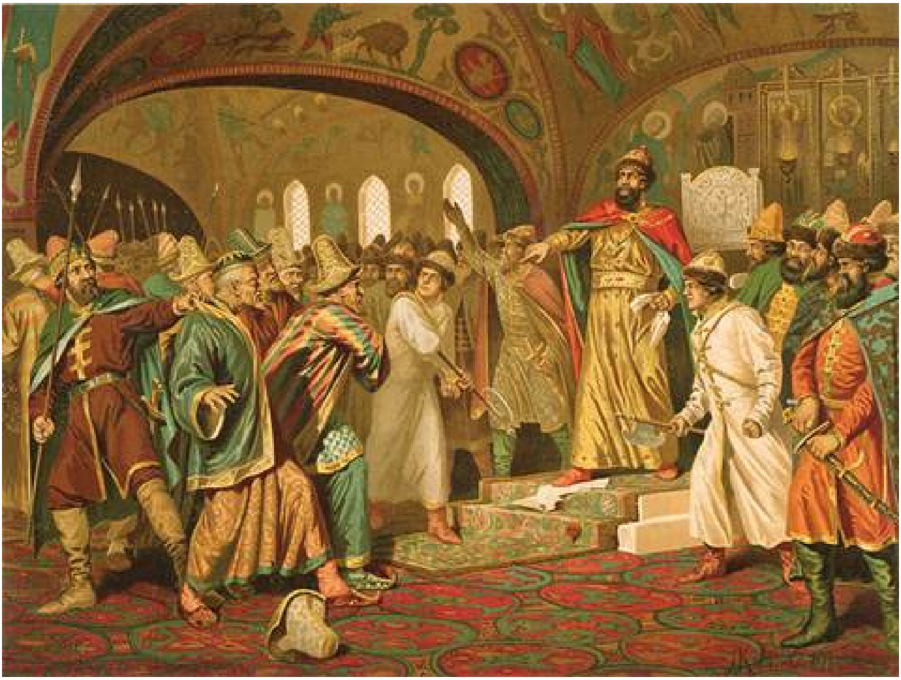
The duke of Moscow, Dmitry Donskoy, saw that the Mongols were weakened and launched the first successful rebellion against Asiatic rule in the south of Russia. Donskoy prepared a great army and met the Mongols in battle in 1380. The revitalized Russians defeated the Asiatics at the Battle of Kukikovo, fought on the banks of the Don River.

Constantinople's Fall Leads to Emergence of Tsars

The ties between the Duchy of Moscow and the Byzantine Empire were cemented when Muscovite ruler Ivan III Vasilyevich married the niece of the Byzantine emperor, Constantine XI. This would be the last important marriage ever arranged by the Eastern Roman Empire, as Constantine XI was killed when Constantinople was seized by the Ottomans in 1453. The fall of Constantinople meant the end of the leading Eastern Orthodox Christian center. The Russian Orthodox Church declared itself to be the successor to Byzantine Christianity and, by way of emphasis, the symbol of the Byzantine emperors, the double-headed eagle, was incorporated into the Muscovite arms.

Ivan III ordered Moscow to be transformed into a suitable successor to Constantinople. He invited many European artists and craftsmen to live in the city, with the most famous being the Italian Ridolfo di Fioravanti. It was Fioravanti who designed and built many of the cathedrals and palaces in what became the Kremlin.

IVAN III DEFIES ANNUAL KHANATE TRIBUTE



Ivan III tears up the annual demand for tribute from the Asiatic khan in 1480. It was the first time since Yaroslav that the Russians were powerful enough to defy the Mongols.

Ivan III Vasilyevich Refuses to Pay Mongol Tribute

Ivan III extended the power of Moscow significantly by incorporating the long independent states of Novgorod (1478) and Tver (1485). However, his greatest achievement came in 1480 when he became the first Russian to refuse to pay the annual tribute to the Mongols in the south.

Despite threatening to take up arms against the Russians for refusing to pay the tribute, the Mongols were riven by continued internal dissent and proved incapable of enforcing the traditional bribe. Ivan's refusal is listed in the annals as the time when Mongol domination ended. The main body of Asiatics were ultimately driven out, but significant numbers of their descendants went on to mix with certain Slavic elements to make up the mixed-race populations of regions such as Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, and others.

Russian Expansion to the West

No longer fearing any resistance from the south, Ivan III turned his attention to expanding Russian territory further to the west. When Casimir IV, the king of the joint state of Poland and Lithuania, died in

1492, those nations split once again into two separate kingdoms. The Lithuanian throne was taken by Casimir's son Alexander, who married Ivan's daughter Helena. The familial relationship failed to prevent Ivan III from trying to annex Lithuanian territory, and war between the two nations broke out in 1499.

The Russians decisively defeated the Lithuanians at the Battle of Vedrosha in 1500. Hostilities were ended in 1503 when the Lithuanians surrendered a significant piece of territory which contained nineteen towns. Ivan III's successors kept up an aggressive westward expansionist policy. The region of Pskov was seized in 1510 and Smolensk was taken in 1514.

Ivan the Terrible and the Reconquest of the South

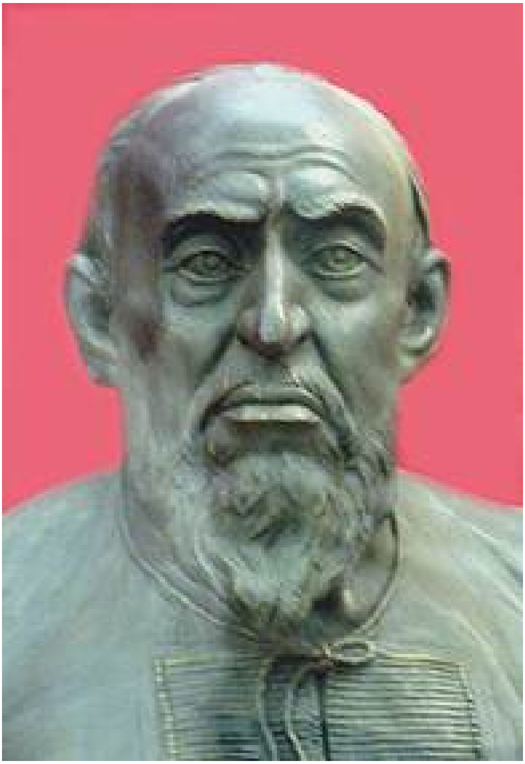
Ivan IV Vasilyevich, called the Terrible, inherited the throne in 1533 at the age of three but only took it up when he turned seventeen. His nickname, "The Terrible," was derived in part from his lifelong poor health which included a painful and incurable bone disease. He also abused alcohol and dabbled in quack cures from charlatans.

His ascension ceremony in 1547 was significant for being the first time a duke of Moscow was formally called tsar of Russia. That same year he married Anastasia Romanovna, a member of the noble Romanov family. From this line came the Romanov dynasty.

Ivan the Terrible's greatest contribution to Russian history started in 1552 when his armies conquered and annexed the Mongol kingdom of Kazan. He had the St. Basil Cathedral in Moscow built to celebrate the defeat of the Kazan Khanate.

In 1556, another Mongol region, Astrakhan, was also annexed after its rulers had been defeated and driven out. This campaign ended the largest Asiatic slave market in European Russia.

IVAN THE TERRIBLE—OVERSEES COSSACK RECOLONIZATION OF SOUTH RUSSIA



In 1953, the tomb of Ivan the Terrible, who reigned 1533–1584, was opened and his remains examined. Soviet anthropologists created this bust after an examination of his skull. Although an erratic ruler, Ivan's greatest feat was overseeing the Cossack recolonization of southern Russia.

It was not all success against the Asiatics. In 1571, the Crimean Khanate, a division of the remnant Mongols in the south, attacked Moscow and burned the city, withdrawing shortly afterward. The colonization and clearing of central and southern Russia was undertaken by rough and ready white adventurers from the north of Russia, who became known as Cossacks. More often than not, they were peasants who had fled the feudal serfdom of the principalities in the north to seek their freedom and wealth elsewhere.

The Cossacks were concentrated around the Don River basin and the lower Volga, where they played a major role in either killing off the remaining Mongols in the region or dispersing them further eastward and southward.

Cossacks also inadvertently caused the annexation of Siberia to the growing Russian state. In 1581, an independent Cossack group settled the region across the Ural Mountains (which had always marked the easternmost point of "White Russia") and subdued the partly Mongol tribes of Siberia. Ivan then formally annexed the region.

Livonian War Devastates Russia

Ivan the Terrible's personal life had by this time degenerated considerably. He was often accused of mental instability, and his sometimes irrational behavior served to encourage this belief. He also plunged Russia into the Livonian War, which lasted for twenty-four years and saw Russian armies struggle with attacks from the Swedes, Lithuanians, Poles, and the Livonian branch of the Teutonic Knights.

By the mid-1570s, Russia was brought to its knees from the combined effects of Polish and Lithuanian attacks, a Swedish sea blockade, an attack by the Crimean Tatars from the south, and drought and famine. A period of bitter recrimination led to the eruption of a civil conflict within Russia. During this time, tens of thousands of Russians were killed by other Russians. Ivan was forced to concede territory to Lithuania and Poland. He died in 1584, leaving Russia devastated.

Despite his legacy of destruction, Ivan seized much land for Russia which had been previously held by the Mongols. He also paid for the importation of many Western European technical experts to modernize Russia, setting a precedent which was followed by many of his successors.

The Time of Troubles

Ivan IV's death was followed by a period of civil unrest in Russia known as the "Time of Troubles." This was caused by conflict between the peasantry and the nobility combined with numerous succession crises. After a long period of confusion a Polish army entered Moscow, setting itself up as the power in Russia.

The entire country then descended into a state of anarchy. The Poles were only expelled in 1612 by an alliance of northern Russian principalities.

The succession crisis was ended in 1613 when Michael Romanov, great nephew of Anastasia Romanovna, was selected as tsar. This started the rule of the House of Romanov which would last until 1917.

The Peasant Uprisings

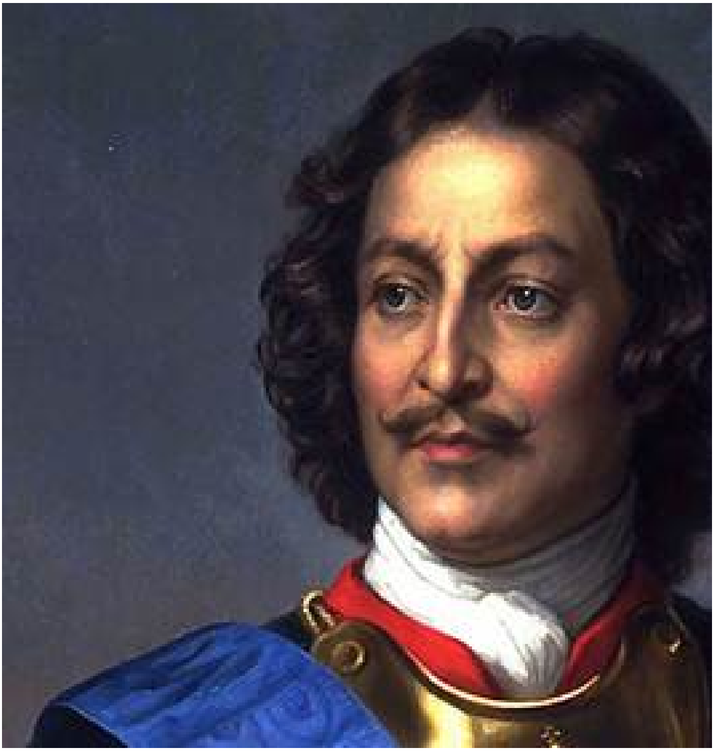
In 1543, Ivan the Terrible enacted a law which legalized serfdom in Russia, trapping the peasant classes in feudalism. As mentioned earlier, large numbers of these peasants had fled and become Cossacks. They then seized territory from the Mongols.

In 1649, a new law reinforced the 1543 legislation. This sparked another great wave of peasants to flee to the freer Cossack settlements in the south of the country. Inevitably, these free peasants came into conflict with the Russian state, and in 1670 the first great peasant revolt occurred in the settlements along the lower Volga, Dnieper, and Don rivers. The uprising was suppressed by government troops, but no reforms were introduced. This set the stage for a long running social conflict between landowners and peasants which would eventually be exploited by the Communist movement.

Russian–Polish War Erupts over Territory

In spite of these conflicts, the Russian state continued to expand. In 1654, the Cossacks who had settled in the Ukraine overthrew the ruling Polish occupation forces there. This led to the outbreak of the Russian–Polish War (1654–1657) which ended with victory for Moscow. The old Russian cities of Smolensk and Kiev, which had been under Polish rule since 1611, were restored to Russian control.

PETER THE GREAT—MODERNIZED RUSSIA AND A FRIEND OF THE JEWS



Peter the Great, who became tsar of Russia in 1689, realized that he had to modernize his country. Disguised as an ordinary man, he toured Western Europe. He worked as a lowly carpenter in Holland to study shipbuilding and visited England to study the constitutional system there. In 1696, he waged a great race war against the Turks, seizing the Turkish Azov in the same year. He also was a great friend of the Jews, and granted them permission to settle in Moscow, as depicted in this picture, when he officially met the Jewish deputation which asked permission to settle there. Despite this concession, it was not until 1839 that Jews could become Russian citizens.

Peter the Great Transforms Russia

The accession of Peter I, or Peter the Great, to the tsardom in 1682, marked the beginning of a period during which Russia became a major European power. He changed the face of Russia through a series of decrees which forced Russians to adopt Western European culture and science.

Peter also launched a successful war against the Swedes in what became known as the Great Northern War, which ran from 1700 to 1721. At the end of that conflict, large parts of the Baltic coastline were seized from the Swedes and added to the growing Russian

Empire.

In 1703, Peter began construction of a new capital city on territory seized from the Swedes. The city was eventually to be known as Saint Petersburg (or, under Soviet rule, as Leningrad). In 1714, the seat of government was formally moved away from Moscow to St. Petersburg.

Peter III Saves Prussia's Frederick the Great from Defeat

After Peter the Great's death, the Russian throne passed through the hands of a number of incompetents, often placed on the throne as a result of intrigues and conspiracies. Finally Elizabeth Petrovna, the youngest daughter of Peter the Great, ascended to the throne in 1741. Under her rule, Russia fought another war with Sweden (1741–1743) and added Finnish territory to the Russian Empire. Russia also joined with Austria and France in the Seven Years' War (1756–1763) against Prussia.

It was Elizabeth's successor and nephew, Peter III, who saved the Prussian king Frederick the Great by withdrawing from the conflict as Prussia was about to be crushed. Peter III was an admirer of Frederick and concluded a pact with the Prussian king immediately upon his coronation.

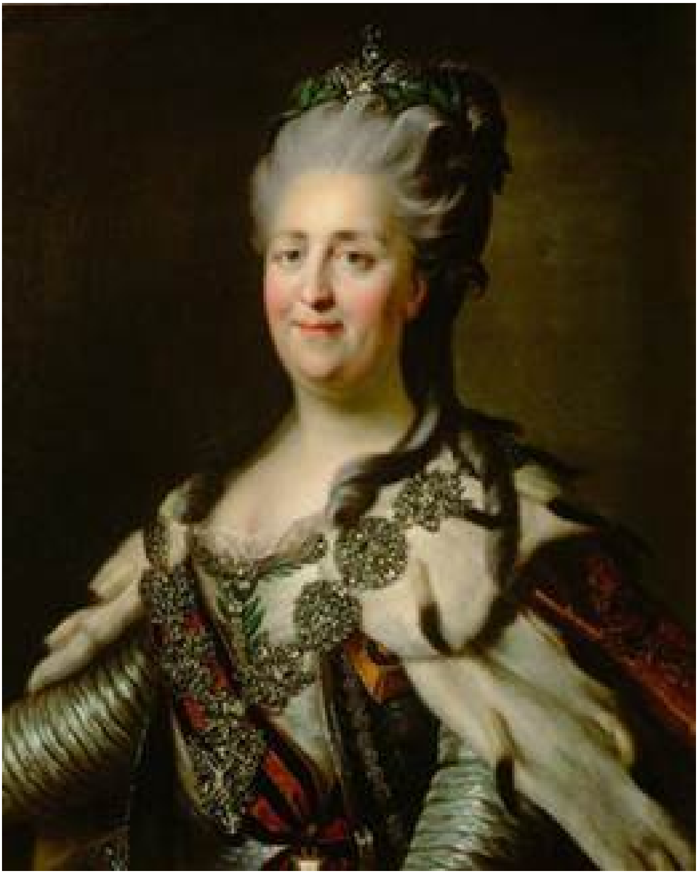
However, the intrigues within the Russian state had not subsided. Peter was murdered in the same year he came to the throne (1762) and was succeeded by his German-born wife, Catherine, who became known as Catherine the Great.

Catherine the Great Seizes Crimea from the Turks

Catherine's ascension to the throne marked a new period of expansion for Russia. Her first step was to launch a war against the nonwhite Ottoman Empire which had started to encroach on Russian territory in the south. The first Russo–Turkish War broke out in 1768. By the time it ended in 1774, Catherine had seized the Crimean peninsula in the Black Sea from the Ottomans. This gave Russia its first year-round ice free harbor which allowed for the creation of the first proper Russian navy.

The next Russo–Turkish War started in 1787. By its end in 1792, Catherine seized all the territory west to the Dniester River. In the west, Catherine also expanded Russian territory: as a result of the partitioning of Poland, Russia gained substantial portions of that country.

CATHERINE THE GREAT— SEIZES CRIMEA FROM THE OTTOMANS



A German-born princess, Catherine the Great had come to Russia at the age of fifteen to be married to Peter III. She spent her time studying voraciously and when she succeeded her assassinated husband in 1762, ruled Russia successfully for thirty years. Under her guidance, Russia seized large portions of land from the Turks, notably the Crimea in 1774. Her attempts to introduce social reforms were thwarted after the French Revolution of 1789, when the Russian nobility persuaded her that further upheaval would follow.

Catherine also recognized the potential long-term problems caused by the abuses of serfdom in Russia. In 1767, she issued an outline of proposed legal and administrative reforms, particularly in regard to serfs. These proposals were never implemented because of opposition from the nobility. A Cossack rebellion in 1774 frightened Catherine away from further concessions. After the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, she abandoned all attempts to reform the feudal system in Russia.

Russia Partakes in Napoleonic Wars—First against, then Allied to the French

Russia’s internal problems took a backseat with the outbreak of the French Revolutionary Wars. In 1805, Russia joined Britain, Austria, and Sweden in the Third Coalition against Napoleon I. The French leader defeated the Prussians at the Battle of Jena in October 1806 and the Russians at the Battle of Friedland in June 1807. Defeated, Russia abandoned the Third Coalition and allied itself to Napoleon with the 1807 Treaty of Tilsit. In terms of this agreement, French neutrality was guaranteed with regard to Russia’s dealings with Sweden and Turkey. As a new Russo–Turkish War had erupted in 1806, the Russians needed this guarantee in order to have a free hand to deal with the threat. The Treaty of Tilsit gave this assurance, and Russia could safely send all its available forces south to deal with the Ottomans. The war was successfully concluded in 1812 with the seizure of Bessarabia from Turkey.

A Russian war with Sweden also broke out in 1808. This, too, ended triumphantly for Russia with the occupation of all of Finland. In 1813, as a result of a war with Iran which followed the Russian annexation of Georgia, Dagestan was added to the Russian Empire.

French Invades but are Defeated

Relations with the French gradually deteriorated, and in 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia. The campaign was a disaster for the French emperor. His troops entered Moscow in September that year after losing three quarters of their men. The city had been razed by the Russians and there were no supplies.

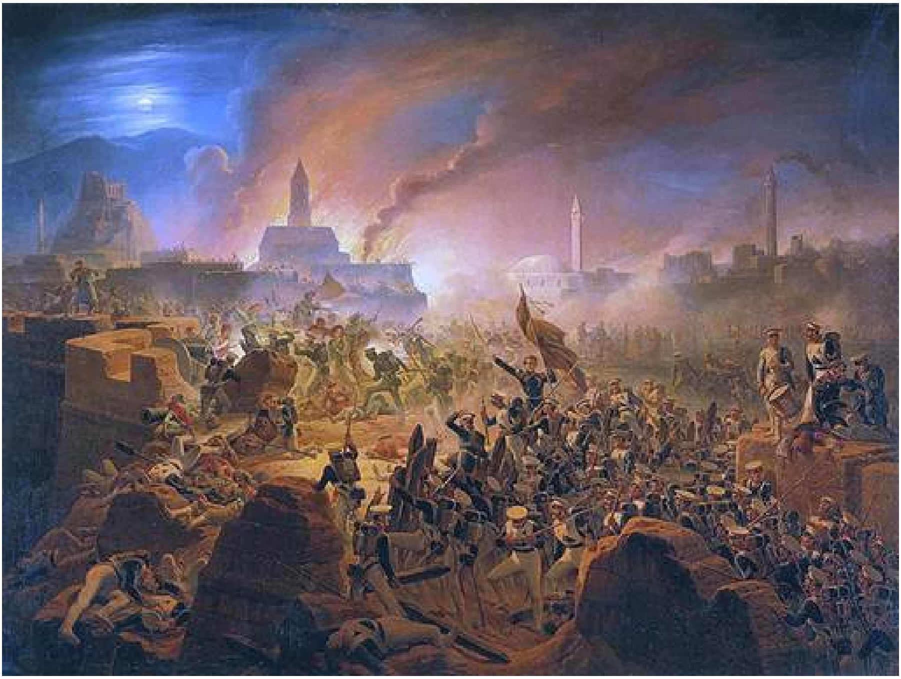
The French army was forced to fall back in a retreat which became a rout. Russia’s prestige in the West grew after this victory which was the first major land defeat suffered by Napoleon. The Russian tsar, Alexander, played an important role in the 1815 Congress of Vienna which settled the territorial demands created at the end of the Napoleonic Wars.

Nicholas I—Repression Generates Discontent

Upon Alexander’s death in 1825, the Russian throne passed to his youngest brother, Nicholas I. His first act was to violently suppress a revolt among Russian army officers—known as the Decembrists—who conspired to create a constitutional monarchy. Nicholas instituted a number of repressive decrees designed to crush all further potential opposition.

This included the creation of a secret police and the imposition of complete censorship of all publications. However, the centuries-long repression of the peasant class had created a wholly predictable backlash. Large numbers of the Russian population were receptive to radical political propaganda and activists who promised freedom from the thralls of serfdom were understandably well received. Among the Russians who suffered under Nicholas's repressive measures, which increased in severity after the 1848 revolutions which shook Europe, was the novelist Fyodor Dostoyevsky, who was exiled and sentenced to hard labor.

RUSSO–TURKISH WAR 1828 SPARKED BY GREEK INDEPENDENCE



The Russo–Turkish War of 1828–1829 was sparked by the Greek War of Independence. The war broke out after the Russians took part in the naval Battle of Navarino which destroyed the Ottoman fleet. Russian forces attacked the Turks in Bulgaria and in the Caucasus. The Russian armies reached to within forty miles of Istanbul, causing panic on its streets. The Ottomans were forced to sue for peace and gave up much of the Black Sea coastline and the Danube River mouth to Russia. The scene above is the Battle of Akhaltsikhe, Georgia, fought in August 1828. Some nine thousand Russians defeated a thirty thousand-strong Turkish garrison to take this *important citadel in the Caucasus.*

Armenia and Caucasus Seized

A new war with Iran in 1826 ended two years later with part of Armenia being ceded to Russia. During that conflict, a Russian fleet joined a British and French fleet and together they destroyed the Turkish Ottoman navy at the Battle of Navarino in 1827.

The next year, a new Russian–Turkish war broke out in which Turkey was routed by the more technologically advanced Russians. The 1829 Treaty of Adrianople ended the war and ceded the Caucasus region to Russia. It also established a Russian protectorate over the southeastern European territories of Moldavia and Walachia.

A Polish rebellion against Russian rule broke out in 1830, but was suppressed by the Russian army the following year.

European Powers Turn on Russia

The long list of Russian military victories and territorial acquisitions caused great concern among the other European powers. This fear of a growing Russian threat was accentuated by the posting of Russian troops in the Dardanelles at the mouth of the Black Sea after Russia signed an agreement with the Ottomans in 1833.

When Tsar Nicholas visited Britain in 1844, he proposed an alliance to finally destroy the Ottoman Empire, famously calling the empire the “dying man” of Europe. The British turned down the proposal, correctly suspecting that Nicholas’s real aim was the expansion of Russian influence into the Mediterranean.

Britain, France, and Prussia then formed an alliance which declared itself opposed to further Russian expansion into the southeastern parts of Europe or into Asia Minor. In spite of this alliance, Russia invaded the Turkish provinces along the Danube River in 1853. The European alliance declared war on Russia and to Nicholas’s astonishment, a combined force of French, British, and Turkish troops landed in the Crimea in 1854, sparking the famous Crimean War.

The Crimean War

The Crimean War was marked by a number of events that became famous worldwide:

-It was this war which gave fame to the British nurse Florence

Nightingale, who tended wounded soldiers day and night, carrying her famous lamp to light the way;

-It was during this conflict that the famous “Charge of the Light Brigade” took place. A lightly armed British mounted detachment charged a very heavily defended Russian position and was wiped out, despite their bravery.

-It was after the Crimean War that the British first started handing out the Victoria Cross medals to British servicemen for bravery in action. The medals were named after the British queen of the time and were initially made out of melted down captured Russian cannons.

After a siege of several months, the Russian fortress city of Sevastopol fell to the invading European armies. The scale of the defeat forced Russia to surrender, and in terms of the 1856 Treaty of Paris which ended the conflict, the Black Sea was declared a neutral area and the Russians were forbidden from building forts or naval bases there.

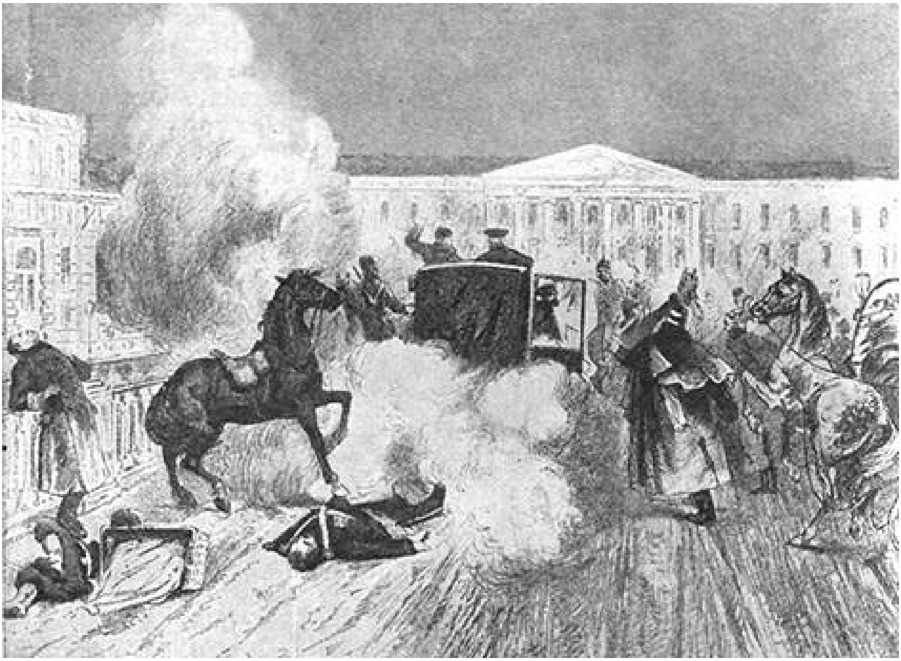
Nicholas died in 1855 and was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. Undeterred by the reverses in the Crimea, Alexander II switched his attention to taking territory in the Far East at the expense of the Japanese. In 1855, Russia occupied the northern half of the island of Sakhalin and in 1858 they annexed the coast south to the city of Vladivostok (which was founded in 1860).

In central Asia the Russia seized the semi-autonomous territories of Toshkent (1865), Bokhara (1866), Samarqand (1868), Khiva (1873), and Kokand (1876). This expanded Russia’s borders into what is today Uzbekistan.

Alexander II Emancipates Serfs

Alexander also became famous for his liberation of the Russian serfs by a proclamation issued in 1861. The Russian peasantry were one of the last in Europe to shake off feudalism. This measure by itself did not satisfy the evergrowing demands for more reform.

TSAR ALEXANDER II—REFORMER WHO WAS ASSASSINATED BY ANARCHISTS



Tsar Alexander II. The son of Nicholas I, Alexander succeeded to the throne of Russia in March 1855. The emancipation of twenty-three million serfs in 1861, chiefly due to Alexander's own efforts, was without question the greatest humanitarian achievement of his reign. He became a victim of his own efforts when anarchists, stirred up by his reforms, assassinated him in 1881. Above is the scene of his assassination, near his palace in St. Petersburg, after a bomb was thrown at his carriage, and below, a photograph of his body lying in state.

Russia Helps Serbia and Montenegro against the Turks

The defeat of France in the Franco–Prussian War of 1870–71 marked the end of the European anti-Russian alliance. The Russian tsar correctly surmised that the former allies would no longer militarily resist aggression against the Ottomans. As a result, when rebellions broke out against Turkish rule in Serbia and Montenegro in 1876, Russia intervened on their behalf, sparking the Russo–Turkish War of 1877 and 1878.

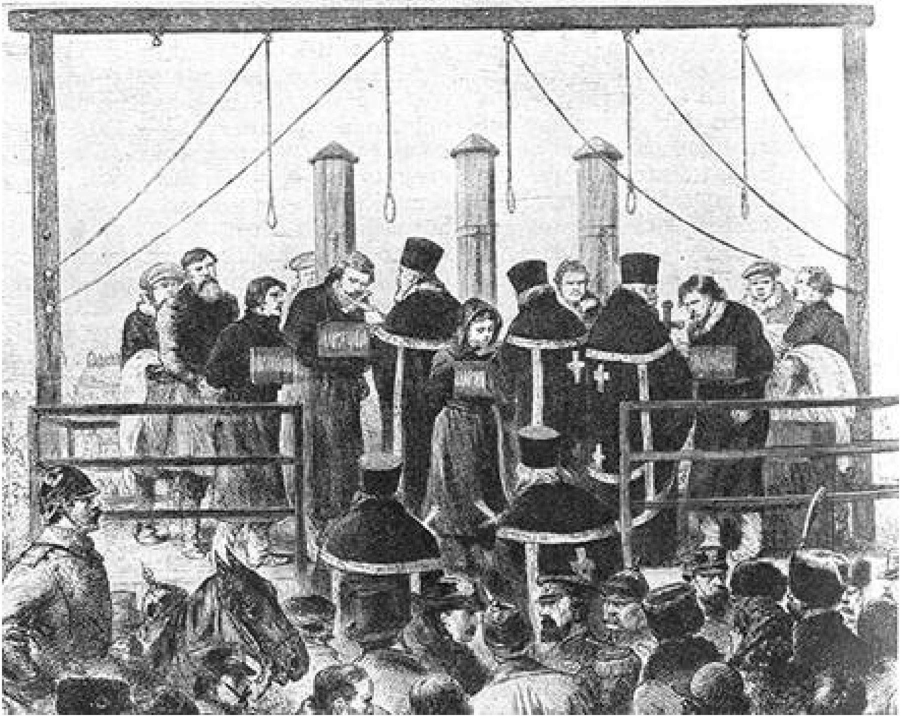
The war was ended by the Treaty of Berlin which granted Russia further territorial gains and once again imposed restrictions on Russian power in the Dardanelles. Alexander II was right: the Western European powers had no appetite for another war with Russia.

Internal Dissent Aggravated by Industrialization

The territorial acquisitions did not hide the fact that by the mid-1800s, Russia's internal political and social conditions were dire. Centuries of despotic rule combined with an intransigent nobility had created a hotbed for radical reformists. The large-scale industrialization of Russia during the nineteenth century aggravated social deprivation even further, with the workers of the big cities of Moscow and St. Petersburg living under conditions which made even the Victorian slums of industrial England look luxurious.

These conditions allowed the most extreme social revolutionaries of the time, the Communists, to attract significant support. Revolutionaries and anarchists alike took up arms, and in 1881 Tsar Alexander II was assassinated in a bombing.

ANARCHISTS HANGED FOR REVOLUTIONARY ACTIVITY



A group of anarchists on the scaffold in nineteenth century Russia. Although comprised of disparate groups, the anarchists were united in their hatred of the Russian royalty. From this hotbed of discontent the later Communists were able to draw a significant amount of support.

Jews Play Leading Role in Revolutionary Activity

Since the time of the slave trading Khazar Empire and its association with Judaism, there had existed in Russia intense anti-Semitic sentiment. Accused of all manner of crimes, mostly financial malpractices and usury, the Jews were expelled from Russia several times during the eighteenth century, in 1727, 1738, and 1742. None of these expulsions were successful, and in 1762, Catherine the Great once again forbade Jews from living in Russia. This attempt to remove them was also unsuccessful and in 1791 she limited Jews to living in an area of land to the west of the country known as the Pale of Settlement.

Tsar Alexander I expelled twenty thousand Jews from the provinces of Vitebsk and Mohilev in 1824. In 1891, popular anti-Jewish riots took place in Moscow which led to the expulsion of Jews from that city. As a result of all these measures, Russia was, by the beginning of the twentieth century, one of the most thoroughly anti-Jewish countries in the world. It was therefore not surprising that an overwhelming number of Jews were active in the revolutionary anti-tsar movements. This preponderance ironically fed the anti-Semitism of the Russian state as it found itself struggling with Communist revolutionaries who very often were Jews.

The Communist revolutionaries were aided by the refusal of the Russian nobility and tsar to bring about social reform. The miserable condition of the Russian peasants, combined with the Communists' skillful revolutionary activism, propelled Russia ever further down the road to outright revolution.

The Last Tsar—Nicholas II

Nicholas II, eldest son of Alexander III, took the throne in 1894. His reign, in regard to his personal and public life, was a disaster. On a personal level, Nicholas's only son, Alexis, was a hemophiliac (common among the royal houses of Europe, due to centuries of familial intermarriages), and he relied in vain on a quack monk, Rasputin, for a cure. Rasputin's influence over the tsar quickly extended into political matters which generated powerful enemies among the ruling elite. As a result, Rasputin was dramatically murdered in 1916.

Japanese Defeat Russians 1904

Nicholas II's foreign adventures fared no better. His attempt to further expand Russian territory in the Far East ended when an invasion of Manchuria led to a disastrous clash with the newly industrialized Japan in February 1904. The Japanese seized the strategically vital harbor of Port Arthur on the Chinese coast from the Russians who were humiliated and forced to sue for peace.

BLOODY SUNDAY MASSACRE SPARKS REVOLUTIONS

January 1905: The Bloody Sunday Massacre in St. Petersburg. Police shoot down hundreds of protestors who wanted to present a petition calling for reform. The incident sparked a series of uprisings across Russia which were only finally suppressed the next year. This is a still from the Soviet propaganda movie Devyatoe Yanvarya *(1925).*

Bloody Sunday—Attempted Revolution of 1905

Domestically, Tsar Nicholas's situation became even more desperate. A feeble attempt at minor social reform, set up by a government sponsored congress in St Petersburg in 1905, ended when Russian police shot down a crowd of demonstrators who wished to hand in a petition to Nicholas.

This incident, known as Bloody Sunday, resulted in hundreds of deaths and served as a signal for the well-organized underground revolutionary structure in Russia's major cities.

A series of uprisings occurred and numerous acts of terrorism took place which included the assassination of several of the tsar's senior government officials.

Finally, after much bloodshed and street fighting between loyalist troops and revolutionaries, the uprising was suppressed by December 1906. At least fourteen thousand people had been executed and at least seventy-five thousand imprisoned, an indication of the extent of support for the revolutionary movement.

A new constitution was finally implemented in 1906 which created a partly representative parliament, or Duma. This was, however, a case of too little, too late. The die had been cast and revolution was inevitable.

World War I—Russia Surrenders to Germany

The outbreak of World War I in 1914 added a new and final dimension to the internal troubles of Russia. Tsar Nicholas ignored the advice of the Duma which urged him to prioritize internal reform and instead plunged Russia into the conflict by declaring war on Germany and the Austro–Hungarian Empire after the latter invaded Serbia.

The Russian army was crippled by poor supply lines, incompetent leadership, and revolutionary activity from within its ranks. As a result, Russia fared disastrously against the Germans and suffered serious reverses on the battlefield.

Military defeat and growing domestic unrest finally forced Tsar Nicholas to abdicate in March 1917. Russia collapsed into a period of anarchy which culminated in the Communist revolution of October that year.

Nicholas was executed and the Russian Empire formally came to an end. The course of the Communist revolution and its consequences for world history are dealt with in later sections of this work.

Geographical Racial Divisions

When the Russian Empire was at its greatest height, just prior to the First World War, it encompassed 8.5 million square miles of territory, fully one-sixth of the land area of the earth.

This was divided into four regions, namely Russia proper (comprising the westernmost part of Russia, the Grand Duchy of Finland, and most of Poland), the Caucasus, all of northern Asia (Siberia), Russian Central Asia (divided into the regions of the Steppes), and Western Turkistan in the southeast.

Only the first two of these regions contained majority white populations. All the rest were (and still are) inhabited by a great mix of races, mostly Asiatic in origin.

The absorption of the Mongols produced the mixed-race population in vast regions of southern and eastern Russia which today are independent Muslim states.

CHAPTER 40: Christianity Dominant—the Dark Ages

The Dark Ages were a period in European history which has been arbitrarily set between approximately 800 AD until the Renaissance. This was the time between the glory of classical antiquity and the rebirth of that glory in the Renaissance and the beginnings of the modern world.

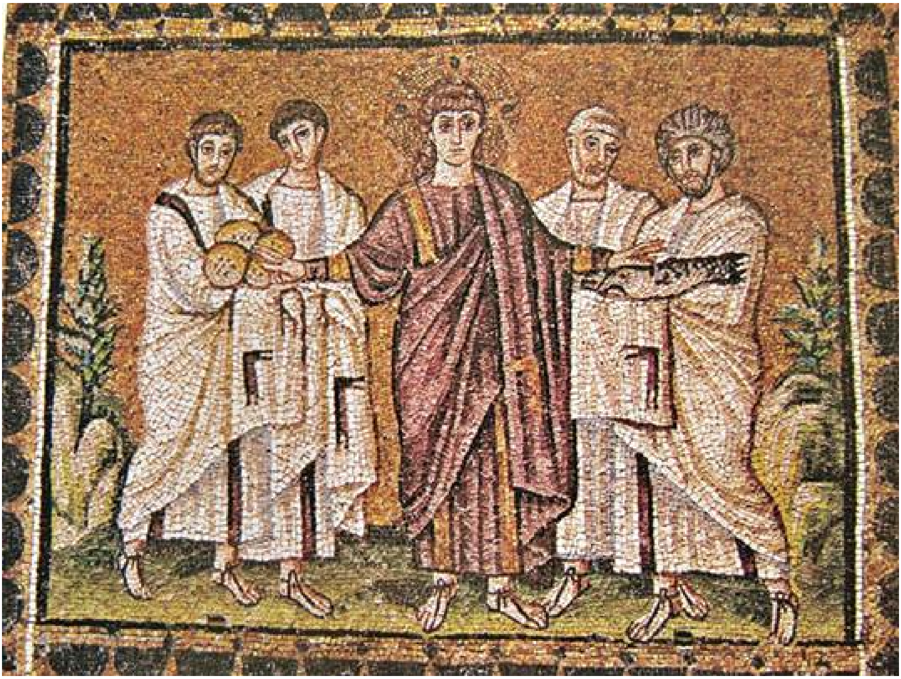
The common thread throughout this period was the total dominance of Christianity and the repression of all art, science, and progress that was not Christian in nature. This led to centuries of cultural stagnation, as in many places even the possession of scientific works was deemed to be a sin. During the Dark Ages a theocracy was set in place, based on a system developed by the Catholic Church. It claimed to have its inspiration in the Bible, only it took pains to ensure that the actual biblical text did not achieve mass distribution.

"Semitic" Christ Portrayed as Nordic

During the Dark Ages, all art forms became Christianized. This was not surprising, given the power of the Catholic Church in determining all aspects of society and being the only large institution capable of sponsoring artists. Any review of the history of European art immediately shows the shift in subject matter from the Classical Age to the Dark Ages. The only artworks of note from the Dark Ages are scenes from the Bible or those depicting great Christian events of the time.

In this way even the figure of Jesus Christ became European in appearance, although according to the Bible, he was descended from Semitic Hebrews (the first chapter of each of the New Testament Gospels all detail Christ's Jewish ancestry).

CHRISTIAN ARTISTIC DISTORTION



Miracle of the loaves and the fishes, *mosaic, Ravenna, Italy. Christian themed art was a trademark of the Dark Ages. Christ was portrayed as a Nordic, even though his ancestry as claimed in the Bible, would have made him a dark Semitic type.*

Nonetheless the Christian-dominated artists of the Dark Ages portrayed Christ as a Nordic racial type, with blond hair and blue eyes, an image which has lasted to the present day in the minds of many Christians the world over. Given his ancestry as claimed in the Bible, the chances of Jesus having Nordic features would have been very remote indeed.

Christianity Spread through Violent Coercion

The early Christians propagated their new beliefs among the tribes of Europe with a religious fanaticism never before seen. The murderous activities of Charlemagne in Germany and the Teutonic Knights in the Baltic States stand out as good examples and have already been discussed in detail in earlier chapters.

The practice of genocidal evangelism was widespread throughout Europe and it is no exaggeration to say that without this initial spurt of violence and savagery (justified by select quotes from the Old and New testaments), it is possible that Christianity might never have come to dominate Europe.

Pope Develops Political Power

The head of the Catholic Church, the pope, became the single most important political figure in Europe. He was, and still is, elected by a small band of bishops who in their turn are appointed by the pope (a neat trick of self-perpetuation).

The pope's permission was required for the appointment of all kings, territorial annexations, and a host of other political matters within Christendom, providing the holder of that office with huge political power. It was therefore little surprise that the political power of the pope was one of the first great Dark Age institutions to crumble. This would ultimately develop into a fully-fledged political revolt, leading to the establishment of Protestant states which completely rejected the pope's authority.

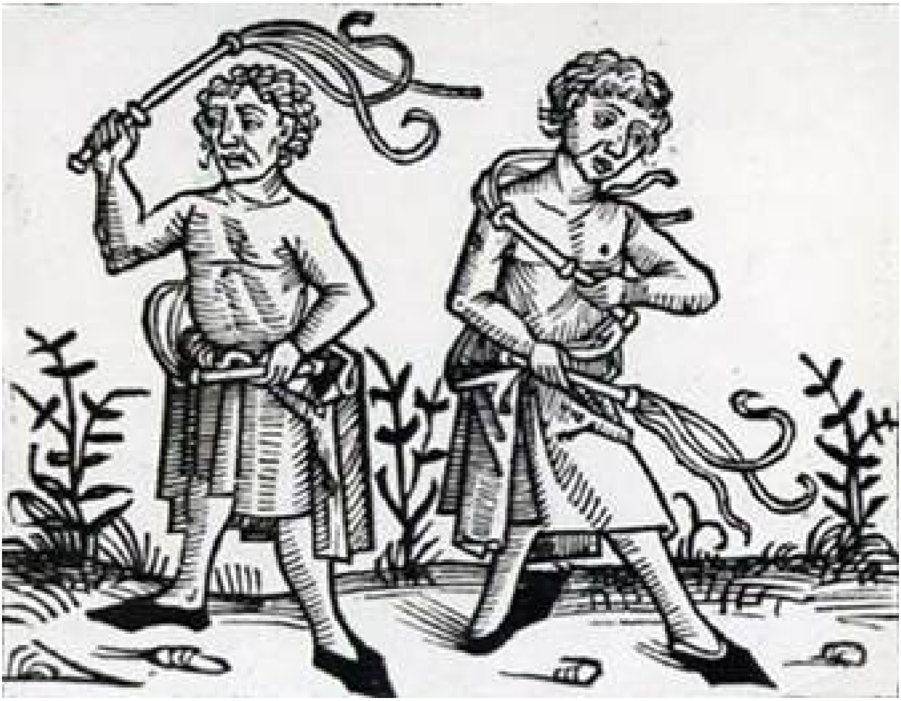
Feudalism at Its Worst During Dark Ages

The institution of feudalism (society organized on a strictly class basis with inheritable offices) also took on its most virulent form during the Dark Ages. Nobles were allocated tracts of land and held accountable only to the king of their territory and to the pope.

All the inhabitants of these lands became vassals of that particular noble, supposedly giving their labor in return for the provision of shelter from attack. In reality, this led to a system of serfdom and virtual slavery, which resulted in the creation of a massive peasant underclass who were always ripe for exploitation by revolutionaries.

Although much of the feudal system has been romanticized with tales of knights in armor, princesses, and courtly love, the harsh reality for the vast majority of the population of medieval Europe was a miserable existence with almost no opportunity of escape. The existence of this oppressive system and its successors in later centuries would prove to be one of the greatest drivers of white settlers fleeing Europe to settle in the new lands of America and elsewhere.

SELF FLAGELLATION—PUNISHMENT FOR THE "SIN" OF THE BLACK PLAGUE



The advent of the Bubonic Plague, or Black Death, was considered by the more extreme Christian elements as a sign from God that they were being punished. The order of the Brothers of the Cross, or Flagellants, appeared all over Christian Europe. They thought that if they did penance by walking barefoot from town to town, shirtless and continually whipping themselves, they would be forgiven and the plague taken away.

The Inquisition—Suppresses Jews and Pagans Alike

The Inquisition was an institution formally established by Pope Gregory IX, in 1231, and was charged with seeking out, trying, and sentencing persons guilty of the broadly defined crime of "heresy."

It began as a measure designed to suppress all non-Christian thought, but developed two specific arms: Spain and the rest of Europe. Outside of Spain, it was mainly non-Jews who were targeted. In Spain, the Inquisition began as an anti-Jewish campaign and then later expanded into other classes of heretics. The Inquisition quite openly used torture to obtain evidence for a wide range of alleged charges, including heresy, witchcraft, bigamy, and, a special one just for the Jews, usury.

Catholic Church Sanctions Torture

The individual inquisitors, most of who were personally appointed by the pope, enjoyed a large amount of power, including the ability to arrest members of royal families. The inquisitors established courts at various cities around Europe, and brought charges against persons they accused of the crime of heresy, which could include atheism, belonging to some other religion besides Christianity, or disputing the Church's interpretation of the Bible. A common charge in Spain, in particular, designed to root out fake conversions among Jews, was that of falsely professing Christianity,

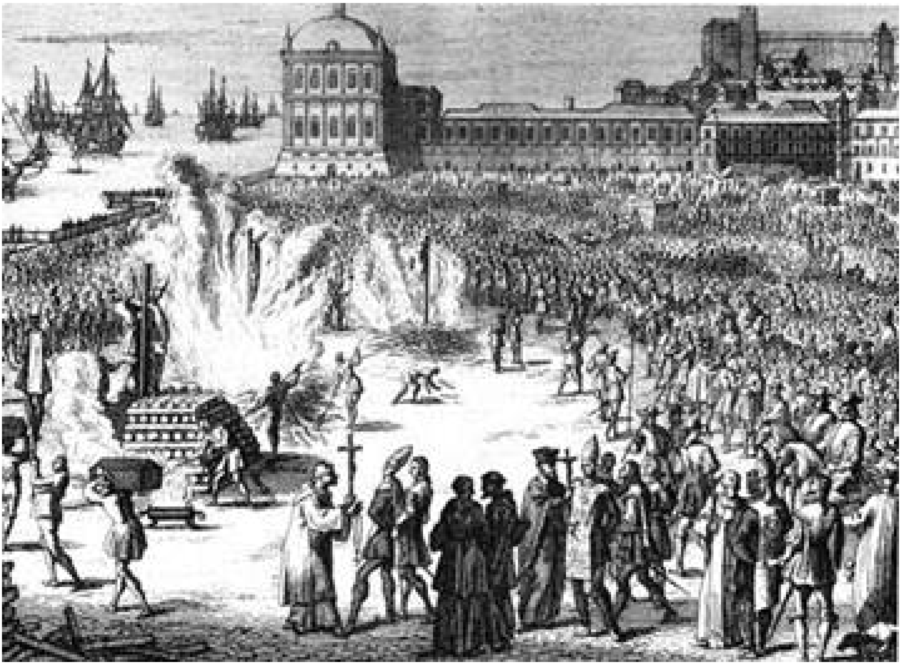
Lesser penalties were imposed on those who came forward and confessed their heresy, with a grace period of a month allowed for these confessions. If a person was tried for heresy, the testimony of two witnesses was generally considered proof of guilt. The inquisitors also had the right to imprison people who they thought might be lying. This outrage was quickly followed by something worse: in 1252, Pope Innocent IV officially sanctioned the use of torture on suspects. Not surprisingly, the flow of confessions of witchcraft, paganism, Satan worship, and any other heresy began to flow from the unfortunate victims of the rack, thumb screws, burning irons, and dozens of other fiendish torture items used in the process.

In a perverted twist to the injunction not to kill, the inquisitors could not perform executions, but only imprison and torture their victims.

The Catholic Church sidestepped this restriction by handing a convicted person over to the local authorities for suitable punishment. When this happened, it was tantamount to a demand from the church to execute that person. This was usually carried out either by burning at the stake or strangulation, in public view.

The Inquisition went on for over three hundred years in varying forms and with differing degrees of cruelty. By the time of the Protestant split from the Catholic Church, the Inquisition had in most places dropped the instruments of torture, but still persecuted the new Protestants with a passion, virtually stamping them out in Italy and Spain.

CHURCH ENDORSES TORTURE AS A MEANS TO EXTRACT CONFESSIONS FROM SINNERS



Victims of the Inquisition are burned at the stake, Lisbon, Portugal, seventeenth century. The rack, the screw chair, and burning were a few of the methods commonly employed during the Inquisition to extract confessions from non-Christians such as Jews or atheists, or those who dissented from the Christian worldview in any sense. In this way the Catholic Church actively suppressed worldviews or thoughts, many of them scientifically valid, which contradicted the Bible.

The Spanish Inquisition

In 1476, Ferdinand, husband of Isabella, and joint ruler of Castile and ultimately all of Spain, organized the Santa Hermandad, or Holy Brotherhood, which was a kind of national military police created to crack down on internal dissent. The Holy Brotherhood also had as one of its primary aims the creation of complete religious subservience to the Catholic Church. In 1478, a decree issued by Pope Sixtus IV empowered Ferdinand and Isabella to appoint three inquisitors to deal with heretics and other offenders against the Church. This marked the formal beginning of the Spanish Inquisition.

In 1483, a leading Spanish Catholic theologian, one Torquemada, was made grand inquisitor for all Spain by Pope Innocent VIII. Although initially founded to further religious ends, the Inquisition in Spain quickly became a way of exacting revenge upon Spain's Jews, who were held responsible for all manner of unsavory financial practices, and who also stood accused of actively aiding in the Muslim occupation of Spain.

A thirteenth century Spaniard, Lucas de Tuy, claimed to have found proof that Jewish spies had delivered the city of Toledo to the Muslim armies. Although never conclusively proven (it possibly had a basis in truth, given the close cooperation between the Spanish Jews and the Moors), this allegation was an example of the accusations leveled against the Spanish Jews.

Torquemada used the Inquisition for fifteen years to investigate and punish Marranos (secret Jews professing Christianity), Moors, atheists, and others on an unprecedented scale. About two thousand people were burned at the stake during his term of office. He was also instrumental in propagating the expulsion of the Jews from Spain in 1492.

Jews Discovered to Be Moorish Allies

The anti-Jewish campaigns in Spain reached a crescendo in 1492, when the very last Moorish stronghold in Spain, Grenada, was overrun by the Spanish forces. The discovery of several Jews among the very highest members of the Moorish government, including viziers (or top advisors) to the Muslim Caliph, sent the Spaniards into a frenzy. That year, some 150,000 Jews were forcibly deported from Spain. Due to Ferdinand of Castile's kingship of Sicily, the Spanish Inquisition was also imposed on the unfortunate inhabitants of that island.

After 1520, the Spanish Inquisition also turned its hand to Protestants in Spain. They were quickly stamped out and Spain remained a strongly Catholic country. Later, the Spanish Inquisition spread to Spain's colonies in the New World. There it concentrated on suppressing the native heathen religions. The Inquisition was finally abolished in Spain in 1834.

Protestantism in Italy Crushed

In 1542, Pope Paul III established the Roman Inquisition to counter Protestantism in Italy. Pope Pius V, who reigned from 1566 to 1572, then utilized the Inquisition to suppress any dissenters at the time of the Protestant revolt. In this way, Pius V temporarily bolstered the Catholic Church at the time of the so-called Counter-Reformation.

As pope, he aided French Roman Catholics in their persecution of the Huguenots and expelled many Jews from the Papal States. Pope

Pius V’s use of the Inquisition was the primary reason why the Reformation never took proper hold in Italy.

The Index of Forbidden Books

At first the Roman Inquisition restricted itself to persecuting intellectuals who questioned either interpretations of the Bible. Then, in 1559, it produced the *Index of Forbidden Books,* which was a list of pagan and other works which contradicted the Christian worldview.

The *Index of Forbidden Books,* called the *Index Librorurm Prohibitorum,* was continuously published by the Catholic Church until 1966, when it was quietly dropped.

Galileo Sentenced to House Arrest

Galileo Galilei, the famous Italian physicist, mathematician, astronomer, and philosopher, who lived from 1564 to 1642, became one of the more famous victims of the Inquisition after coming out in support of the heliocentric view of the solar system which placed the sun, and not the earth, at the center of the universe. Galileo’s work contradicted the biblical Old Testament story of a battle which lasted so long that the Israelites had asked God to make the day longer so they could kill all their foes. According to the Bible, God duly “stopped the sun” to prolong the daylight hours—proof, the church held, that the sun revolved around the earth and not vice versa.

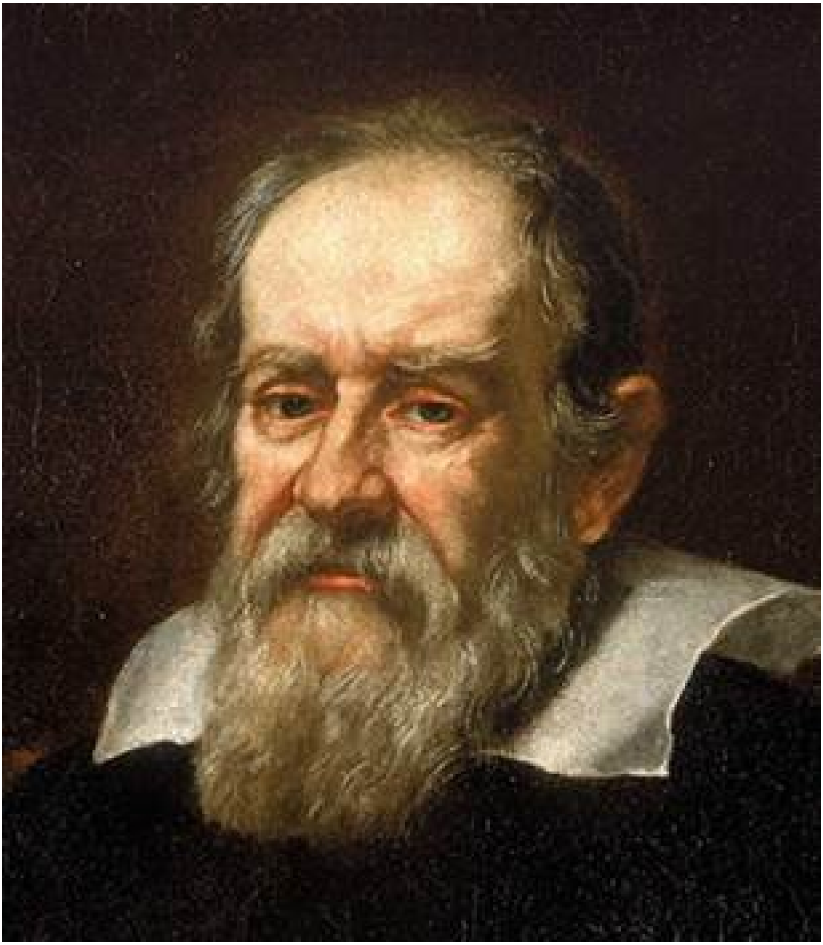
The actual Bible verses, Joshua 10:12–13, state, “...Sun stand thou still upon Gibeon… And the sun stood still in the midst of heaven.”

All of Galileo’s books were denounced in 1614 as heretical by the Catholic Church and, in response, he wrote an open letter on the irrelevance of biblical passages in scientific arguments, stating that the Bible should be adapted to increasing knowledge and that no scientific position should ever be made an article of Christian faith.

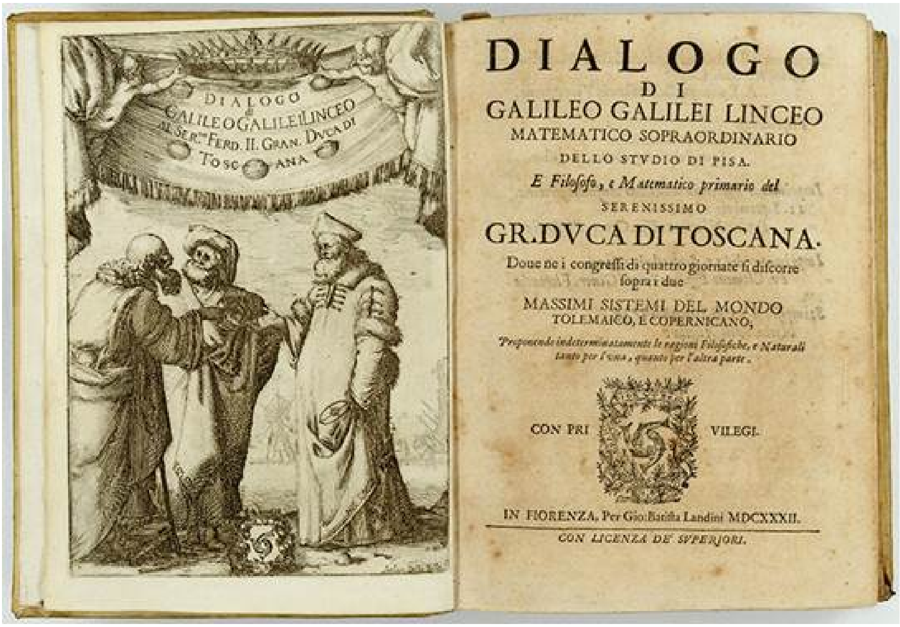
This resulted in his books being seized by the Church in 1616 and burned. Undeterred, in 1632, he published his most famous work, *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems,* which compared the heliocentric and geocentric systems. The Catholic Church put him on trial and under threat of torture compelled him to retract his views.

In addition, the Church sentenced Galileo to lifelong imprisonment, which was later changed to permanent house arrest. All copies of the *Dialogues* were burned, and the sentence against this great scholar, who helped develop the telescope, was read publicly at every university in Europe.

GALILEO GALILEI—SCIENTIFIC GENIUS PERSECUTED



Galileo Galilei (1564–1642), the Italian scientist who was persecuted by the Catholic Church for propagating the heliocentric theory that the sun, and not the earth, was the center of the universe. Found guilty of heresy by the Church, he was forced to publicly recant his views, and sentenced to prison. This was later changed to lifelong house arrest, and he died at home, nine years after being sentenced. Below, the frontispiece of Galileo's most famous book, Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems.



DIALOGO
DI
GALILEO GALILEI LINCEO
MATEMATICO SOPRAORDINARIO
DELLO STVDIO DI PISA.
E Filoſofo, e Matematico primario del
SERENISSIMO
GR.DVCA DI TOSCANA.
Doue ne i congreſſi di quattro giornate ſi diſcorre
ſopra i due
MASSIMI SISTEMI DEL MONDO
TOLEMAICO, E COPERNICANO;
Proponendo indeterminatamente le ragioni Filoſofiche, e Naturali
tanto per l'una, quanto per l'altra parte.

CON PRI VILEGI.

IN FIORENZA, Per Gio:Batiſta Landini MDCXXXII.

CON LICENZA DE' SVPERIORI.

Bruno—Martyr for Freedom of Thought

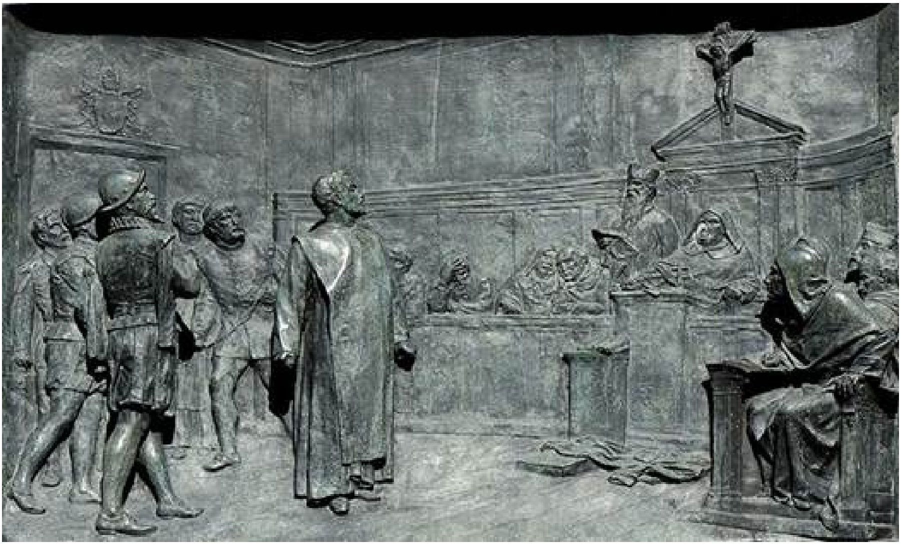
The Italian philosopher Giordano Bruno serves as a typical example of how the Inquisition went to work. An ex-Dominican monk, Bruno was burned at the stake by the Catholic Church on February 17, 1600, after being arrested and imprisoned by the Inquisition.

Bruno had abandoned Christianity and resurrected the materialism and Stoicism of the classical world as a personal belief system. The specific charges leveled against Bruno in his trial revealed fully the descent into madness which typified the Inquisition.

Bruno was accused of writing that Moses was a magician, that Moses had never spoken to God, that Jesus was a magician and a wretch, and that there was no reason to wonder at Jesus' miracles because he, Bruno, could perform even greater ones.

He was also accused of saying that Jesus did not rise from the dead, that a virgin birth was impossible, there was no hell, and that monks were asses. In front of the Inquisitors, Bruno stated that he had nothing to recant. He was sentenced to death and his works were publicly burned on the steps of St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome and placed on the *Index of Forbidden Books.* Bruno's famous reply to the sentence was: "Perhaps you who pronounce my sentence are in greater fear than I who receive it."

As he was tied to the stake on which he was to be burned, a monk offered him a crucifix to kiss. Bruno turned his head away angrily, saying that he would die willingly, as a martyr, and that his soul would rise with the fire. He was then burned alive, to hymns sung by a church choir.



The trial of Giordano Bruno before the Inquisition

Inquisition Fails to Suppress Protestantism

The Holy Roman Emperor Charles V ordered the introduction of the Inquisition into (what later became known as) the Netherlands in 1522, to counteract the spread of Protestantism there. The Inquisition was a notable failure in this regard.

The Inquisition in Geneva, Switzerland was as severe as the Spanish version, and continuously threatened the reformer John Calvin. It, too, ultimately failed in its objective of squashing all dissent.

Social Effects of the Dark Ages

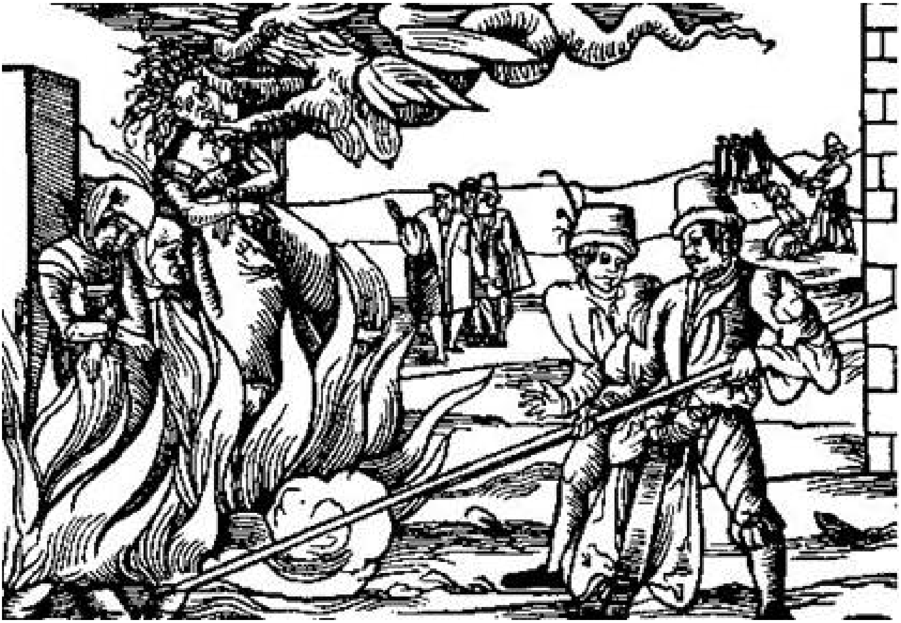
During the Dark Ages, only the cleverest candidates were allowed to enter the priesthood, as they were the keepers of the arts and writing. Consequently, the only way to gain any sort of education was to join the priesthood.

As a result, the Catholic Church’s enforcement of celibacy led to some of the brightest genes being lost to the white race’s gene pool.

Many scientists were forced to either abandon their work or, if they dared continue, had to do so in great secrecy. Leonardo da Vinci produced many of his manuscripts in mirror writing, to prevent others from reading the results of his research, even though he worked at the time when the Inquisition was tapering off in its power.

The cumulative effect of the Dark Ages was, therefore, to set Europe back centuries in development.

THOUSANDS OF INNOCENT PEOPLE BURNED AS "WITCHES"



Witches being burned at the stake in a 1555 woodcut. "Justified" by the biblical injunction to kill witches, thousands of women were arrested and charged with sorcery, with one of the more famous victims being the mother of the astronomer Johannes Kepler. They were killed for "crimes" which ranged from having sexual intercourse with Satan and giving birth to devils, to prowling the country as cats. Torture was used to obtain the confessions. In one famous instance, the medical faculty of the University of Leipzig saved one of these "confessors" from the stake by certifying her as demented after identifying the "monstrous births" which followed her "intercourse with Satan" as nothing more than a bowel movement. According to the Grolier's Encyclopedia, *1966, the number of victims of such witch burnings ran into the "hundreds of thousands."*

CHAPTER 41: The Rebirth of Classical Culture—the Renaissance

The word renaissance literally means “rebirth” and the time period to which this refers was just that, a rebirth of European culture, learning and science. The Renaissance started in fourteenth century Italy and then spread to the rest of Europe by the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

It is no coincidence that this “rebirth” accompanied the end of the Dark Ages. The Renaissance was also clearly linked to the religious reformation which spread through much of Europe as well, and in many cases the Reformation and the Renaissance were closely intertwined.

Renaissance Begins in Lombardic Northern Italy

The Renaissance began in the cities of northern Italy, which were, significantly, those regions which had been occupied by the Germanic Lombards after the collapse of the Roman Empire.

The Lombards produced all of the famous Italian Renaissance personalities: Leonardo Da Vinci, Dante, and Michelangelo, to name but a few. Possibly the most famous and influential Lombard was, however, Christopher Columbus, who sailed under the flag of Spain, and who, in 1492, was to precipitate the colonization of North America by the white race.

The role of the wealthy families of these north Italian cities in patronizing scholars and artists who pursued this rebirth of classical civilization must be acknowledged. Without the financial backing of the Medicis of Florence, the Estes of Ferrara, the Sforzas of Milan, the Gonzagas of Mantua, the dukes of Urbino, and the doges of Venice, the Renaissance might never have had the great impact which it did.

FIRST USE OF EQUESTRIAN STATUE SINCE CLASSICAL ROMAN TIMES

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Donatello's Equestrian Monument to Gattamelata, *Padua, 1450, marks the first use of an equestrian monument since ancient Roman and Greek times and is a striking reminder of the classical origins of the culture of the Renaissance.*

Revival in Secular Literature

One of the most significant changes brought about by the lifting of the death grip of the Catholic Church was a sudden outpouring of historical literature, which for the first time since the supremacy of Christianity, did not take on a purely theocratic form.

A secular, or nonreligious, worldview, inspired the most famous history books of the time: *The Twelve Books of Florentine Histories* by Leonardo Bruin (1420), the *Florentine History* by Niccola Machiavelli (1525), and the *Introduction to the Study of History* by Jean Bodin (1566) exemplified this shift.

These Renaissance historians rejected the Christian interpretation that history started with the Creation, followed by the Incarnation of Jesus Christ and the anticipated Last Judgment. Renaissance historians started with antiquity, followed by the Middle Ages and then the golden age of rebirth in the time that they wrote. In addition, classical works were studied as great pieces of literature in their own right, and not just to justify Christian civilization.

This renewed interest in ancient works caused a determined and ultimately successful search for classical manuscripts: *The Dialogues of Plato, The Histories* of Herodotus and Thucydides, and the works of the Greek dramatists and poets were rediscovered and reached wide audiences once again.

Greek was even introduced as a subject at schools in northern Italy. In addition, the study of political science was started by Niccolò Machiavelli (1469–1527), another northern Italian historian, statesman, and political philosopher, whose most famous work, *The Prince* (written in 1513 but published in 1532), established him as the father of political science.

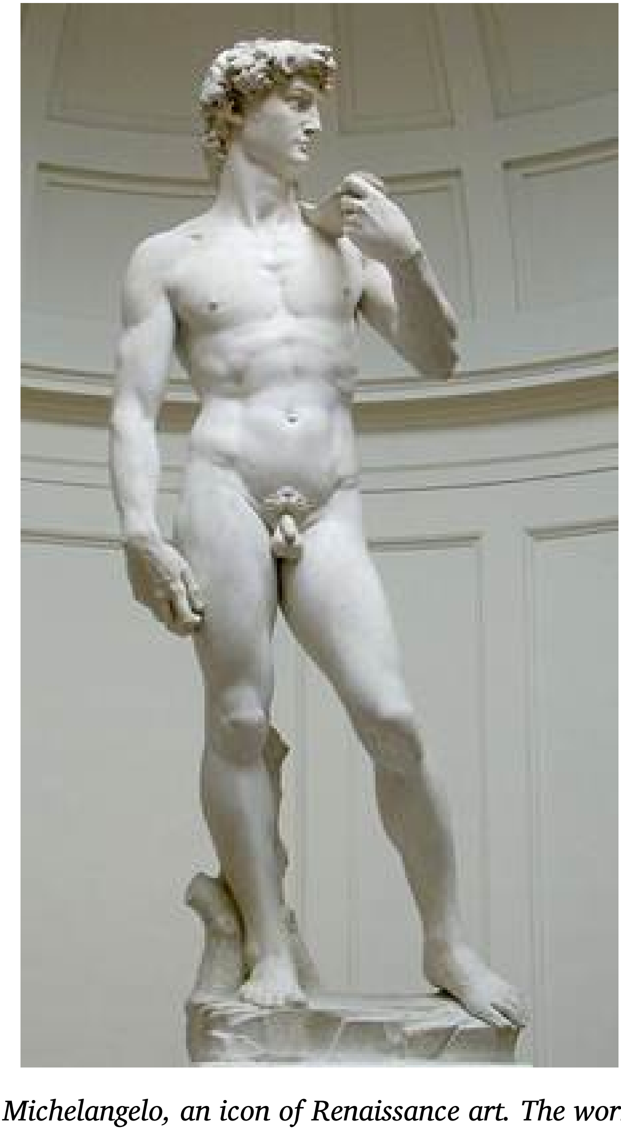
Great Artists of the Renaissance

The Renaissance spread to all parts of Europe as the Dark Ages lifted. While it is impossible to do justice to all the great artists of that time, a partial listing of some of the most prominent artists is well worthwhile:

- Giotto (1267–1337) was the most important Italian painter of the fourteenth century, whose conception of the human figure in broad, rounded terms, rather than flat and two dimensional, was a milestone in the development of Western art.

- Michelangelo (1475–1564), was one of the most inspired creators in the history of art. His famous works include the frescoes of the Sistine Chapel ceiling, which he painted while lying on his back (a task which lasted from 1508 to 1512). He was also the chief architect of Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome, where he altered an original design by Donato Bramante to redo the exterior and the final form of its dome. His large freestanding nude, *David* (1504), is another icon of Renaissance art, and was the largest marble statue sculptured since Roman times.

PAGAN INSPIRATION FOR RENAISSANCE ART



David *by Michelangelo, an icon of Renaissance art. The work's title has erroneously led people to believe that it was supposed to be a biblical work: in fact, it shows an uncircumcised male, whereas if it were meant to portray the biblical David, it would certainly have been circumcised. Many art experts have suggested that David was actually the name of the model, rather than the Jewish king, and that Michelangelo claimed the biblical* *reference to make the nude work acceptable. It is clearly pagan Greek and Roman in inspiration.*

• Donatello, whose real name was Donato di Niccola di Betto Bardi (1386– 466), was a painter and sculptor who set the standards for all of his contemporaries, and is considered one of the greatest sculptors of all time and the founder of modern sculpture. Donatello created the first freestanding nude statue since Roman times, *David,* in 1435 in Florence. This statue was later to serve as the inspiration for Michelangelo's *David.* The other image for which Donatello is most remembered is the painting of the *Singing Gallery* (1448) in the Florence Cathedral—the images of the naked cherubim have become synonymous with cupids since then.

• Sandro Botticelli, whose real name was Alessandro di Mariano Filipepi (1445–1510), was one of the leading painters of the Florentine Renaissance. Botticelli, who was sponsored by the Medici family in Florence, was responsible for one of the most widely recognizable paintings of the Renaissance: *The Birth of Venus* (1482). The heavily pagan undertones of this great painting speaks volumes about the spirit of the Renaissance.

• Filippo Brunelleschi (1377–1476), was an architect who broke with medieval tradition in Florence around 1420 with the invention of linear style which enabled three dimensional images to be projected on a flat surface.

Brunelleschi also won fame as the first Renaissance builder, designing the enormous dome of the Florence Cathedral, which was built in 1436—without any doubt the most impressive engineering feat since Roman times.

Science Reemerges from Dark Ages

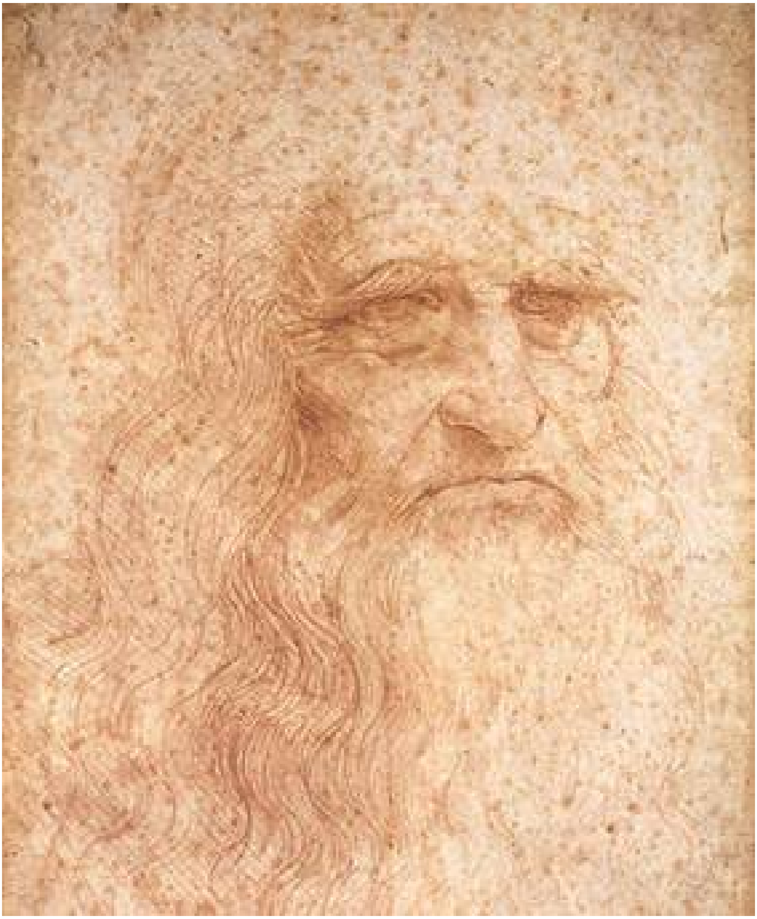
In medicine and anatomy, the ancient works of Hippocrates and Galen were finally translated in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. These works were seized upon by the budding Renaissance-era intellectuals, and advances based on these basic works allowed scientists such as Nicolaus Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, and Johannes Kepler to make real advances in their fields, many of them the first in hundreds of years.

The study of geography was transformed when the maps of the Romanized Greek cartographer, Ptolemy, were unearthed. This led directly to the first great wave of white explorers who eventually went to the four corners of the earth.

The invention of printing in the fifteenth century revolutionized the accessibility of knowledge to those wishing to acquire it: the appearance of printed books not only served to broaden the circle of knowledge, but also changed the solitude of academic life in the previous era into joint effort which very often spanned countries.

The invention of gunpowder transformed warfare after 1450. For the first time city walls could be smashed down with cannons instead of besieging armies having to rely on catapults and boulders to do the job.

DA VINCI—ARTIST, ENGINEER, AND RENAISSANCE SUPERMAN



Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was a Lombardic painter, draftsman, sculptor, architect, and engineer whose genius and full life epitomized the Renaissance ideal. His world-famous paintings are but a fraction of his outpourings, which included many scientific and mechanical breakthroughs *which are still used to this day. Above, a self-portrait which shows his physiognomy.*

Famous Renaissance scientists

- Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was a Florentine artist who achieved fame as a painter, sculptor, architect, engineer, and scientist.

His scientific studies in the fields of anatomy, optics, and hydraulics, anticipated many of the developments of modern science, even though some of his theories were recorded in reverse mirror script out of fear of persecution from the church.

In the field of anatomy, he studied the circulation of the blood and the action of the eye. He made discoveries in meteorology and geology, learned the effect of the moon on the tides, foreshadowed modern conceptions of continent formation, and surmised the nature of fossil shells. He was among the originators of the science of hydraulics and devised the hydrometer.

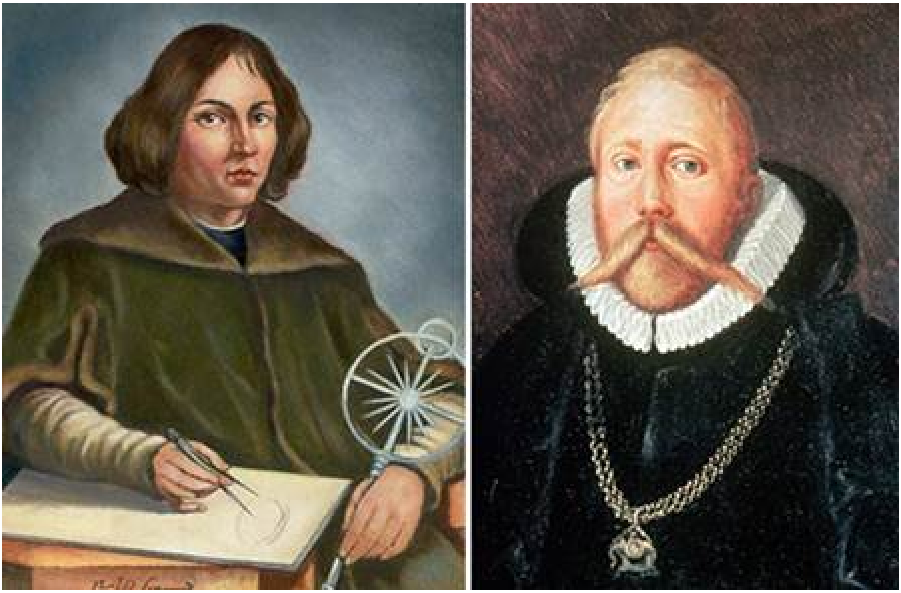
He invented a large number of machines, including an underwater diving suit, the military tank (finally built during the First World War in 1917), the glider, the ball bearing, and many others.

- Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), was a Polish astronomer, best known for his astronomical theory that the sun is at rest near the center of the universe, and that the earth, spinning on its axis once daily, revolves annually around the sun. This is called the heliocentric, or sun-centered, system. His theory was suppressed by the church at the trial of Galileo in 1633.

- Tycho Brahe (1546–1601) was a Danish astronomer, who made precise, comprehensive astronomical measurements of the solar system and more than seven hundred stars.

- Johannes Kepler (1571–1630) was a German astronomer and natural philosopher, noted for formulating and verifying the three laws of planetary motion. These laws are now known as Kepler’s Laws.

COPERNICUS AND BRAHE—TWO RENAISSANCE GENIUSES



Left: Nicolaus Copernicus (1473–1543), the Polish-born astronomer, who was the first to resuscitate the heliocentric view of the universe, based on earlier Greco–Roman thought. His most famous book, De revolutionibus, *explained for the first time how the rising and setting of planets was a result of the earth's rotation around the sun. Right: Tycho Brahe (1546–1601). Born in Denmark, Brahe developed astronomical instruments to measure and fix the positions of stars. He mapped the solar system and accurate positions of more than 777 fixed stars.*

- Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727) was an English mathematician and physicist, considered one of the greatest scientists in history, whose discoveries and theories laid the foundation for much of the progress in science since his time. Newton was one of the inventors of the branch of mathematics called calculus (the other was German mathematician Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz). He also solved the mysteries of light and optics, formulated the three laws of motion, and derived from them the law of universal gravitation.

- Galileo Galilei (1564–1642) was an Italian physicist and astronomer, who, with the German astronomer Johannes Kepler, initiated the scientific revolution that preceded the work of the English physicist Sir Isaac Newton. Galileo developed the telescope, an early model of which he presented to the rulers of Venice: its value for naval and maritime operations resulted in the doubling of his salary and his assurance of lifelong tenure as a professor. In 1609, he built a powerful telescope with which he became the first person to see mountains and craters on the moon; the stars of the Milky Way, and the four largest satellites of Jupiter. He published these findings in March 1610, in a book called *The Starry Messenger*. He was, however, persecuted by the Church on account of his writings, as outlined in the previous chapter.

Church First Suppresses, Then Attempts to Hijack Renaissance

The Catholic Church at first tried to suppress the outpouring of interest in the pagan civilizations, with one of the popes appointing a special inquisition to try and crush the revival in pagan works. However, the irresistible tide turned even the majority of the most fanatical Catholics, and society at large became more secular.

With this, the repression of classical thought died away, and the Church instead tried to adjust to the new interests by positioning itself as the original champion of classical thought, pointing to the origins of Rome rather than the Christian religion. The writings of the Church fathers were then produced and added to the lineup of works to be studied along with the pagan works. The humanist approach to society had its origins from this time, one that was to lay the basis for modern Christianity.

Renaissance—Turning Point in European Cultural Development

The Renaissance, along with the Reformation, marked a turning point in the direction of European culture. It was the driving force behind the quest for new and better knowledge: a quest which led directly to the period of exploration, of sea voyages to far-off and new lands, which in turn saw the whites colonize North and South America, Australia, New Zealand, huge parts of Asia, and parts of Africa.

CHAPTER 42: In the Name of God—the Christian Wars

In the New Testament, Jesus Christ is quoted as saying that he had come to bring the sword, to "set father against son and mother against daughter" (Luke 12:53), and said "But those mine enemies, which would not that I should reign over them, bring hither, and slay them before me" (Luke 19:27).

These words have, in the history of Christianity, been enacted in bloody reality many times, starting when an important political rebellion against the Roman Catholic Church took on a religious slant which led to a split in European Christendom between Catholic and Protestant. This split sparked off a series of religious wars which were ultimately to be responsible for the death of nearly a third of the white race.

The Reformation Heralds a North/South Split

The Reformation is the name given to this sixteenth century religious uprising. As its major outpouring occurred in the middle of the Renaissance, there can be little doubt that the two events were linked. In addition, however, a political dimension with subracial undertones was added when most of northern Europe switched to Protestantism while most of southern Europe remained Catholic.

Emerging European nationalism also objected to the fact that the pope, usually an Italian, had to approve the appointment of any head of state everywhere else in Europe. The pope's ability to charge tax on foreign countries to support the Church's headquarters in Rome also irked those living thousands of miles from the city. The Catholic Church's economic empire was forged in this manner, and it is estimated that prior to the Reformation, the church owned as much as one third of all the land in Europe.

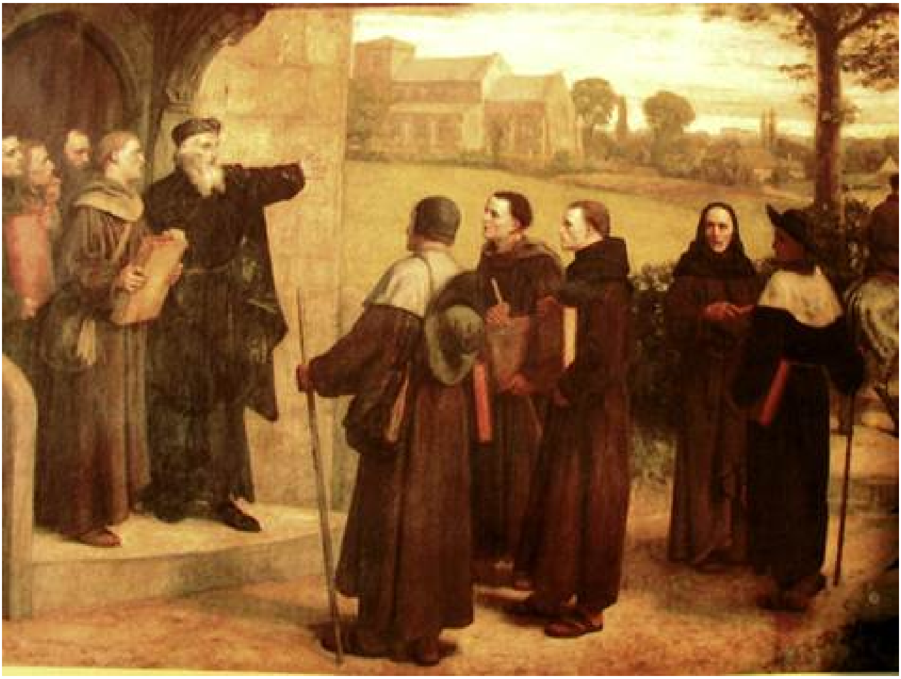
Catholic Farce—Popes Excommunicate Each Other

The Catholic Church, while supposed to only serve God, betrayed its only-too-human political agenda when a dispute over succession to the papal throne erupted between the Italians and the French. In an event known as the Great Schism of 1378, the French set up their pope, Clement VII, in Avignon, while the Italians installed Urban VI in Rome. Both popes then proceeded to excommunicate each other from the Church. The dispute was finally resolved in 1415, when both incumbents were sacked and a pope set up in Rome. However, the authority of the Church was reduced by the farcical proceedings, as many saw for the first time that the popes were all too human and lusted after power more than service to God.

Dissolution of the Pope's Authority

The first steps toward the breakdown of the power of the Roman Catholic Church were taken in England: a series of laws issued in that country from 1279 to 1352 prevented the church from overriding the local authorities to seize land for itself. The right of the Church clergy to act as judges in criminal and civil matters was also removed by these laws.

WYCLIFFE OPPOSES CATHOLICISM 1378



The English reformer, John Wycliffe, a forerunner of the Protestant reformers, sending out his band of "poor priests" in 1378 to preach a non-Catholic version of Christianity throughout England.

English Reformer John Wycliffe Attacks Catholicism

In 1378, an English clergyman, John Wycliffe, publicly attacked the sale of indulgences by the Catholic Church. This was a system whereby sinners could buy forgiveness for their misdeeds for a fee payable to the Church. Wycliffe said that forgiveness from God could not be purchased for money and then proceeded to anger the Catholic Church further by translating the Bible into English and delivering his sermons in English, rather than Latin.

Bohemian John Huss Sparks Massacres

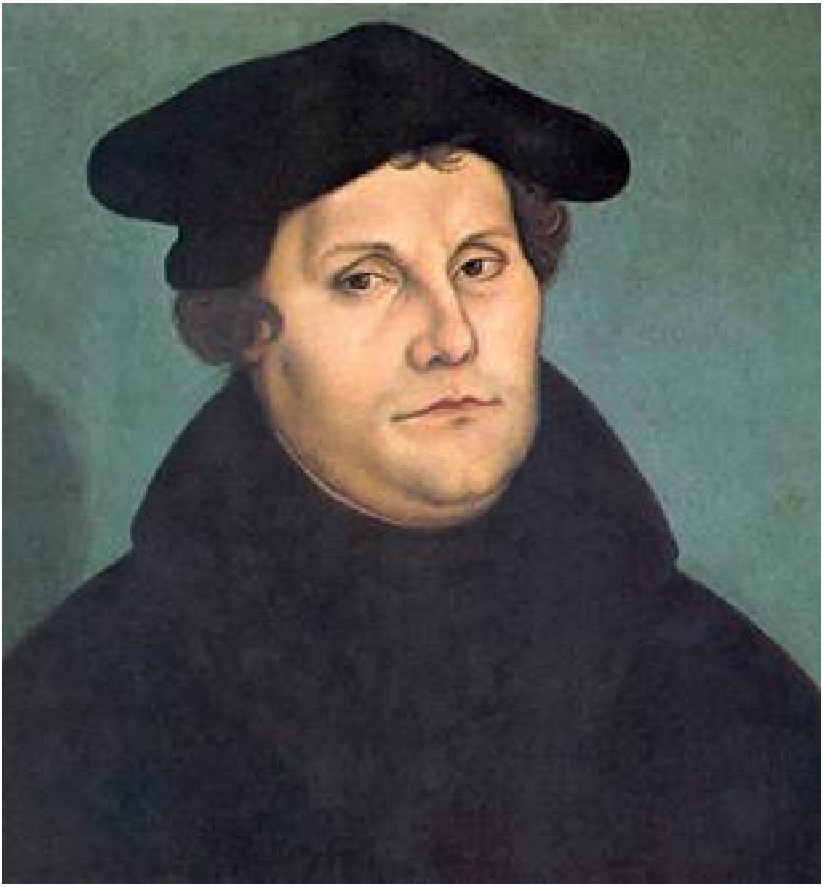
Wycliffe's ideas attracted a great following in Central Europe. In Bohemia, a local clergyman by the name of John Huss espoused a particularly fiery anti-Catholicism. Huss was seized by order of the Catholic Church, condemned as a heretic, and executed in 1415. Huss's followers were then attacked physically and several thousand were killed during the resultant conflict which became known as the Hussite Rebellion.

France—Church Made Subject to King 1516

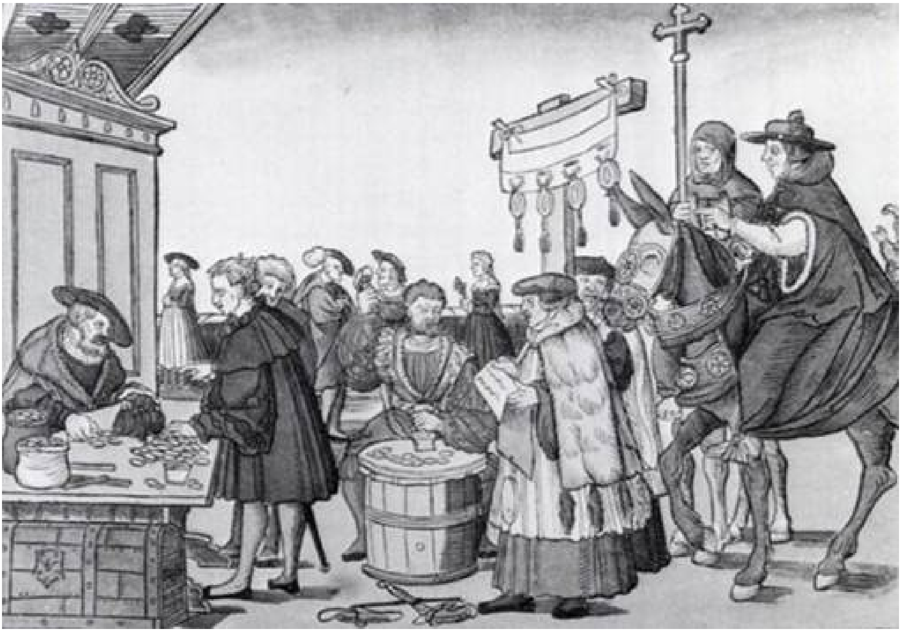
A treaty signed between the French king and the pope in 1516 placed the Catholic Church in France in a subservient role to the monarchy. Similar treaties with the rulers of other countries in Europe also slowly ate away at the pope's power, creating the political conditions under which theologians could start differing with the Catholic dogma without fear of being persecuted.

Thus, although the Reformation is formally said to have started with the rebellion led by the German clergyman Martin Luther in 1517, the sociopolitical conditions which allowed the rebellion to develop had been in existence for at least 150 years before his time.

LUTHER SPARKS REFORMATION



Martin Luther (1483–1546) is known as the priest whose questioning of Catholic Church practices led to the Protestant Reformation. He is one of the pivotal figures of modern Christianity, as his actions caused Christianity to fracture into two major parts and also set the stage for centuries of warfare between Protestants and Catholics. Below: A print from the time illustrates the Catholic practice of selling indulgences, or forgiveness from God. The print shows coins being minted on the spot as demand was so high. It was overtly corrupt practices such as these which drove Luther to voice his objections in public.



Luther and the German Reformation

Martin Luther (1482–1546) was a German Catholic clergyman who visited Rome in 1501 and was shocked by what he saw: in his words, the worldliness of the papal court.

Appointed Professor of Scripture at Wittenberg University, Luther rejected the idea that the pope was infallible and appointed by God. In 1517, he announced his ideas in the famous *95 Theses,* a written document which he nailed to the door at the Wittenberg Church. This act caused alarm throughout Catholic Germany and in Rome, given Luther's stature in the theocratic community.

Luther was ordered to retract his attacks on the Catholic Church, but this caused him to become even more outspoken. The pope then sent him a written threat of expulsion from the Church (called a bull), which Luther publicly burnt in 1520.

This sent the Catholics into a fury: the Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V, and numerous other Catholic clergymen held a meeting (called a diet) in the town of Worms and ordered Luther to recant. He refused and was kidnapped by friends, who then forced him to hide in Wartburg Castle, which belonged to a sympathetic noble. There he wrote pamphlets further espousing his views and started translating the Bible into German.

Lutheranism was supported by the north German princes, many lower order clergy, and large numbers of ordinary Germans, many of whom saw it as an opportunity to gain independence from Rome.

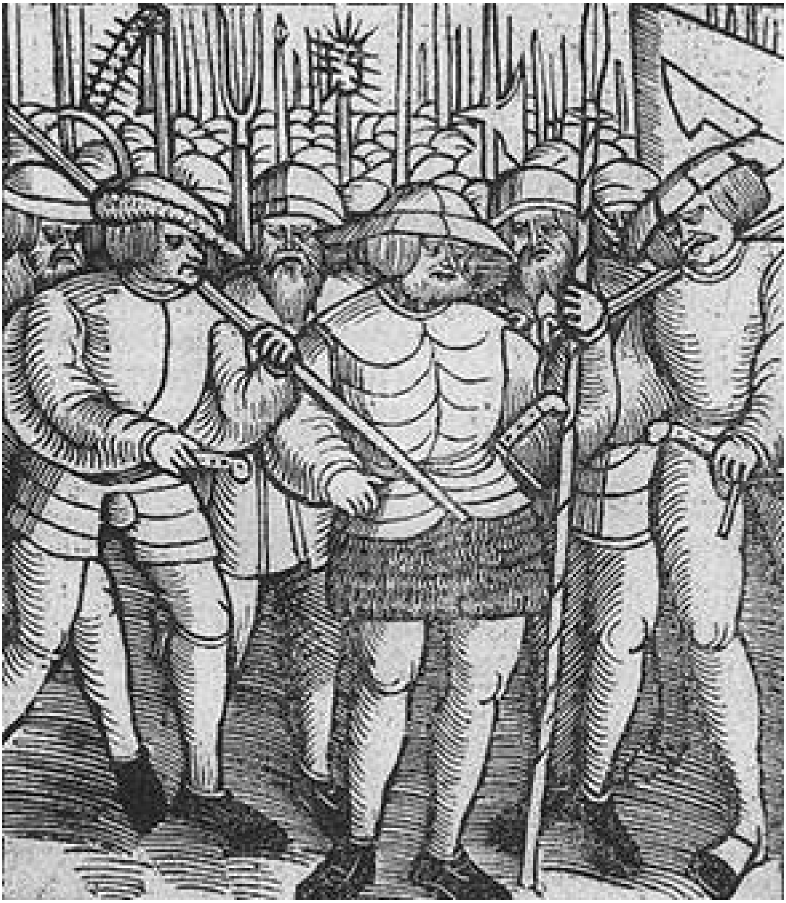
The First Christian War—The Peasants' War 1524–1525

The Catholics did not take the rebellion lying down. The first Christian War, called the Peasants' War, broke out between Catholic and Lutheran followers in 1524. This uprising was used as an excuse by many feudal peasants to rise up against their conditions of servitude, bound as they were to many nobles and the Church for taxes.

Although Luther spoke out against the Peasants' War, this was regarded as the first conflict of the Lutheran rebellion. The peasants were defeated in 1525 and a truce was reached between the Lutherans and the Catholics at the Diet of Speyer in 1526.

There it was agreed in principle that those who wanted to worship in the way that Luther espoused were free to do so. However, in 1529, the Catholics unilaterally rejected the agreement. The Lutherans protested the about-face and from then on those in the anti-Catholic movement became known as Protestants, from the Latin word, *protestari*, meaning to publicly protest or declare.

PEASANTS' WAR ERUPTS 1524



An illustration from the Memmingen Articles of War, *written in 1525, during the Peasants' War. This was the first conflict sparked by Luther's teachings, although he vehemently opposed the conflict.*

The Second Christian War—Charles V Battles Protestants 1546–1555

At this stage of the Reformation's development, the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V's attention was diverted from his domestic political and religious troubles by a renewed push by the Ottomans into Central Europe. It was only upon his return from that war, in 1546, that he decided to deal militarily with the Protestant uprising. In alliance with a papal army, Charles V made formal war against the Protestant nobles and their supporters. After a bloody civil war lasting nine years, the two sides finally made peace in 1555 with the Treaty of Augsburg. In terms of the peace, the rulers of the approximately three hundred German states were free to choose if they wanted to be Catholic or Protestant. Lutheranism was followed by about half of the population, and finally gained official recognition.

Peaceful Reformation in Scandinavia

In contrast to Germany, the Reformation in Scandinavia was largely peaceful. The kings of Denmark and Sweden were, possibly for reasons of political independence more than anything else, early converts and openly supported the Protestants.

In 1536, a national assembly held in Copenhagen abolished the authority of the Catholic bishops throughout Denmark, Norway, and Iceland. Sweden officially adopted Protestantism in 1529.

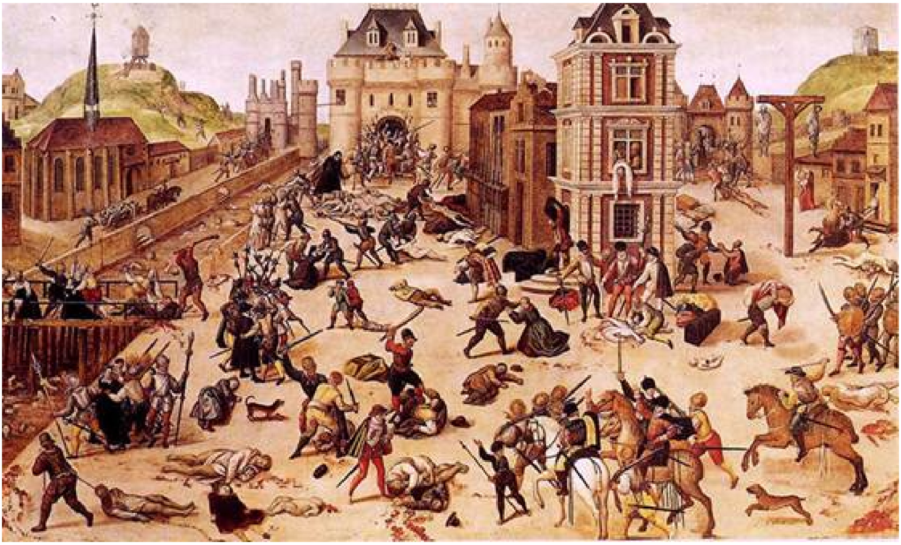
The Third Christian War—Zwingli Killed in Switzerland 1529–1531

The Reformation in Switzerland was led by the Swiss pastor Huldreich Zwingli (1484–1531) in Zurich. After launching a campaign against Catholicism in 1518, Zwingli persuaded large segments of the population of Zurich to adopt his views and, by 1525, many of the strictures of Roman Catholicism had been rejected with the legal sanction of the town council.

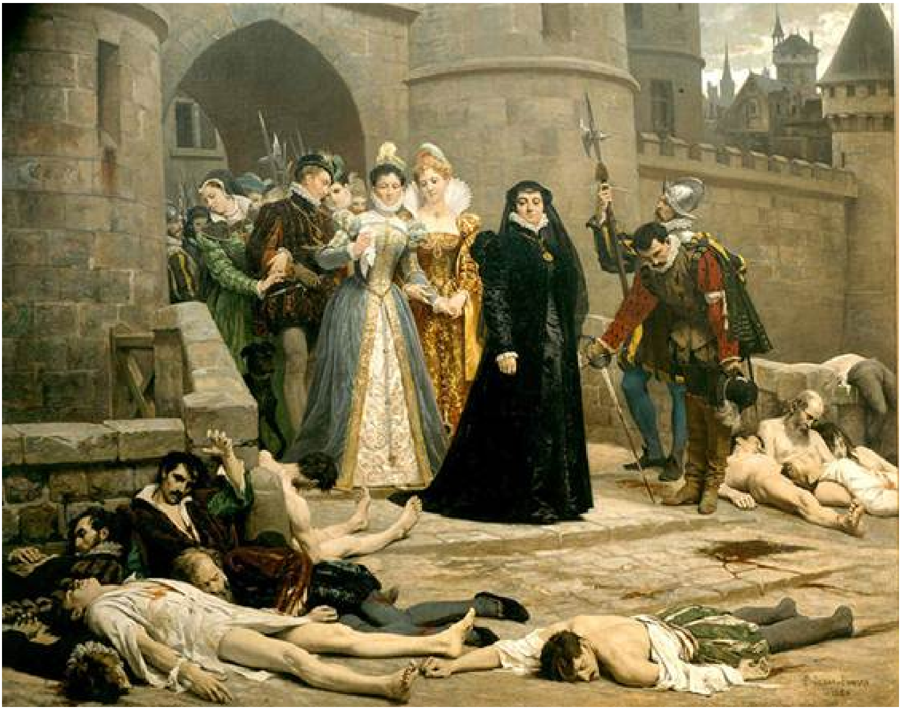
Other Swiss towns, such as Basel and Bern, adopted similar reforms, but the conservative peasantry of the forest cantons adhered to Roman Catholicism. Two short Christian wars erupted in 1529 and 1531. Zwingli was killed during the latter conflict, and a peace treaty which ended the wars allowed the Swiss cantons to choose between Catholicism and Protestantism.

In 1536, a French Protestant, John Calvin, settled in Geneva after having been forced to flee his own Catholic-dominated country. Through his teachings and work, Calvin took Protestantism to new extremes. In gestures designed to overcompensate for the worldly excesses of Catholicism, Calvin and his followers (Calvinists) forbade all forms of entertainment and regulated even the dress of ordinary people. He later recanted certain more extreme aspects of his teachings.

Calvin is recognized as having merged a number of diverse thought streams of Protestantism into a coherent whole. His influence helped create the churches later known as the “Reformed religions” in Scotland, France, and in the Americas.



ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY MASSACRE, AUGUST 1572—CATHOLICS SLAUGHTER PROTESTANTS IN PARIS AND POPE GREGORY XIII CELEBRATES WITH MEDAL



Catholics slaughter Protestants in France: the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre, Paris, August 23–24, 1572. The massacre occurred as a result of a plot by Catherine de Médicis, the mother of the French king, Charles IX, in conjunction with the Roman Catholic Guise family, to assassinate the

Huguenot leader, Admiral Gaspard II de Coligny, who appeared to be influencing her son. The assassination bid failed, and Coligny was only wounded. To placate the angry Huguenots, the government agreed to investigate the assassination attempt. Fearing discovery of her complicity, Catherine met secretly with a group of nobles at the Tuileries Palace to plot the complete extermination of the Huguenot leaders. Charles IX was persuaded to approve of the scheme, and, on the night of August 23, members of the Paris municipality were called to the Louvre and given their orders. Shortly before dawn on August 24, the bell of Saint-Germain-l'Auxerrois began to toll and the massacre began. One of the first victims was Coligny, who was killed under the supervision of Henry de Guise. The homes and shops of Huguenots were pillaged, and their occupants brutally murdered; many bodies were thrown into the Seine. Bloodshed continued in Paris even after a royal order of August 25 to stop the killing and it then spread to the provinces. Huguenots in Rouen, Lyon, Bourges, Orléans, and Bordeaux were among the victims. Estimates of the number that perished in the disturbances, which lasted to the beginning of October, have varied from two thousand, to seventy thousand. Modern historians estimate the number of murdered at three thousand in Paris alone. Above: This painting, One morning at the Louvre front door (Un matin devant la porte du Louvre)*, by Édouard Debat-Ponsanin, shows Catherine de Médicis and her entourage viewing the results of the massacre in Paris.Below: The news of the massacre was welcomed by Philip II of Spain, and Pope Gregory XIII had a medal struck to celebrate the event.*

ELIZABETH·D·G·FRANCORVM·REGINA

The Fourth Christian War—St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre 1562–1598

As the Reformation spread into France, the Catholic-inclined monarchy, always fearing political subversion which appeared to follow Protestantism, decided to try and suppress the new ideas.

As a result, many leading French Protestants fled to Switzerland, but returned to France around 1567 to launch a full-scale evangelical campaign in favor of their beliefs. This culminated two years later in the formal organization of the Protestant church, modeled on the Calvinistic line, in Paris, in 1569. The followers of this church became known as Huguenots.

Inevitably, it was not long before the Christian wars spread to France. A series of violent clashes which lasted thirty-six years, from 1562 to 1598, erupted. The most infamous of these was the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre, in which thousands of unsuspecting Huguenots were massacred in 1572 with the express permission of the

French king, Charles IX.

A later French king, Henry IV, himself sympathetic to the Protestants, issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598, officially tolerating Protestantism in France. This edict was subsequently revoked in 1685, and Protestants were once again either killed or driven out of the country

The Reformation in the Netherlands

The spread of Protestantism in the Netherlands was countered by the public burning of Luther's books and the imposition, in 1522, of the Inquisition, by the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V. These repressive measures, however, were unsuccessful, and by 1550, the north of the Netherlands was solidly Protestant, while the southern provinces (later to become part of Belgium) remained overwhelmingly Catholic.

The adoption of Calvinism by the Dutch had another important side effect. It provided much justification for the rebellion against the Catholic Spanish who had occupied the Netherlands since the early sixteenth century. As a result, a Spanish Catholic/Dutch Protestant war broke out as part of a conflict which came to be known as the Thirty Years' War. This strife ended in 1648 when Spain was forced to abandon the Netherlands in terms of the Treaty of Westphalia.

The Fifth Christian War—Catholics Fail To Suppress Protestantism 1560–1567

In Scotland, the ideology of Protestantism fell upon receptive ears, and repression from the Catholic English monarchy only served to spur on Scottish nationalism and reinforce the belief that the Catholic Church was not acting in the interests of the Scots.

The final break with Catholicism came with the appearance of the Calvinist John Knox, who in 1560 persuaded the Scottish Parliament to formally adopt Protestantism. The Parliament then started the Scottish Presbyterian church.

The Roman Catholic Mary, Queen of Scots, declared herself opposed to the new church and launched a seven-year-long war in an attempt to suppress it. She lost, and was forced to flee to England.

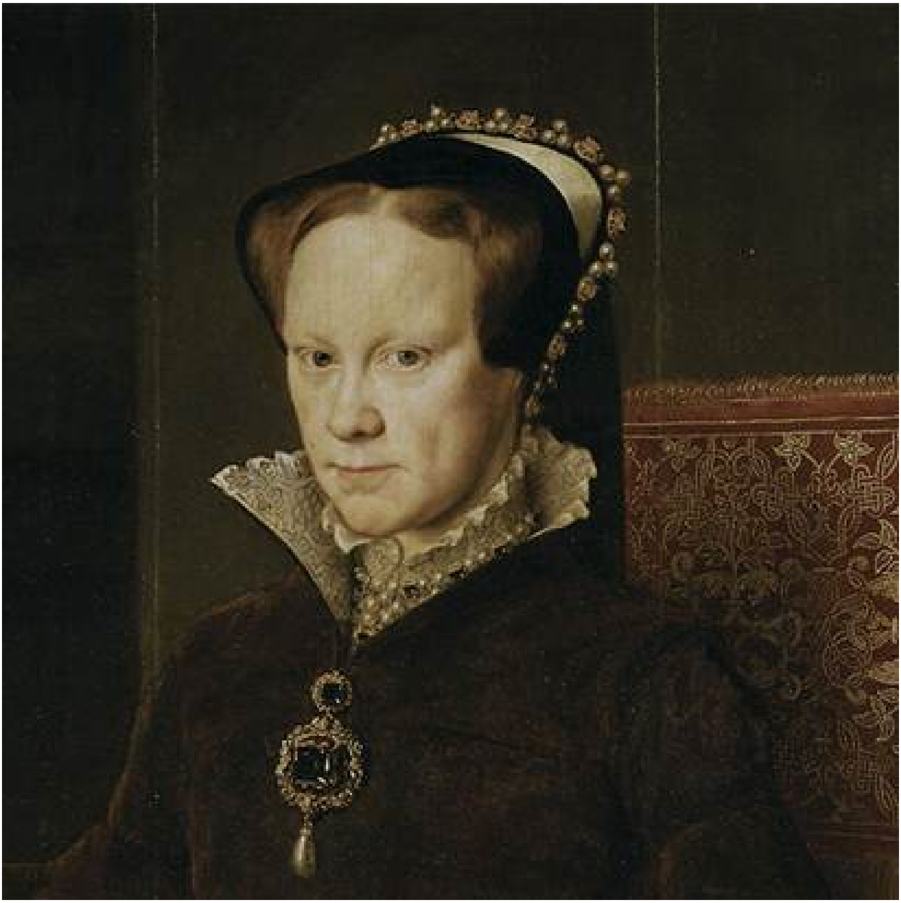
Anglican Church Founded by Henry VIII

Although counted as a Protestant church, the origin of the Anglican Church began with the marital affairs of the English king, Henry VIII. Henry wished to divorce his wife, Catherine of Aragon (daughter of King Ferdinand of Spain), because the marriage had not produced a male heir.

His marriage to Catherine would have been illegal under normal circumstances: she was the widow of his brother, and special papal permission was required before Henry was allowed to marry her. After breaking the rules to marry Henry and Catherine, the pope then refused to divorce them.

Henry got the Archbishop of Canterbury to pronounce his divorce from Catherine. The pope then expelled Henry from the Church and he responded by getting the English parliament to declare the English king and his successors as head of the English church. In this way the Anglican Church was established, in a spectacularly nonreligious way. The Catholic monasteries were then shut down and their property turned over to the royal purse.

These acts did not mean that Henry welcomed Protestantism himself: on the contrary, he enacted the Act of Six Articles in 1539, which specifically declared it a heresy to deny the main tenets of Catholicism. As a result, many Protestants were burned at the stake as heretics, while at the same time those Catholics who refused to accept that the English king was now the head of the church in England were also executed. It was only in 1547 that the Act of Six Articles was repealed by Henry’s successor, Edward VI, who also invited Protestant missionaries into England.



Queen Mary I, known as "Bloody Mary" for her violent suppression of Protestants in England.

Queen Mary I (Bloody Mary) attempted, however, to restore Roman Catholicism as the state religion, and during her reign many Protestants were burned at the stake. Her successor, Queen Elizabeth I, restored Protestantism in 1563, and the Catholics were in turn persecuted.

The persecutions aside, a number of Protestants in Britain were still unhappy with the close similarities between Catholicism and Anglicanism, and formed a number of breakaway sects, such as the Puritans, Quakers, and a host of others.

Many of these sects were despised equally by both Catholics and Anglicans, and as a result, a small number eventually left England to become the founding fathers of white America.

The Sixth Christian War—The Thirty Years' War 1618–1648

The greatest Christian war of all was the Thirty Years' War which ran from 1618 until 1648. Starting in Bohemia with a localized conflict between Catholics and Protestants, it provided an opportunity for a number of major European countries to attack each other, based mainly on religious affiliation, using Germany as a convenient battleground.

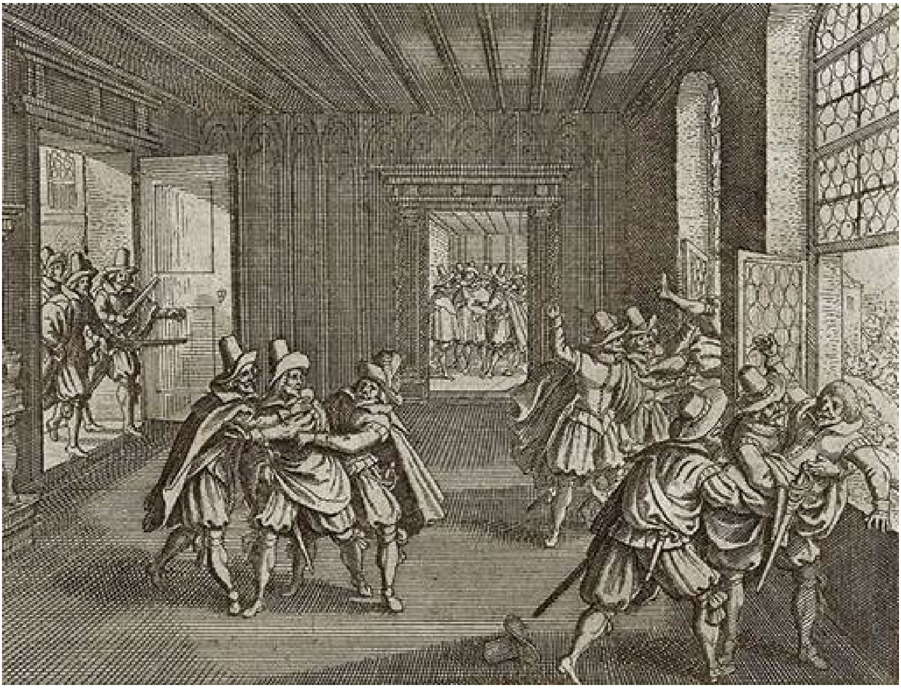
Catholics Start Persecutions of Protestants in Germany

Despite the 1555 Peace of Augsburg having officially established a policy of religious toleration, periodic conflicts continued to break out between Catholics and Protestants in Germany. Tensions were aggravated during the reign of the Holy Roman Emperor Rudolf II (1576–1612), when Protestant churches in many parts of Germany were destroyed and restrictions were placed on the rights of Protestants to worship freely.

In response, the Protestant princes and states banded together in a formal military alliance known as the Evangelical Union in 1608. The Catholics responded by forming the Catholic League in 1609, and a renewed conflict between the two sides became inevitable.

Defenestration of Prague—Catholics Thrown out the Window

The Protestants in Bohemia struck first: in May 1618, the Protestants of Prague invaded the royal palace, seized two of the Catholic German king's ministers, and threw them out of an upstairs window. This act, known as the Defenestration of Prague, was the beginning of a national Protestant uprising.



The Protestant forces achieved numerous initial successes and the rebellion swiftly spread to other parts of the Habsburg dominions. For a brief period early in 1619, Vienna, the Habsburg capital, was even threatened by Evangelical Union armies.

However, the Protestants were divided among themselves as well. An attempt to install the Bohemian prince, a Calvinist, as new king of Germany, alienated the Lutheran Germans, who then withdrew from the Evangelical Union voicing objections to a Calvinist-aligned king as much as a Catholic one.

Taking advantage of the Protestant dissension, the Catholics assumed the offensive and defeated the Bohemian Protestants in November 1620 at the Battle of Weissenberg near Prague. Thousands of Protestants, combatants or not, were killed, and Protestantism was formally outlawed in Bohemia. Despite a determined Protestant resurgence, which defeated a Catholic army at the April 1622 Battle of Wiesloch, by 1624 the papists had killed most Protestants of weapon-bearing age and Bohemia was returned to the Catholic-held territories.

Protestant Danes Invade but Are Defeated by the Catholics

The next phase of the Thirty Years' War saw the first foreign intervention: in 1625, King Christian IV of Denmark invaded Saxony in support of the Protestant German states, encountering little resistance until a combined German Catholic army defeated the Danes at the Battle of Dessau in 1626.

Another Danish defeat followed in August of that year at Lutter am Barenberge, Germany, forcing the invaders to flee north. The Catholic armies set about pillaging, looting, and destroying every Protestant north German town they seized and their victory seemed complete. In March 1629, the Catholic king issued the Edict of Restitution which effectively nullified all Protestant titles on Roman Catholic property expropriated since the Peace of Augsburg in 1555.

The German Protestant city of Magdeburg then rose in revolt. It was besieged by a German Catholic army and crushed in May 1631, with every single Protestant inhabitant (tens of thousands of people) massacred by the victorious Catholics. The city was burned to the ground in the looting that followed.

Protestant Swedes Invade and Defeat Catholics

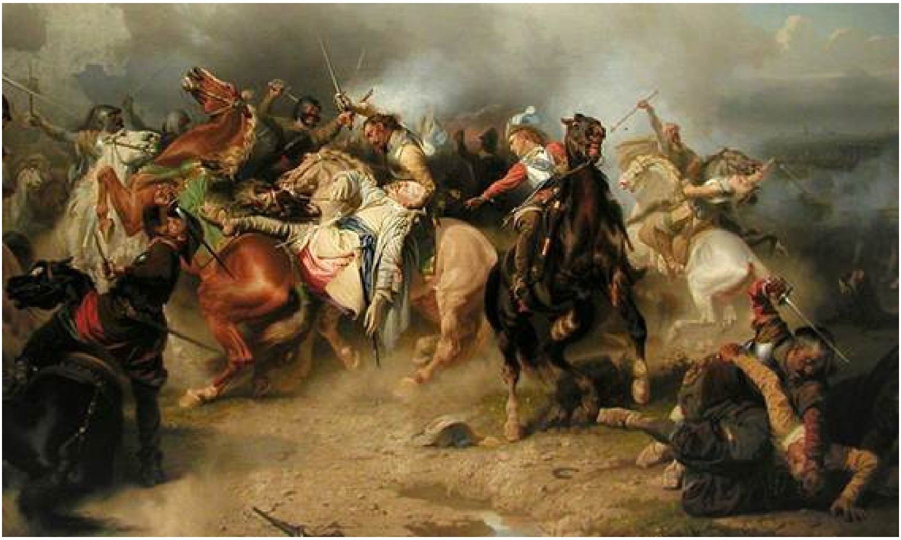
The defeat of the Danes then provided for the next round of foreign Protestant intervention in the form of the Swedes. Zealous Lutherans came to the aid of their suppressed north German co-religionists, and a Swedish army landed on the German coast in 1630.

The Swedes won a number of battles in quick succession. The last of these, the Battle of Breitenfeld (now Leipzig), fought in September 1630, saw six thousand men from the Catholic army killed. The Swedes then advanced into southern Germany, moving the theater of conflict onto Catholic lands for the first time. By 1632, the Swedes had defeated another Catholic army on the banks of the Lech River and had captured Munich, capital of staunchly Catholic Bavaria. The Catholics responded by launching an invasion of Protestant Saxony in 1632. Armies from both sides proceeded to march up and down Germany, laying waste to any settlements in their way which happened to belong to the “wrong” side.

Finally, the Swedes caught up with the Catholics in November 1632 and the Battle of Lutzen followed. The Protestant armies won this important battle, even though the Swedish King Gustav was killed. All of Bavaria was then overrun by the Protestant armies, harried only by Catholic attacks in Silesia.

The Catholic forces staged a dramatic comeback at the Battle of Nordlingen in September 1634 where the Swedes were routed and Protestant resistance collapsed as quickly as it had risen. A peace treaty was concluded in 1635, which saw the Swedes withdraw the remnants of their army and which contained minor concessions to the Saxon Lutherans.

BOTH PROTESTANTS AND CATHOLICS BELIEVE GOD IS ON THEIR SIDE



The Protestant Swedish King Gustavus Adolphus was killed at the Battle of Luztzen in 1632 during the sixth Christian war. Like the Catholics, Gustavus believed that God was on his side.

French Invasion of Bavaria

The dramatic turnaround in the course of the war saw the German Catholic House of Habsburg grow into a position of prominence in Central Europe. France, under the House of Bourbon, was also Catholic, but was alarmed at the increasing power of the House of Habsburg, particularly after the victories over the Protestant German states.

By this time, through intermarriage, the House of Habsburg surrounded France on three sides: Spain, the Netherlands, and Germany. The French took the initiative to try and destroy this encirclement by the Habsburgs, and in May 1635 declared war against Spain.

In the resultant confusion, the Protestant powers intervened. Germany was plunged into a renewed bout of fighting which saw pitched battles involving Swedes, German Catholics, German Protestants, Dutch Protestants, Austrians, and French.

The most significant battle of this period was fought at Wittstock in October 1636, when a Swedish Protestant army defeated an Austrian foe. In the same year, the French gained the upper hand against the Spanish, while by 1638 the Catholic Germans were defeated at Rheinfelden.

Between 1642 and 1645, the Swedes overran Denmark, which had in the interim become allied with the Catholics, and ravaged large sections of western Germany and Austria.

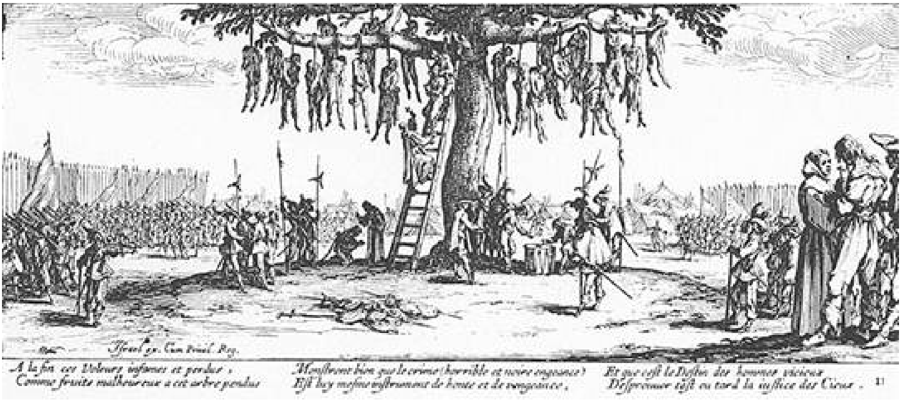
Catholic Bavaria Surrenders to Catholic France

Major battles continued between the various armies through to 1647, when the French army invaded and held Bavaria. The Bavarian king, Maximilian I, withdrew his nation from the war, and concluded a separate peace with Sweden and France, known as the Truce of Ulm, in March 1647.

Despite this, the Catholic German King Ferdinand II refused to surrender. Fighting continued in fits and starts in Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain, and Italy, until 1648 when the Bavarians reentered the war on the Catholic side. A French army then inflicted a crushing defeat upon a combined Austro–Bavarian force in May 1648.

The Swedes laid siege to the German king's home city of Prague while Munich was besieged by a French and Swedish force. The run of defeats finally brought the war to a conclusion and all sides signed the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 which finally ended the devastating three decades-long conflict.

PEACE OF WESTPHALIA ENDS THIRTY YEARS' WAR—ONE THIRD OF GERMANY WIPED OUT


Israel ex. Cum Privil. Reg.
A la fin ces Voleurs infames et perdus ,
Comme fruits malheureux a cet arbre pendus
Monstrent bien que le crime (horrible et noire engeance)
Est luy mesme instrument de honte et de vengeance ,
Et que c'est le Destin des hommes vicieux
D'esprouuer tost ou tard la iustice des Cieux .
11

In October 1648, the Peace of Westphalia was signed, officially bringing to an end the sixth Christian war, otherwise known as the Thirty Years' War. This print, from Calot's Les Misères et les Malheurs de la Guerre, *1633, is an accurate representation of the havoc wrought upon a German village during the Thirty Years' War. Nothing was safe in a village if overrun by an invading army of the opposite Christian denomination.*

Thirty Years' War Ends with Peace of Westphalia

The Peace of Westphalia, signed in 1648, fundamentally influenced the history of Europe. Switzerland and the Netherlands were established as independent states and the Holy Roman Empire of the German kings was dramatically loosened, preventing German unification for another two hundred years. France was left as the major continental power in Western Europe.

The treaty also confirmed the principle of religious tolerance for all three religious divisions which had emerged in greater Germany: Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinist.

Racial Consequences of the Thirty Years' War—One Third of German Population Killed

The racial consequences of the Christian Wars, and in particular the Thirty Years' War, were vast. The German population was reduced by at least one third, and probably more. When combined with the effects of the Great Plague of the 1300s, the German population actually shrank by over 50 percent in the course of three hundred years, a massive decline which, if avoided, would certainly have changed the course of world history.

CHAPTER 43: White Expansion—Voyages of Discovery

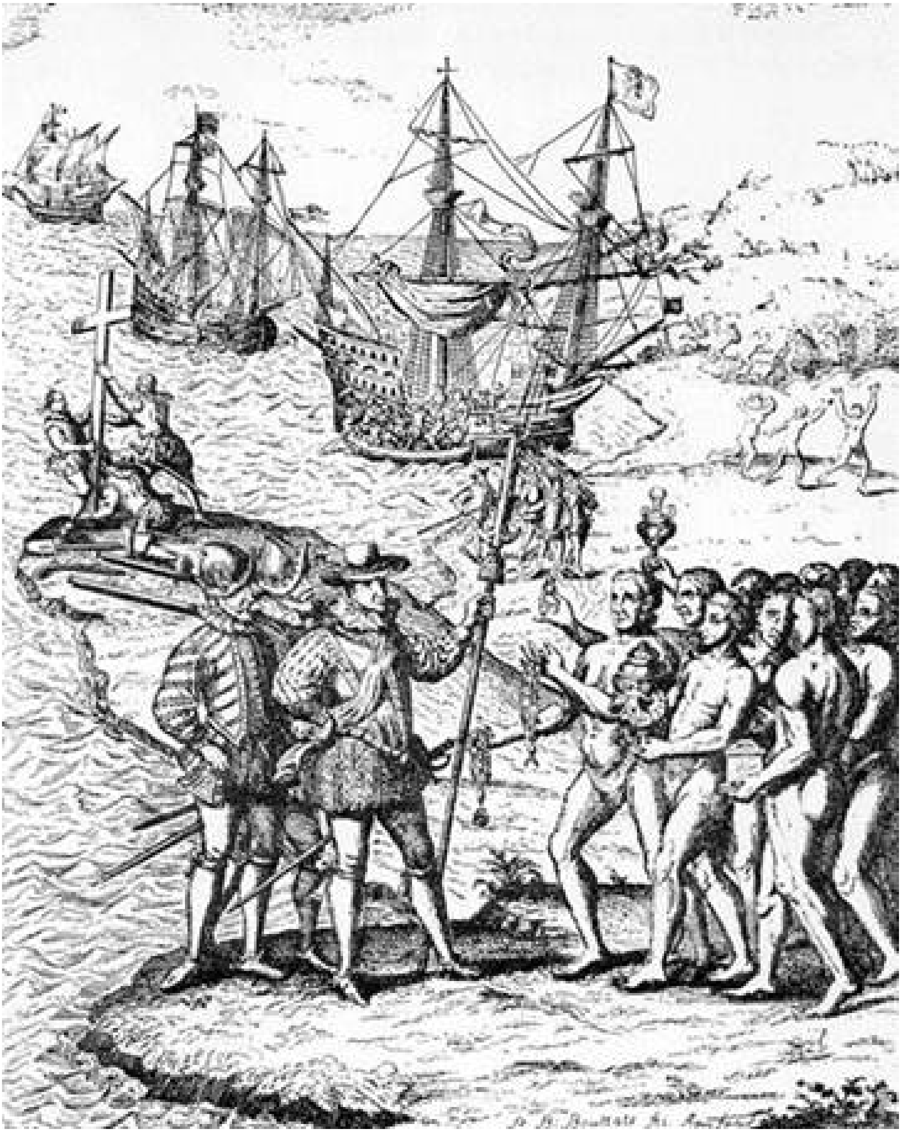
The outpouring of science and technology which accompanied the Renaissance and Reformation inevitably led to the Age of Discovery, where explorers from Europe set sail to explore the four corners of the globe in numbers never before seen.

Not even the mighty Romans ventured to sail beyond the Atlantic Ocean, and the daring and courage of the European explorers of the 1400s created an achievement which literally changed the course of the earth's history.

Yet the one single factor—white technological superiority—which underpinned this unparalleled wave of exploration is consistently ignored by almost all histories of this period.

This is a serious omission, because without an understanding of the issue of racial technological inequality, it is impossible to explain why it was the European people who explored and colonized the nonwhite world, and not the other way round.

NATIVES COWED BY WHITE TECHNOLOGY



Christopher Columbus lands on Watling Island, (San Salvador), October 1492. Note the Amerinds fleeing in terror at the top right of the illustration. The technological superiority of early white explorers simply overawed nonwhite natives, who either retreated or were utterly cowed by the sight of the Europeans with their ships, clothes, guns, steel, and horses.

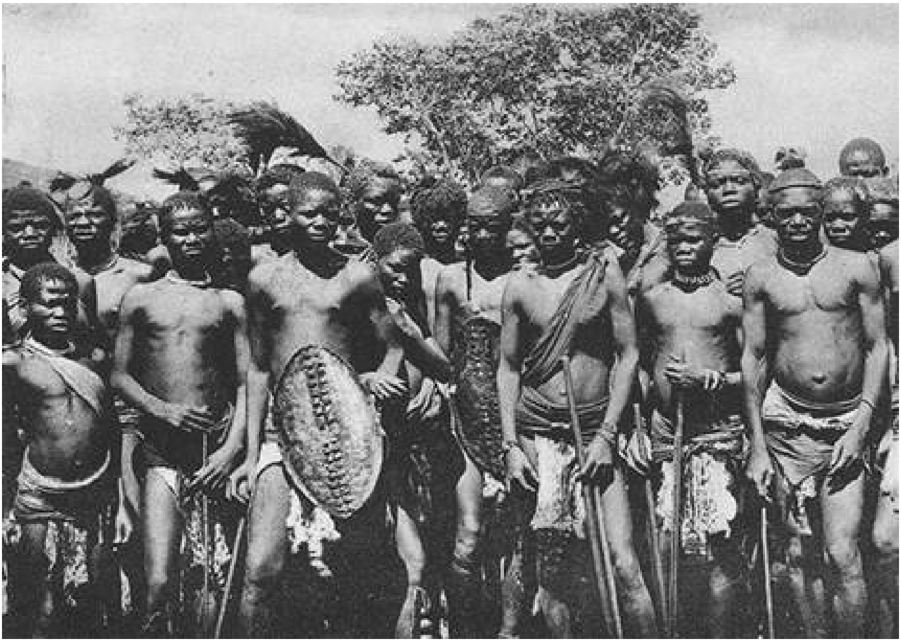
Technology—Superiority and Inferiority

The issue of technological superiority, or on its flip side, inferiority, is therefore crucial to understanding not only the events of the era of white exploration, but also to understanding the attitudes of those undertaking the exploration and conquests.

It is thus important to understand both the material underpinnings of this gap, and the psychological attitude which it engendered among the colonialists, who became "white supremacists" as a result. This in turn had a serious long-term consequence, in that it led the white colonists to believe that they could rule indefinitely over native populations, even as a minority group because they were "superior" to the natives.

The reality is, of course, that it is not technological superiority which determines the nature of societies, but rather simple demographics. The rise and fall of the European colonial experiment, which resulted from the Age of Exploration, is evidence of this fact at work.

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA BARELY ABOVE STONE AGE AT TIME OF EUROPEAN EXPLORATION



The dictates of present-day political correctness have deliberately disguised precisely how underdeveloped sub-Saharan Africa was at the time of the European exploration of the continent. Africans did not have the wheel, writing, reading, clothes (other than rudimentary animal skins), or anything above the absolute basics. This photograph, taken in the late 1800s in what is today the country of Malawi, is illustrative of sub-Saharan Africa in general.

Sub-Saharan Africa—Saw the Wheel in 1871

In Africa, despite earlier contact with the original white Egyptians and the mixed-race Arabic/Semitic nations (who had sent slave hunting expeditions far south into Africa), sub-Saharan Africa was not even at Stone Age level by the time of the European Age of Exploration.

Although some sub-Saharan black tribes had created settlements of mud and stick huts, none had developed the wheel by the time of the first white explorations of the African continent in the late 1400s.

In the diary of the English explorer David Livingstone, for example, mention is made of an entire village (in what is today the Congo) turning out to view the wheels on his cart. The tribesmen had never seen a wheel before, and this was as late as 1871.

The absence of the wheel in sub-Saharan Africa serves as a potent symbol of just how technologically backward Africa was. The wheel had been a crucial part of history from the very dawn of time, yet it was unknown in Africa before 1500 AD, and in many areas, as Livingstone described, less than two hundred years ago. Black Africa was also totally illiterate, again despite being exposed to white Egyptian and later Arabic literacy. Even the present-day written African languages were first captured on paper in the Roman alphabet by white explorers who arranged the sounds in European grammatical rules.

This was a difficult enough task by itself, but the early explorers also had to invent words for concepts foreign to Africans. For example, there was no word for “wheel” in any of the native African languages. In Xhosa, one of the most widely spoken African languages in Southern Africa, the word for “wheel” is *ivili* which is a corruption of the Dutch word *wiel*.

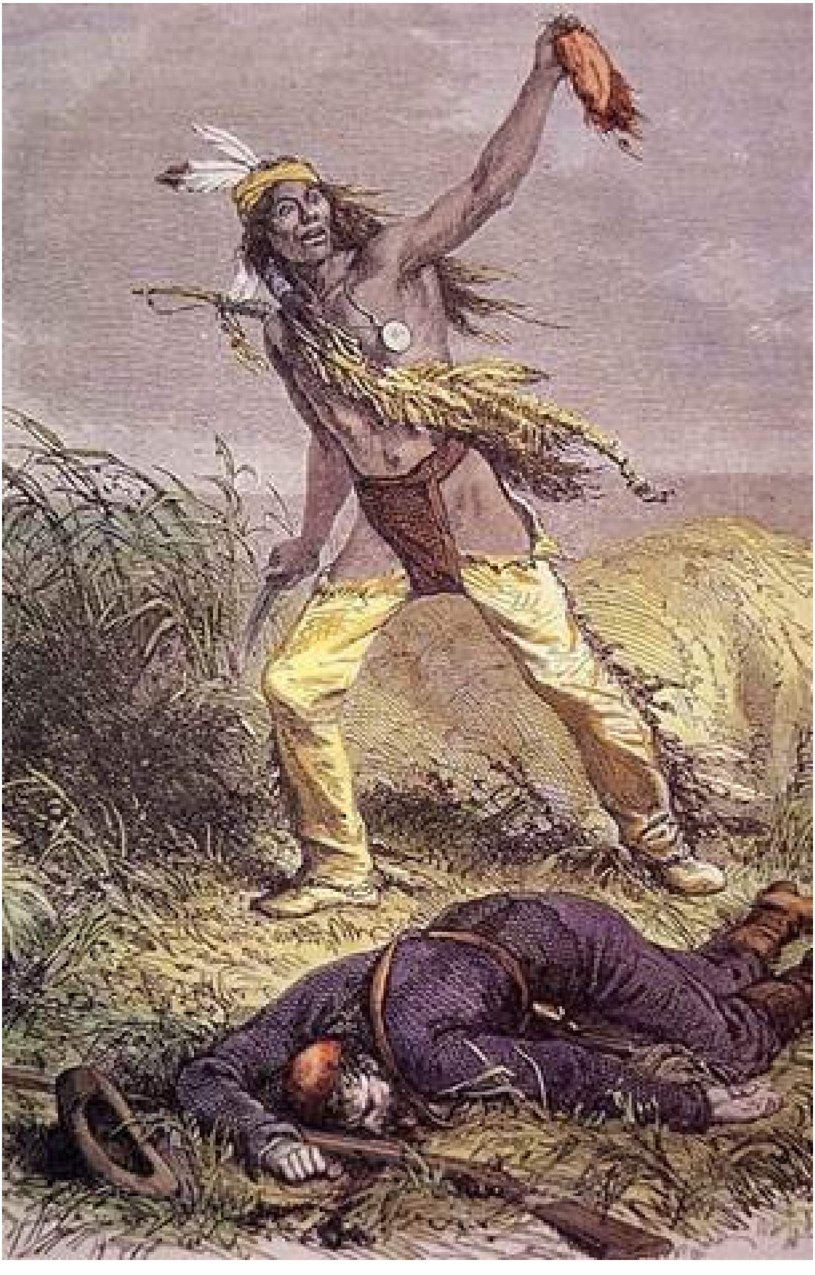
The clothes which are today regarded as “ethnic” African wear (colorful dresses, full length shirts and headgear) are, of course, not native to Africa in the slightest.

The inhabitants of sub-Saharan Africa possessed no materials or the ability to create them, and these clothing forms all originate exclusively from Arabic and European sources.

So it was that when whites arrived in Africa, they were confronted with peoples who seemed (and by any objective measure were) massively technologically inferior. It is little wonder then that the attitudes of the colonialists were shaped by a sense of unabashed white superiority, even if such a notion was, by contemporary standards, morally unacceptable. It is possible to find tribes, still living at the same primitive level as existed before the arrival of the European settlers, in the islands north of Australia.

In contrast, India had a relatively advanced native culture and civilization, so engendered less feelings of superiority among the explorers.

AMERINDS SHOCK EUROPEANS WITH SCALPING, CANNIBALISM



The American Indian practices of scalping and cannibalism, which were extremely common, shocked white explorers and helped to solidify the notion that European civilization was superior

South and Central America—Advanced, yet Cruel Societies

In South and Central America, the Inca and Aztec peoples produced relatively advanced civilizations, once again far in advance of anything in Africa, despite sharing very similar environmental conditions.

This disparity is one of the most powerful counterarguments to the “environmental” theory of the development of civilizations. The Amerinds of South and Central America produced great buildings, art, statues, and artifacts which thoroughly impressed the white explorers.

Conversely, the existence of cannibalism as an accepted part of the religious rituals in these societies filled the European explorers with shock, and the absence of the wheel from these civilizations has never been satisfactorily explained.

They did have advanced societal structures, including basic literacy, but in terms of other forms of technology were at a huge disadvantage when dealing with the white newcomers. Other South and Central American tribes, however, were as primitive as those in Africa or Australia.

North America—Cannibalism and Scalping

In North America, the Amerind natives were less developed than their racial cousins in South and Central America and also suffered from technological backwardness, including the absence of the wheel.

In addition to this, the practice of scalping, or taking the skin off the top of their enemies’ heads, often while still alive, was a practice which the white settlers in North America found particularly disturbing.

The Far East—High Levels of Culture, but Technologically Inferior

The Chinese and Japanese possessed advanced civilizations which, in literacy and cultural terms, were equivalent to that of Europe. However, the white technological advantage still placed the Europeans into a position of military superiority over the Chinese and Japanese. Nonetheless, the European explorers viewed the Chinese and Japanese civilizations very differently than those they encountered in Africa and South America. As a result, it is no coincidence that the only regions which the European nations never tried to fully colonize were China and Japan.

Charles Savage Demonstrates White Technological Superiority

The vastly superior white technological advantage which underpinned the Age of Discovery is nowhere better illustrated than in the case of the lone European sailor Charles Savage, who single-handedly destroyed the native population's power structure through the introduction of firearms on the island of Fiji.

In 1808 he sailed by canoe up a river in Fiji to the village of Kasavu, halting less than a pistol shot's distance from the village fence. Firing away at the villagers, Savage's victims became so numerous that those who survived piled up the bodies to take shelter behind them, and the stream beside the village was red with blood. The hundreds of villagers were helpless against one white man and his gun with the aftereffect that whites were accepted without question as rulers on the island.

Such exploits are legion; those undertaking them could not have thought anything else than that they were superior to the peoples they were conquering; and indeed, in straight technological terms, they were.

The Cause of the Racial Disparity

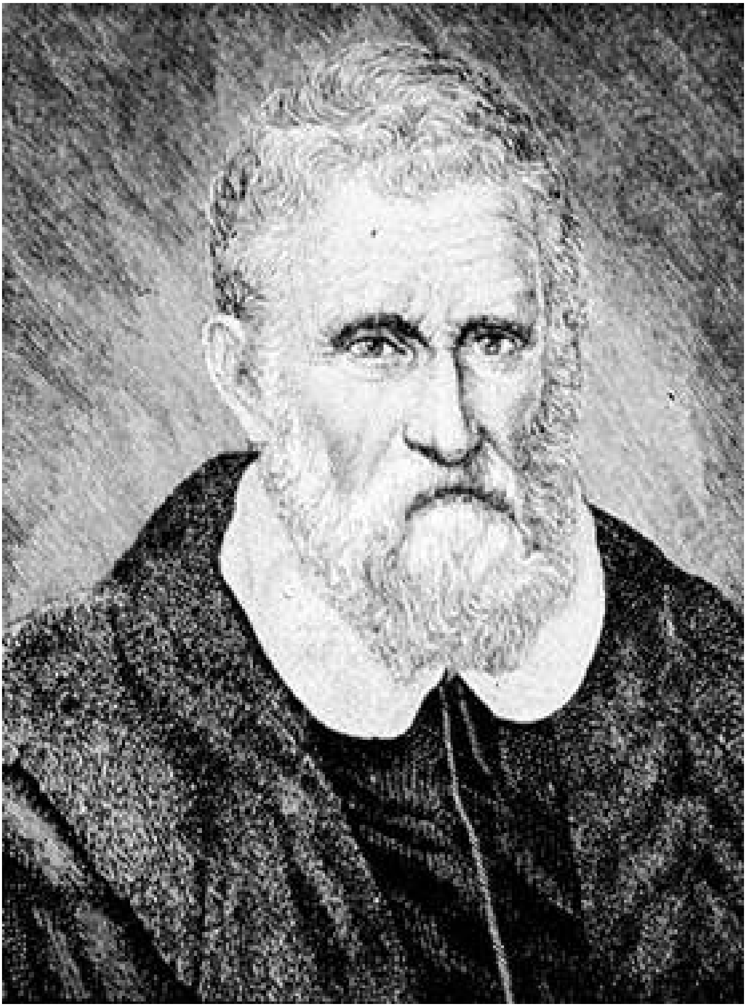
It is an indisputable fact that at the time of the voyages of exploration, the white race held a massive technological advantage over all other races. Many reasons have been advanced in an attempt to explain the technological gap, with almost all of them relying on what is known as the "environmental" argument. This claims that Europeans developed their technological advantage because of any number of factors, such as temperature, the presence of domestic animals, or proximity to the sea or rivers.

Advanced white and white-led civilizations flourished in every conceivable environmental circumstance (from the frozen lands of the far north right through to the deserts of Egypt). Some of the richest land in the world, in terms of arability, rainfall, and mineral wealth, lies in South and Central Africa, and the Congo River basin in particular. Yet no significant civilization emerged there until the arrival of white, and specifically Belgian, colonists—which then collapsed once the Europeans left in the mid-twentieth century.

The reason for these disparities is also crucial to the understanding of racial dynamics: each civilization is a reflection of the people who make up that society. The European technological advantage was a reflection of the nature of white society; and the lack of technology in other societies is a reflection of the nature of those original societies. There simply is no other explanation, as politically unpopular as this conclusion may be.

It is against this background of staggering disparities in terms of technology and level of civilization—almost incomprehensible to the modern mind—that the white voyages of discovery must be considered.

MARCO POLO SPENDS SEVENTEEN YEARS IN CHINA



Marco Polo (1254–1324), a Venetian merchant and traveler, journeyed from Europe to Asia in 1271–95 and remained in China for seventeen of those years. His book chronicling his travels through China, Il Milione (The Million), *known in English as* The Travels of Marco Polo, *became famous throughout Europe as the first definitive account of a new civilization in the Far East and described many wondrous things, some true and some patently false, such as allegations of gold-covered cities. A print* *made during this time depicts Marco Polo being transported across China on an elephant, although the artist had obviously never seen such a creature in person and relied purely on Polo's descriptions. More disturbing were the accounts of cannibalism in remote areas. Although there is a contemporary debate about the accuracy of much of the writing attributed to Polo—for example, he never mentions the Great Wall of China—his epoch-making travels remain undisputed fact.*

Marco Polo—The First White Explorer

The first great white explorer of foreign lands was the Lombardic-Venetian Marco Polo, who accompanied his father and uncle, who were merchants, on a trading mission to Peking, China in 1275. Although the senior Polo was the original expedition leader, his son was the one to gain the fame as it was he who wrote down accounts of what he had seen and who popularized the images of a faraway, rich land.

The Polos apparently impressed the emperor, Kublai Khan, and were given posts in the Chinese government. They remained in China for seventeen years before returning home.

Marco Polo's accounts of China were received incredulously in Europe. He described how the Chinese used coal for heating purposes and used wheat to create pasta. Both these innovations were soon adopted in Europe, and pasta became so popular in Italy that its Chinese origins have long been sidelined. Polo helped to create the image of the Far East as a land of riches, and for centuries thereafter some of the greatest minds of Europe were put to work trying to find shorter ways to China than the overland trek, which could last years in a round trip.

Prince Henry the Navigator

A Portuguese prince, Henry the Navigator, was the first member of the European nobility to realize the potential offered through the exploration of new lands. Although he personally did not undertake any major explorations, he made it financially possible for others to do so.

By 1418 he had set up a naval center at Sagres which became Portugal's main base from which many great voyages of exploration were made.

Portuguese seamen discovered the Azores and Madeira islands and, in 1444, reached the Cape Verde Islands in the central Atlantic

Ocean, some 354 miles west of the African coast of Senegal.

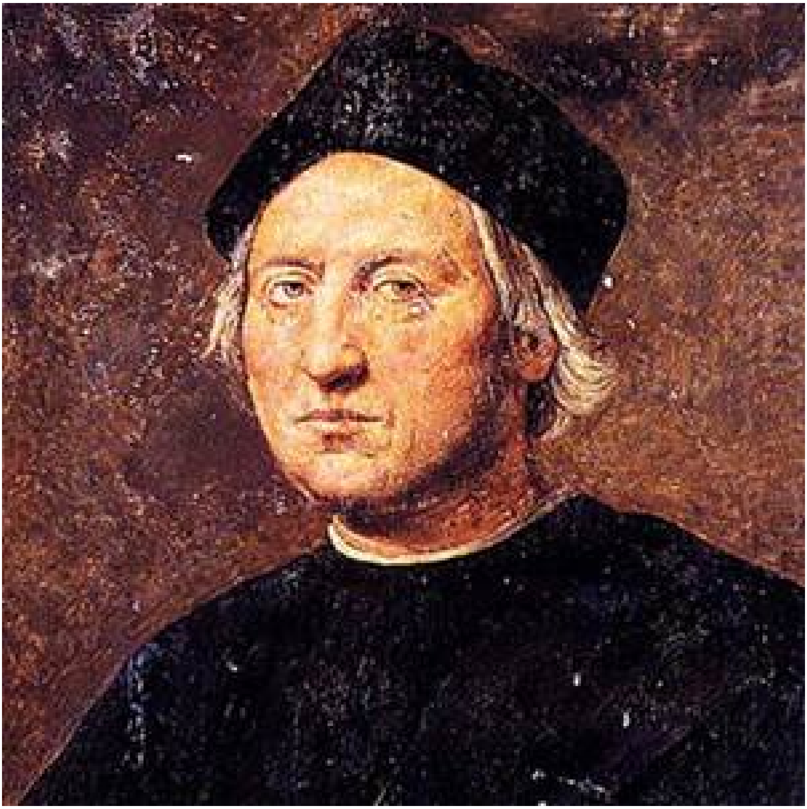
Bartholomew Diaz—First European to Sail Around Africa's Southern Tip

In 1488, the Portuguese explorer Bartholomew Diaz set off along the coast of Africa in an attempt to discover a sea route to India. His expedition was blown off course and away from sight of land for thirteen days. After the tempest subsided, Diaz turned east once again in an attempt to find land.

When no land came into view, Diaz suspected that he had now sailed past the end of the African continent, and turned due north. As he expected, he sighted land and went ashore on the coast of southern South Africa, becoming the first European to do so.

Diaz wanted to push on further east and sail to India, but his crew threatened mutiny and the mission returned to Portugal. News of Diaz's discovery confirmed the belief that it was possible to sail to India, and as a result, the southernmost tip of Africa was named by the Portuguese king as the "Cape of Good Hope."

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS—NORTH ITALIAN EXPLORER



Christopher Columbus (1451–1506), the Genoese-born adventurer, who explored the Americas for the Spaniards in 1492. He believed to his dying day that he had discovered a new route to Asia, and India in particular (which is why the North American natives became known as "Indians"). Although he is credited with "discovering" America, he only ever set foot once on the North American mainland on the coast of Mexico. His son and biographer, Ferdinand, wrote that in his youth, Columbus's hair was blond, but by the time he was thirty, it was white. Ferdinand also described his father as "more than average height, an aquiline nose, blue eyes and a light complexion." While there is debate over which portrait is a true reflection of Columbus, the one above appears to be the most accurate. Above right, a map, in Columbus's own hand, of the northern part of an island that he named Hispaniola (present-day Haiti and the Dominican Republic), made while on one of his four voyages to the Americas.

Christopher Columbus Seeks India, Finds America

The most famous explorer of all was Christopher Columbus, a Genoan by birth and a descendant of the Lombards. His son described his father as "[A] well-built man of more than medium stature. . . . he had an aquiline nose and his eyes were light in color; his complexion was too light, but kindling to a vivid red. In his youth his hair was blond, but when he came to his thirtieth year it all turned white" (*Admiral of the Ocean Sea: A Life of Christopher Columbus,* S.E. Morrison, Little, Brown & Co, Boston, 1942, p. 62).

At first Columbus tried to get the Portuguese to finance an expedition to the west, arguing that because the world was round, it would be possible to reach the east without having to go around Africa, as the Portuguese were trying to do. The Portuguese were unconvinced, and with Diaz's success still ringing in their ears, they showed Columbus the door.

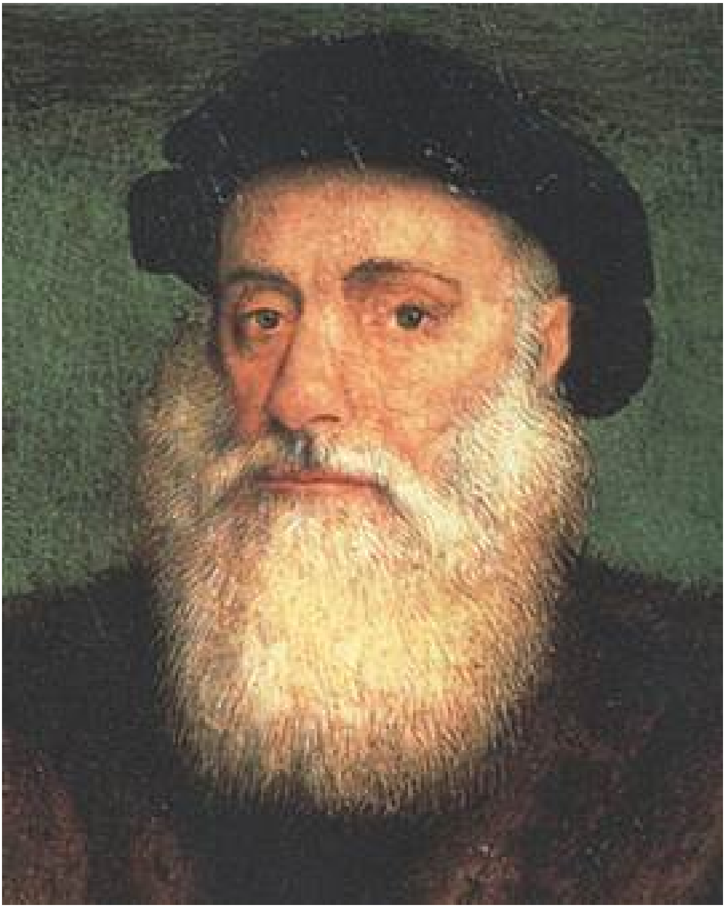
The Spanish, having thrown the Moors and Jews out of their country, then turned their attention to exploration. Columbus presented his proposal to Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand in 1492. Isabella in particular was taken with the idea and she agreed to fund the expedition.

In August 1492, Columbus sailed with three small ships across the Atlantic Ocean. He landed on October 12, 1492 on Watling Island in the Bahamas, and, after exploring the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola (present-day Haiti and the Dominican Republic), he returned to Spain in 1493. There he was made an admiral and governor of the lands he had discovered.

In October 1493, he left on a second expedition with seventeen ships, which carried supplies and over a thousand men, so he could set up trading posts and colonies. This expedition also explored Puerto Rico, Jamaica, the Virgin Islands, and some of the Lesser Antilles.

On his third voyage in 1498, Columbus finally sighted the South American mainland and also explored Trinidad. On his fourth and last voyage, in 1502, he came upon the Central American coast at Honduras, where he followed it to the land now known as Panama. The colonists were unhappy with the conditions imposed upon them by Columbus, and threatened rebellion. As a result, Columbus was relieved of his governorship and he returned to Spain where he died in poverty in 1506.

Although Columbus is widely credited with having discovered America, he never came near what later became the United States of America. In addition, he maintained to his dying day that he had found a sea route to the Far East, refusing to acknowledge that he had discovered a new continent.



Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese explorer who led the first expedition to sail around the southern point of Africa to India.

Vasco da Gama Sails around Africa

After realizing that Columbus had not found India or the Far East by going west, the Portuguese renewed their expeditions. In July 1497, Vasco da Gama, with a fleet of four ships, sailed due south and rounded Africa. The expedition landed near Calicut, India in May 1498. The profits from that journey helped establish Portugal as the major power of the age of exploration. Within the next two decades, Portuguese expeditions reached the Moluccas and the Canton River in China.

Pedro Cabral Claims Brazil for Portugal

The Portuguese military commander, navigator, and explorer, Pedro Álvares Cabral (1467–1520), sailed to South America in 1500, where he claimed a large part of the coast for Portugal. Later, this territory was expanded to become the country of Brazil, which is today the single largest nation in South America.

Ironically, Cabral’s expedition was meant to reach India by sailing west, but the sheer size of the landmass he encountered (South America) made this an impossible objective. Cabral then turned eastward, bypassed Africa, and reached Calicut in India.

Italian John Cabot Explores the Americas for the English

The Italian explorer, Giovanni Caboto, using his Anglicized name of John Cabot, was entrusted by English king Henry VII to explore the Americas on behalf of Britain. Cabot sailed due west instead of following the major transatlantic current followed by the previous expeditions, and in this way because the first European to set foot on the North American continent since the Vikings. Cabot landed in the territory now known as Nova Scotia and New England in 1497, and, as a symbol of his allegiances, set up both the English and Venetian flags in the new land.

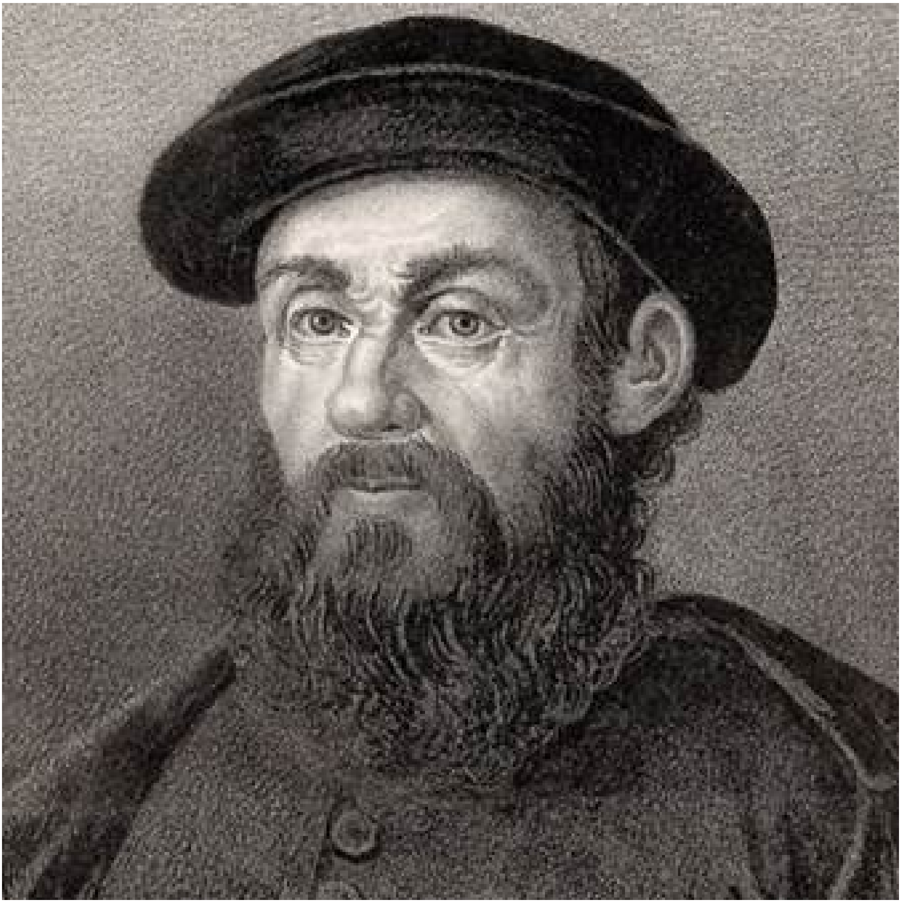
America Named after Italian Explorer Amerigo Vespucci

Amerigo Vespucci was another northern Italian explorer who found ready employment in the Spanish court. He was one of the first to suspect that Columbus’s discovery was not Asia but an entirely new continent, and he explored the coast of South America in two voyages, from 1499 to 1500 and from 1501 to 1502. In his honor, a 1507 European mapmaker named the new lands “America.”

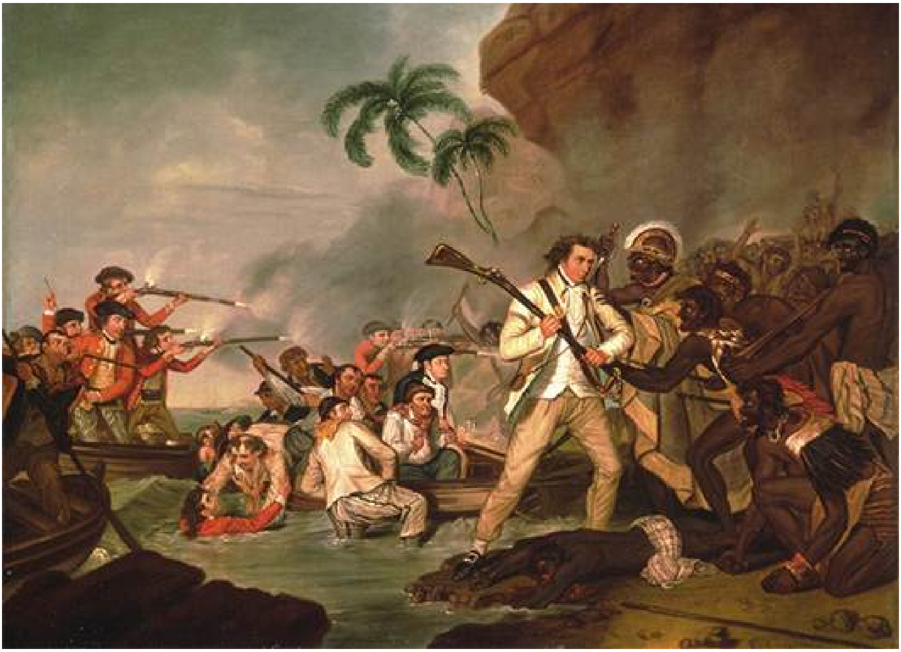
Vasco de Balboa—First European to See the Pacific Ocean

A 1513 Spanish expedition, led by the conquistador Vasco Núñez de Balboa (1475–1519), crossed the isthmus of Panama to the Pacific Ocean, and became the first Europeans to see the Pacific from the New World. Balboa also founded the settlement of Santa María la Antigua del Darién in present-day Colombia in 1510, which was the first permanent European settlement on the mainland of the Americas.

WHITE EXPLORERS MAKE THE SUPREME SACRIFICE IN NEW WORLD



Exploring the New World was a risky endeavor. Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese explorer who sailed under both Portuguese and Spanish flags, was circumnavigating the world when his ship stopped at Mactan in the Philippines on April 27, 1521. He went ashore—only to be attacked and murdered by the local nonwhite tribesmen. The same fate befell the English explorer, Captain James Cook (below), who explored the seaways and coasts of Canada and conducted three expeditions to the Pacific Ocean. On his last voyage in 1779, Cook's party was attacked at Kealakekua Bay, Hawaii, and he was murdered.



Ferdinand Magellan Rounds South America

The Portuguese explorer Ferdinand Magellan was employed by the Spanish to explore the new world, and in 1519, he sailed up the Rio de la Plata, a river which today forms the border between Argentina and Uruguay. In November 1520, Magellan rounded the southernmost part of South America and passed through the straits which were later named after him. The following year, he reached the Philippines after crossing the Pacific Ocean. There, tragedy struck. Native Muslim chiefs of Mactan Island attacked the white explorers and Magellan was killed, along with several of his companions.

Spaniard Juan Sebastián Elcano Becomes First European to Circumnavigate the World

Juan Sebastián Elcano, a Spanish officer who had signed on as a subordinate officer on Magellan's fleet, won fame in his own right after he took command of the sole surviving ship from Magellan's expedition after the disaster in the Philippines. Along with seventeen other survivors, Elcano reached Spain in 1522. They became the first Europeans to complete a circumnavigation of the earth

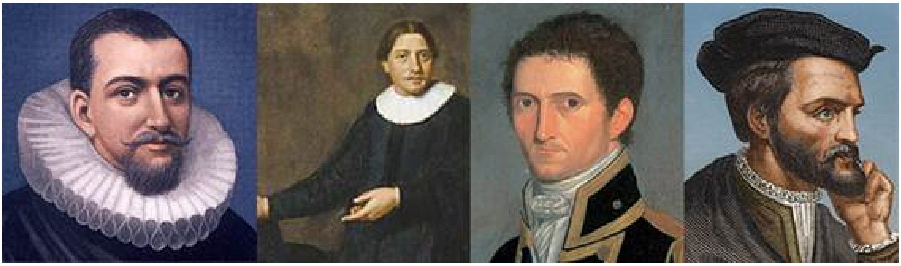
Francis Drake—Explorer Who Attacked Spanish Settlements

The English admiral Francis Drake, famous for his role in the defeat of the Spanish Armada's attempted invasion of England, copied Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe in an expedition which lasted from 1577 to 1580. He also waged war against the Spanish on the way, capturing a fortune in booty from Spanish settlements along the South American Pacific coasts.

Englishman Henry Hudson Explores North America

In 1609, the English explorer Henry Hudson, while in the employ of the Dutch, explored what became known as the Hudson River which today marks the border between the American states of New York and New Jersey. Hudson's second expedition, this time financed by the British, explored what became known as Hudson Bay in Canada in 1610. This adventure ended in a personal disaster when, after a bitter winter, he was set adrift in 1611 by a mutinous crew and left to die.

FROM AUSTRALIA TO NORTH AMERICA—WHITE MEN WHO EXPLORED THE GLOBE



From left to right: Henry Hudson, the English navigator and explorer who, in 1609, while in the pay of the Dutch East India Company, sailed up the river which now bears his name. This opened up the area for the Dutch to establish the settlement of New Amsterdam, later to become New York; Abel Tasman, the famous Dutch navigator who gave his name to the Australian island of Tasmania; the English explorer, Matthew Flinders, was the first to circumnavigate the Australian continent, a task which was only achieved in 1803; and Jacques Cartier, the French explorer who, in the sixteenth century, first navigated the St. Lawrence River in North America.

Frenchman Jacques Cartier Explores Canada

In 1534, the French explorer Jacques Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence River. The following year, he explored the river as far as the mountain which he named Mont Royal, in honor of the king of France. The settlement of Montreal which was later developed nearby, took its name from the mountain. Cartier's reports, sent back to France, said that North America was inhospitable and many would-be settlers were discouraged by his pessimistic interpretation.

His discoveries were followed up by further explorations by fellow Frenchmen, Samuel de Champlain and Rene de La Salle. Champlain founded Quebec and explored the Great Lakes region, while Le Salle explored the Mississippi River down to the Gulf of Mexico, all by 1681.

Dutch Explorers in Asia

The Dutch quickly exploited the Portuguese discovery of the sea route to India around the Cape and, by 1600, several Dutch trading posts had been set up in Indonesia and other Asian lands. Working from these trading centers, the Dutch were the first whites to explore Australia.

In 1606, the Hollander Willem Jansz sailed into Torres Strait between the Australian mainland and New Guinea. (The strait was named for a Spanish explorer, Luis Vaez de Torres, who sailed into the same area in the same year and determined that New Guinea was an island.) In 1616, the Dutch sailor Dirk Hartog followed a new southern route across the Indian Ocean to Batavia (now Jakarta, Indonesia).

Winds blew his ship, the *Eendracht,* too far to the east, and Hartog landed on an offshore island of Western Australia, becoming the first known white to set foot on Australian soil. Before sailing north to Batavia, he left a pewter plate on the island inscribed with a record of his visit. The plate was later found and returned to the Netherlands, where it can still be seen in Amsterdam’s Rijksmuseum.

Abel Tasman Discovers Tasmania

Encouraged by Jansz’s voyages, the Dutch governor generals at Batavia commissioned a series of expeditions into the southern oceans. The most successful was that of Abel Tasman who, in 1642, sailed into the waters of southern Australia, discovering the island now known as Tasmania.

Tasman then sailed farther east and north the same year, exploring the land which became known as New Zealand.

James Cook Explores Australia and New Zealand

In 1768, Captain James Cook, an Englishman, set off on a three year voyage to the Pacific Ocean that also took him to Australia. Cook landed at Botany Bay on the eastern coast, mapped the area, and named it New South Wales.

Two additional voyages in the 1770s added information on the Australian landmass, and, in 1769, Cook visited New Zealand and claimed possession of those islands for Britain. Before he could return to Europe, Cook was killed in a surprise attack by nonwhite tribesmen on a beach in the Hawaiian Islands.

Matthew Flinders Circumnavigates Australia

The English explorer, Matthew Flinders, was the first to circumnavigate the Australian continent, a task which was only achieved in 1803. As a result, Flinders was the first to produce a map showing Australia's complete coastline.

By this time, the first European settlements had already been established on that continent which was firmly under the British sphere of influence.

Overland Explorers in Africa

During the late eighteenth century, much of the interior of the previously unexplored continent of Africa was opened up by intrepid European adventurers. Some of the more important explorers included:

- The British explorer James Bruce, who reached the source of the Blue Nile in 1770;

- The Scottish explorer Mungo Park, who explored (1795 and 1805) the course of the Niger River;

- The German explorer Heinrich Barth, who traveled widely in the Muslim western Sudan;

- The Scottish missionary David Livingstone, who explored the Zambezi River and, in 1855, named the Victoria Falls in present-day Zimbabwe;

- The British explorers John Hanning Speke and James Augustus Grant, who, by traveling downstream, and Sir Samuel White Baker, who, by working upstream, solved the mystery of the source of the Nile in 1863.

Exploration Ends and Settlement Begins

It is not difficult to imagine the sense of victory or the feeling of supremacy which must have pervaded Europe during the Age of Exploration. Not only had they smashed the isolation of the continents, something that had eluded all previous civilizations, but they had sailed right around the globe in ships made of wood.

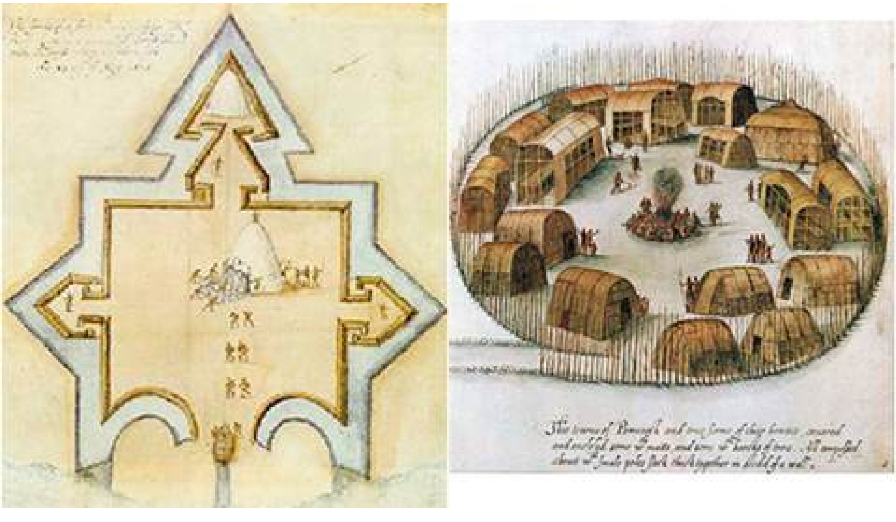
More importantly, the white explorers had established beyond any question that they were technologically vastly superior to any other race on earth. Once an expedition left the safety of European ports, it had to use its own onboard skills for repairs and maintenance, in lands and seas completely unknown. The obvious next step was to start settling the new lands, a task which was seized upon with as much energy as the initial explorations.

North America—Spain Establishes First Colony

Spain was the first white country to establish a colony in present-day America. In 1565, the explorer and admiral Pedro Menéndez de Avilés founded the town called Saint Augustine (today located in the state of Florida), which is the oldest continuously occupied European-established city and port in the continental United States.

At this time, Spain and England were engaged in one of the seemingly endless European wars. It was the 1588 destruction of the Spanish fleet (the "Armada") off the coast of England which left Spain unable to compete further with the British in the colonization process of North America.

FIRST ENGLISH FORT IN VIRGINIA



Left: The first English fort built in Virginia, on Roanoke Island, from an original drawing made by the governor Ralph Lane in 1585. The settlement did not last and was abandoned the next year.Right, a sketch of the nearby Amerind settlement of Pomeiock.

The English Arrive but Are Wiped Out

In 1585, the first English settlement in North America was established on an island off the coast of the present-day state of North Carolina. This expedition failed due to a lack of agricultural expertise, and a second attempt was launched in 1587.

This second expedition, led by one John White, was more successful and landed in a territory they called Virginia, which honored the English Queen Elizabeth I.

John White sailed back to England for further supplies but a war with Spain prevented him from returning until 1590. Upon his return to Virginia, he found that the entire white settlement had vanished, never to be heard from or seen again. The most likely explanation for the “vanished colony” is that they were captured and taken away by Indians, because if they had died from disease or some other natural cause, graves, or at least some bodies, would have been found.

Jamestown—the First Successful Colony

Undaunted, the English launched a third attempt to establish a settlement in North America. In 1607, the colony of Jamestown in Virginia was established as a private project run by a British company, the Virginia Company of London.

This company recruited settlers to establish farms and also allowed the forceful abduction of whites to be used as laborers in the new colony. These early indentured slaves were made up of criminals, vagrants, and children who were grabbed off the streets of British cities and sent against their will to be laborers in the new colony.

The Virginia Company was not a success. Disease and starvation saw thousands of the first immigrants die and, in 1622, a furious race war broke out between the whites and the Amerinds.

This war ended indecisively with the Indians retreating deeper inland, but the events caused the British government to take over the running of Virginia, at the same time revoking the Virginia Company’s license to trade in the colony.

The first change the British government implemented was the lifting of controls on the production of tobacco, an addictive herb which the Amerinds had introduced to the white settlers.

The economy in Virginia then improved, based on tobacco production which was exported in large quantities back to England. The white indentured labor pool proved too small to cope with the increased agricultural demands, and soon the unscrupulous tobacco plantation owners turned to importing black slaves from Africa.

French Establish a Colony at Quebec

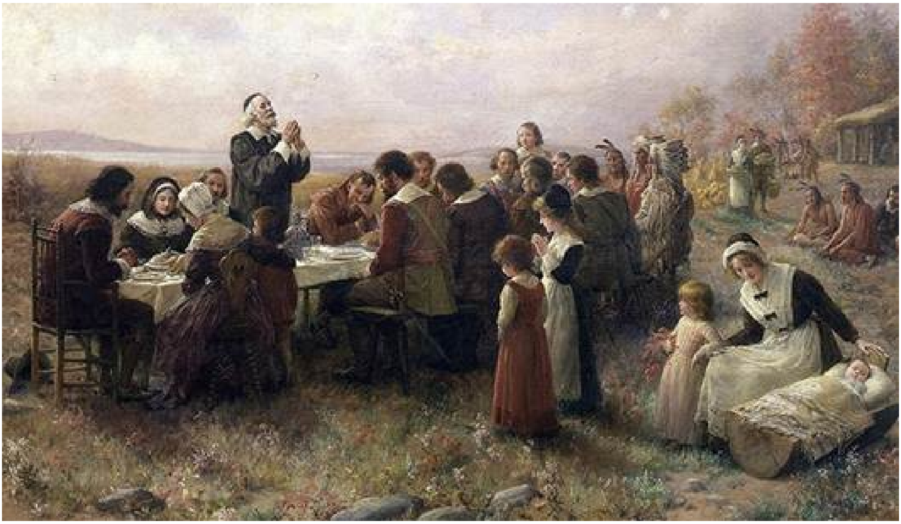
While the British had settled Jamestown, the French and Dutch had also sent expeditions to North America. In 1608, French explorers established a major colony at Quebec and laid claim to huge tracts of land, including the Mississippi River valley (which remained under French rule until Napoleonic times). The French did not import huge numbers of their own population or African slaves and concentrated instead on creating trading stations. This process left the Amerinds relatively undisturbed and created the basis for the Amerind/French friendship which was to cost the British dearly in later conflicts.

The Dutch Establish New Amsterdam

In 1621, the Dutch government granted a charter to the privately-owned Dutch West India Company, which then established colonies in the West Indies, Brazil, and North America.

The Dutch settled the area which Henry Hudson had mapped out around the mouth of the Hudson River, and established an outpost on the island of Manhattan. By 1624, the settlement had been formally constituted into the city of New Amsterdam, today known as New York. The Amerind population vehemently resisted the Dutch settlements from the first, and a lingering race war between the Dutch and Indians became an unrelenting feature of life in New Netherlands.

RELIGIOUS DISSIDENTS MAKE UP MUCH OF EARLY AMERICAN SETTLER POPULATION



Above: The Pilgrims give thanks at Plymouth, Massachusetts, in 1620. Most of the early settlers were religious dissenters who faced persecution in Europe. The English dissidents in particular lived for many years in exile in the Netherlands before departing for the New World, and word soon spread throughout Europe that religious freedom was to be found in America. William Penn, for example, took possession of what became Pennsylvania, granted to him by the Stuarts in payment of a debt. Penn dedicated his colony to the idea of religious freedom, which in turn attracted a large number of religious dissident settlers from Europe.

The Pilgrim Fathers—Religious Refugees

In 1620, a new group of English settlers arrived in North America, fleeing religious persecution. Known as the Pilgrims in America, or the Pilgrim Fathers in Britain, these English dissenters founded the Plymouth Colony in present-day Plymouth, Massachusetts. The Pilgrims had originally fled to Holland from the East Midlands of England, but, fearing the loss of their identity in the Netherlands, arranged for a mass transfer to the new colony in North America.

Spanish Invasion of South America

Prevented from expanding into North America, the Spanish then concentrated on South America, establishing settlements in what is now the Dominican Republic and Cuba. From the latter settlement, the Spanish launched several forays into Central and South America to further establish their rule.

This process gave rise to the epic story of the Conquistadors and the conquest of the Aztec and Inca civilizations, a feat so breathtaking that it has entered the realms of legend.

German Colony in Venezuela 1529

In 1529, a German colony was established in present-day Venezuela. However, it disbanded shortly afterward. Not all of the colonists returned to Europe, and those who remained were absorbed into the local population.

The Congo and the Portuguese Slave Trade

The Portuguese explorers who reached the Angolan coast in the 1480s in search of black slaves found willing allies in the Congo tribe, who were among the first sub-Saharan Africans to convert to Christianity. This did not, however, prevent them from cooperating with the Portuguese in capturing neighboring tribesmen and selling them as slaves, and it was from the present-day interior of the African nations of the Congo and Angola that the majority of blacks exported to America and Portugal originated.

In 1515, the Portuguese founded the port of Luanda, today the capital of Angola, to facilitate the slave trade. From this base, the Portuguese took possession of all of Angola on the African west coast, and Mozambique on the east coast.

French Take Algeria

The French started the conquest of the North African territory of Algeria in 1830, using the pretext of an Arab insult to their ambassador. Within twenty years, over fifty thousand French colonists moved to Algeria, and were joined by large numbers of Europeans from Spain, Italy, and Malta. This European influx caused a significant racial change to occur in Algeria, which can still be seen today in the large variety of racial types on display in that North African state.

Other French colonial conquests included Senegal in the 1850s, Dahomey in 1892, and the Wadai region in 1900.

Belgium Claims the Congo

In 1876, the Belgian king Leopold II established the International Association of the Congo, a private company dedicated to the exploration and colonization of that African territory. His principal agent for this task was the Englishman, Henry Stanley, who was later to win fame for finding the missing explorer David Livingstone.

German Colonies in Africa

Although a late starter in the race for colonies, the Germans still managed to seize some important areas. German South West Africa, now called Namibia, was occupied by the kaiser's forces in 1884 and the country now known as Tanzania (then called German East Africa) was seized in 1891.

The Germans faced a bloody insurrection by the Herero tribesmen in South West Africa from 1904–1908, and also the 1905–1907 Maji Maji Rebellion in East Africa. During the course of the Herero rebellion, the German government deployed thousands of soldiers to suppress the natives. The German commander, General Lothar von Trotha finally defeated the Herero at the Battle of Waterberg in August 1904. The survivors were driven into the desert where large numbers succumbed to starvation.

The Dutch Land in South Africa 1652

By 1652, the Dutch government granted permission to a private company called the Dutch East India Company to exploit the growing colonies and trading posts in the Far East.

The necessity of a halfway resupply point on the sea route to India soon became apparent, and a company official, Jan van Riebeeck, was dispatched to establish a base at the Cape of Good Hope on the southernmost tip of Africa. Van Riebeeck's instructions were to build a fort and supply station, a mission in which he succeeded so well that it laid the basis for what became one of the longest lasting white settlements in Africa.

The Dutch in the Far East

Although the Portuguese had been the first to reach the Far East by sea, internal problems related to the mass importation of thousands of black slaves prevented them from exploiting this advantage.

As a result, the Dutch East India Company had established itself in the Moluccas (the so-called "Spice Islands") and Java by 1602. The settlement of Batavia in West Java became the center of Dutch enterprises and is now the present-day city of Jakarta.

Initially, the Dutch devoted their attention to trade and did not concern themselves with trying to govern the region. However, when constant squabbling between native tribes caused a disruption to trade, the Dutch were forced to intervene. They then set up a government, becoming the de facto rulers of the territory which is now known as Indonesia. In the same way, the Dutch ended up controlling Java and Ceylon (now Sri Lanka) by 1800.

Thus, by the beginning of the nineteenth century, white explorers had set foot in every continent on earth. Overwhelming technological superiority combined with unheard of bravery, established European colonies in the four corners of the world. Some grew into replicas of their founding European nations, while others deteriorated back to Third World level, all depending upon the colony's demographics.

CHAPTER 44: The Yihequan—Race War in the Far East

The first white explorer to arrive in China by following the sea route around Africa was the Portuguese adventurer, Jorge Álvares, who landed at Lintin Island in the Zhujiang estuary in 1513. This initial contact soon led to a number of expeditions, including one led by Rafael Perestrello (a cousin of Christopher Columbus), which landed on the Chinese mainland in the Guangzhou province in 1516.

This was followed up with the establishment of the first trading station by the Portuguese merchant Fernão Pires de Andrade at the mouth of the Zhujiang (Pearl River) estuary, and by 1557, the Portuguese had acquired a trading station at Macau in China's Guangdong province.

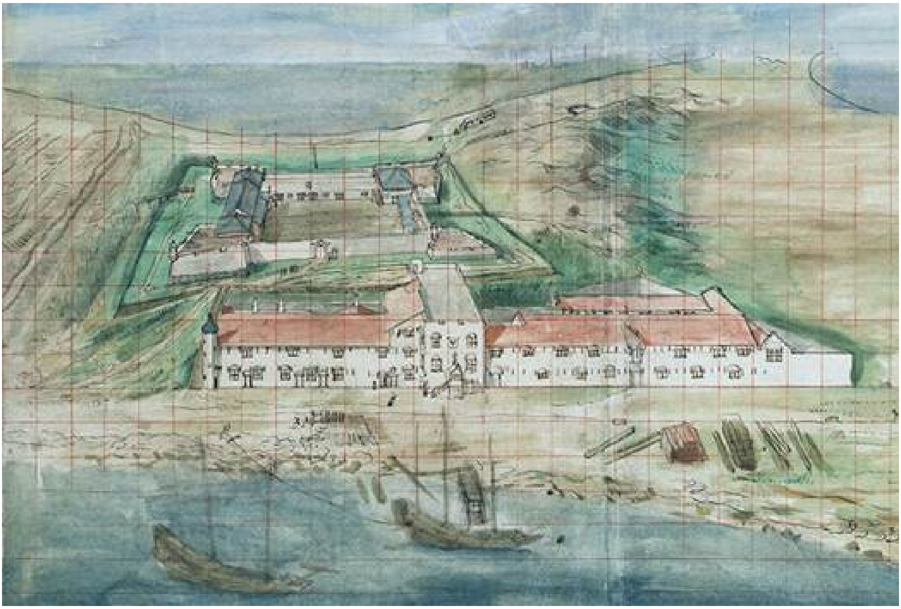
The Portuguese success in establishing contact with China was quickly emulated by the Spanish and the Dutch, who established trade outposts in 1570 and 1619 respectively. The Spanish trade stations were based in the Philippines while the Dutch established a trading station in Taiwan and took possession of the nearby Penghu Islands.

The British, operating from their established bases in India, traded heavily in tea with China and, as long as they paid in silver, relations remained very friendly.

Christian Missionaries Fail in Attempt to Convert China

The establishment of trading stations was soon followed by the arrival of Christian missionaries, with the first being the Dominican monk Gaspar da Cruz who traveled to Guangzhou in 1556. Although Da Cruz provided the first proper Western written record of the Ming Dynasty, he and his fellow missionaries met with failure in their attempts to convert any significant numbers of Chinese to Christianity.

DUTCH BUILD TRADING STATION AS FORT ON FORMOSA



The Dutch fort and town of Zeelandia, built on the south of the island of Formosa as a base, acted as both a military outpost and a trading station for the early white trading efforts in China. The fact that it took on the form of a military fort showed well how the Dutch viewed future relations with the Chinese, a suspicion in which they were proven to be correct. Painted in 1635, The Hague National Bureau of Archives.

Qing Dynasty Attempts to Halt White Settlers

The Chinese authorities were conscious of the threat of European colonization from the very outset. As early as 1684, the Emperor Kangxi restricted white traders to four cities, and in 1686, the Europeans were limited to the specific suburbs in Canton (Guangzhou) known as the "Thirteen Factories."

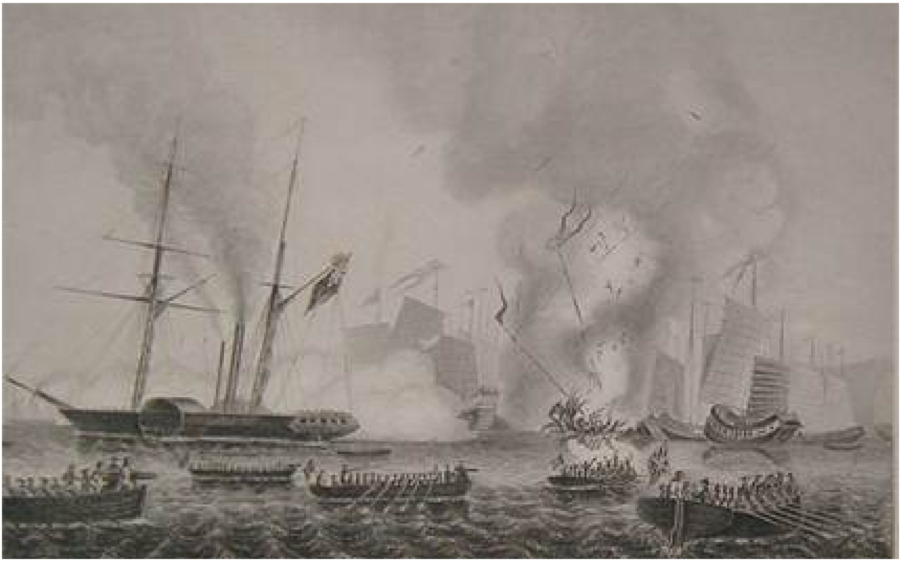
Despite these restrictions, the extensive trade with China by European powers remained undisturbed and profitable to all sides for nearly two hundred years, until the mid-1800s, when the leaders of the Qing Dynasty introduced what became known as the "Canton System."

The primary motivation for the introduction of the Canton System in 1756, which restricted trade to the Thirteen Factories area, was to permanently halt white expansion in China.

The Canton System also forbade any direct trading between European merchants and Chinese civilians. In addition, it decreed that trade could only take place with specially approved Chinese merchants in the Thirteen Factories area. As part of the Canton System, the Chinese emperor actively closed down all other European trading stations and made many other attempts to limit the white influence, including a ban on teaching the outsiders any understanding of the Chinese language.

These restrictions naturally enough severely affected trade, and soon black market exchanges between European traders and Chinese smugglers became widespread. To make matters worse, the British traders then started using the drug opium (already produced in large quantities in India) as partial payment for the Chinese goods. Opium was illegal in China, and the Chinese authorities viewed the rapid spread of the drug's use with alarm.

FIRST CHINESE-BRITISH RACE WAR—JUNKS AGAINST FRIGATES



The first race war between Britain and China, fought in 1841, saw the vastly technologically inferior Chinese navy of ragtag junks try to engage the modern British navy in Anson's Bay. The Chinese boats were all sunk, without the loss of any of the British ships, a foretaste of the war on land, which saw the white army destroy Chinese resistance.

The First Opium War 1839–1842

Finally, in 1838, the Chinese emperor Daoguang ordered a crackdown on Chinese dealers in opium and ordered all foreign merchants to hand over their stocks of the drug for destruction.

This latter request was refused and the Chinese authorities then halted trade completely and refused to let the Europeans leave until the drugs were surrendered. Eventually, the white traders were forced to give up their opium stashes and many of the traders were financially destroyed as a result.

The following year, Chinese officials confiscated and destroyed huge amounts of opium from British ships in the harbor at Guangzhou and demanded of the British that they completely halt the use of the drug as payment for Chinese goods.

The British refused and instead sent a military expedition from their base in India to force the Chinese authorities to reopen trade without any restrictions.

The Chinese were no match for British military superiority and were defeated in the war, which ended in 1842 after British forces seized Hong Kong, Chinkiang, and even threatened Peking.

In terms of the Treaty of Nanking which ended the war, Hong Kong was ceded to Britain and the right to trade was granted to the British in a number of Chinese towns. During the next two years, both France and the United States extracted similar treaties from China.

The Second Opium War 1856–1860

The Chinese attempted to circumvent the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking as far as possible, and took steps to prevent European merchants from gaining further footholds in China.

Matters came to a head in 1856 when the Chinese authorities seized a pirate vessel engaged in the smuggling of opium. The ship, named the *Arrow,* was registered in Britain and even though it was engaged in piracy, the British authorities used it as an excuse to demand an apology for what they claimed had been the illegal seizure of a British vessel.

Although the crew were released, the Chinese authorities refused to apologize, and in retaliation, the British governor in Hong Kong ordered warships to shell Canton.

Even though this was a flagrant violation of international law, the British government backed the military action, hoping that another conflict with China would finally force the full implementation of all the provisions of the Treaty of Nanking. The French, also acting out of a desire to force open the Chinese markets, then joined the fray and an Anglo-French force landed in China and seized Canton in December 1857.

This victory was quickly followed by the capture of the Taku forts near Tientsin in 1858, which forced the Chinese to sue for peace. The Tientsin Treaties of June 1858 were then signed, which obliged China to reopen its ports, legalize the trade in opium, and allow foreign embassies in Peking and Christian missionaries in the country once more. Other foreign powers such as America and Russia also took part in the discussion of the Tientsin Treaties, sensing the opportunity for their own nations to take advantage of the reopening of trade with China.

CHINESE AT FORT TAKU ATTACK BRITISH FLEET

In 1858, the Chinese government assented to accept a number of concessions which included a resident British representative in Peking, the opening of a number of Chinese ports to European trade, the right of British nationals to travel in China with passports, the recognition of the right of missionaries, and the legalization of the opium trade. The British sent a delegation to China in 1859 to formalize the treaty, but by then the Chinese had decided to reject its terms. As the British ships approached the fort of Taku on the Chinese coast, they were fired upon without warning. Three British ships were sunk, and three hundred sailors killed or wounded. It was the start of the Second Opium War. The British sent reinforcements, which only arrived the following year, and landed to the north of Taku, taking the fortifications from the rear. These extraordinary photographs from the time show: top, the exterior of the forts; and bottom, the interior of the north fort after the Chinese defeat.

Not surprisingly, the Chinese objected to the terms of the new treaty, and after it became clear that foreign delegations were not going to be allowed in Peking, the European powers resumed military action.

The war started again in June 1859 when a British invasion force landed at the mouth of the Hai River near Tientsin. A determined Chinese resistance defeated the European attack. This victory was short-lived. An Anglo-French force landed at Pei-Tang in August 1860 and retook the Taku forts. The victorious European army then marched upriver toward Peking.

As they approached the capital city, the Chinese government asked for a negotiated peace. A delegation under the British officer Sir Harry Smith Parkes was duly sent to negotiate the terms, but he and his team were instead arrested and imprisoned, with more than half being tortured to death. Enraged, the Europeans renewed their assault on Peking, and reached the city in September. The Old Summer Palace was occupied, looted, and then burned to the ground in retaliation for the torture of the Smith Parkes delegation.

Prostrate under superior firepower, the Chinese were forced to agree to implement the earlier treaties which, by their provisions, opened Chinese ports to foreign trade and residents, ceded Hong Kong and Kowloon to Britain, legalized the opium trade, and allowed missionaries throughout the country. The Chinese government was also ordered to pay compensation to Britain and France consisting of millions of ounces of silver.

Other Powers Seize Parts of China

Following from the Second Opium War, Russia seized the Chinese provinces of northern Manchuria and the areas north of the Amur River in 1860. This was followed in 1884 by a war between the French and China which saw Vietnam become a French colony.

By 1898, powerless to resist foreign demands, China had been carved into spheres of economic influence. Russia was granted exclusive economic rights throughout Manchuria along with the right to construct a trans-Siberian railroad called the Chinese Eastern which ran across Manchuria to Vladivostok. In addition, the Russians were also granted the right to build the South Manchurian Railway which ran south to the tip of the Liaodong Peninsula.

Other exclusive rights to railway and mineral development were granted to Germany in Shandong Province, to France in the southern border provinces, to Great Britain in the Yangtze provinces, and to Japan in the southeastern coastal provinces.

The Boxer Uprising—Race War in China

Discontent with the foreign intrusion into China simmered despite the new dispensation, and inevitably boiled over into open rebellion in the 1900 Boxer Uprising. This conflict, which was in essence a Chinese nationalist uprising against all whites, had its origin in the 1899 creation of a secret society of Chinese called the Yihequan (“Righteous and Harmonious Fists,” also called the Boxers). Starting in the northeastern provinces, the Yihequan began a campaign of terror against white Christian missionaries which quickly spread throughout the country.

Although the Yihequan were officially denounced by the Chinese authorities, they were secretly supported by many of the Chinese royal court, including the Dowager Empress Cixi. Given unofficial patronage, the Yihequan’s terrorist activities expanded considerably, so that by 1900, whites in China were often attacked on sight. When bands of Yihequan entered Peking early in 1900, the European powers were forced to send a small armed column to the Chinese capital to protect the few whites in the city.

This caused an open outbreak of hostilities, as the Empress Cixi ordered the Chinese army to attack the white army before it reached Peking.

WHITE POWERS OCCUPY PEKING—END OF BOXER REBELLION

Foreign troops parade within the walls of the Forbidden City, Beijing, 1900, following the successful suppression of the Boxer Rebellion. The European and Japanese troops had fought their way inland from the coast to relieve the whites besieged in embassy compounds in the Chinese capital. The troops, composed of British, French, Americans, and Russians, were backed up by suitably Westernized Japanese, who, ironically, had only forty-five years earlier still refused whites access to their own country.

Empress of China Urges Chinese to Kill all Whites

On June 18, 1900, the Empress Cixi publicly called on the Chinese to kill all whites in China. Large numbers were then hunted down and murdered, and most of those who survived fled into the fortified foreign embassies in Peking.

In addition, the Chinese mobs laid siege to the Japanese embassy, including them as foreigners who needed to be removed from China. The crisis was only resolved when an army consisting of British, French, Russian, German, American, and Japanese troops entered Peking on August 14, 1900, relieving the besieged foreign embassies.

Peking was then occupied by the foreign powers for a year until September 1901, when the Chinese signed a peace treaty in terms of which they agreed to pay a large indemnity and grant the foreign nations the right to station troops in Peking to safeguard the embassies.

These restrictions only came to an end in the first part of the twentieth century when China descended into civil war between Nationalists and Communists.

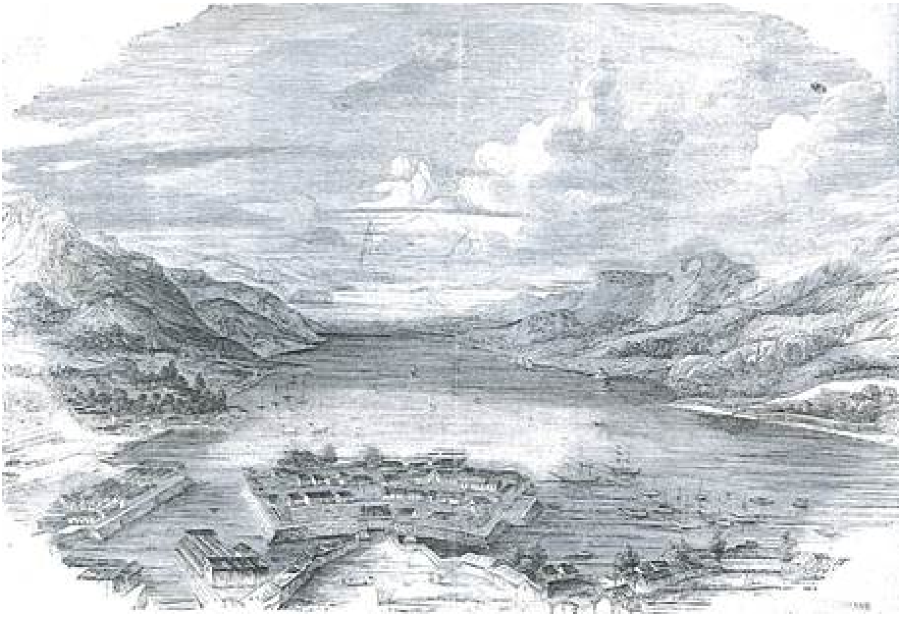
Japan—Resists White Contact for Two Hundred Years

The Portuguese explorer Fernão Mendes Pinto (1509–1583) is credited with being the first European to visit Japan in 1542. This expedition started a trickle of trade with the Japanese, but Pinto is most remembered for introducing the gun to Japan when he gave an early Portuguese arquebus to some Japanese feudal lords in exchange for the right to trade.

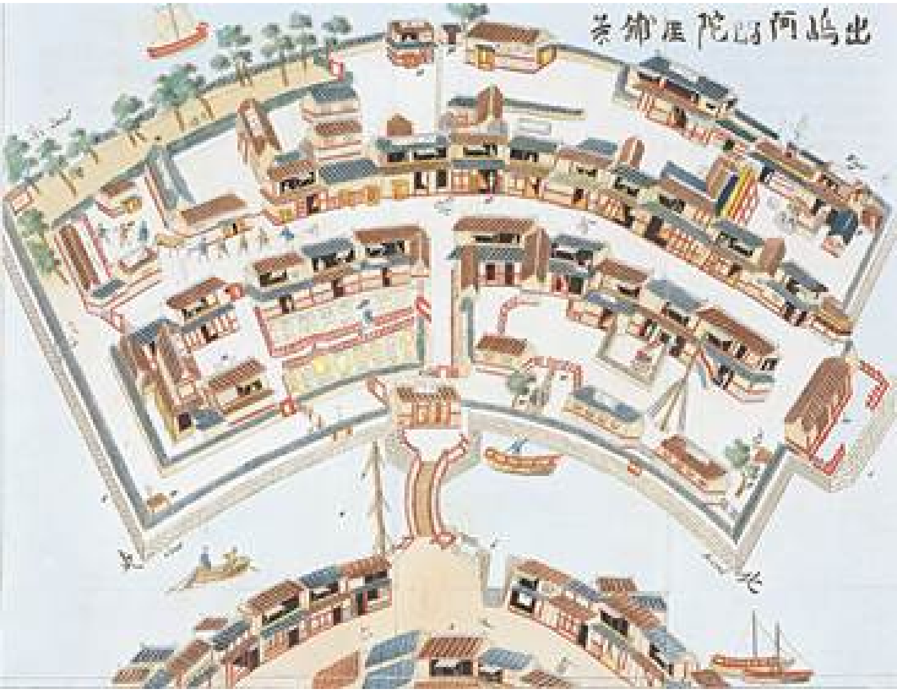
The weapon was quickly reproduced throughout Japan. Pinto's visit was followed up by a number of European visits, one of the most prominent being that of Saint Francis Xavier who landed at Kagoshima on the island of Kyushu in 1549. There he started preaching Christianity to the Japanese as other European traders set up an ever-increasing number of stations. Xavier achieved a small measure of success, and by 1549, there were an estimated 150,000 Japanese Christians.

Although still a tiny amount in terms of the total Japanese population, the Japanese authorities saw the process as a form of European cultural colonialism, and ultimately, a weakening of the Japanese social structure. In 1612, Christian Japanese converts became the subject of official government persecution and they were put to death, literally to the last man, woman, and child. In this way, Christianity was permanently prevented from gaining a foothold in Japan.

WHITES REFUSED ACCESS TO JAPANESE MAINLAND FOR TWO HUNDRED YEARS



For more than two hundred years, from 1650 to 1856, the Japanese refused to let any Europeans set foot in their country. The only exception during this period was granted to the Dutch, but even their personnel were not allowed off the tiny island prison of Deshima, at Nagasaki. They were the only whites allowed to visit the Japanese during that period, and were subject to great restrictions, all part of a deliberate policy by the Japanese to keep Europeans out of Japan.

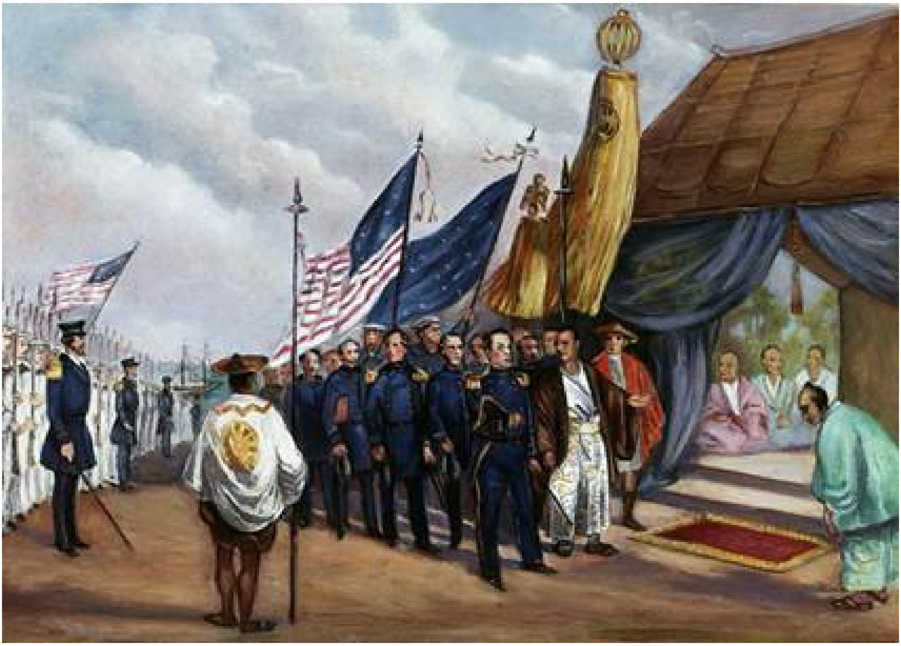


Japanese Isolation Begins

The Japanese government refused permission for a Spanish trading delegation to come ashore in 1624. Furthermore, they limited the number of whites allowed in Japan to a small group of Dutch traders who were restricted to the artificial island of Dejima in the harbor of Nagasaki. A further series of edicts issued over the next decade forbade Japanese people from traveling abroad and from building any large ships which could travel a great distance.

In addition, the study of European literature by Japanese people was forbidden. These restrictions were partially lifted in 1720, when the Tokugawa shogun Yoshimune repealed the ban on European books and study.

COMMODORE PERRY FORCES JAPAN OUT OF ISOLATION 1854



Commodore Matthew Perry is allowed on Japanese soil to deliver the American government's ultimatum to Japan. On March 31, 1854, the Japanese accepted and opened their country to trade and intercourse with the West. From then on, till the present day, the Japanese have been avaricious devourers of Western technology and science, being one of the few nonwhite races to have successfully adopted Western technological know-how.

Commander Matthew Perry and Japan

The self-imposed isolation of Japan continued up to the middle of the nineteenth century, and was only broken by determined military intervention from America. Matters came to a head after Japan refused to release a number of American sailors who had been crew on whaling ships wrecked off the Japanese coast.

In 1853, the American government sent a formal naval mission to Japan, consisting of four warships under the command of Commodore Matthew Calbraith Perry. After arriving in Yokohama, Perry used the cannon on his ship to fire a salute during a burial ceremony, knowing that the Japanese were observing.

Having dramatically demonstrated the tremendous firepower of the American ships (and, directly, the white technological superiority), Perry let a delegation onshore which demanded that Japan open up to trade with the West, as outlined in a letter he carried direct from the American president, Millard Fillmore.

The Japanese accepted the letter, and Perry set sail for China, indicating that he would return shortly for an official reply from Japan. As promised, Perry returned with a more numerous fleet in 1854, and was presented with a treaty agreeing to Fillmore's demands. Perry signed the Convention of Kanagawa on March 31, 1854, and left, having established trade relations between the United States and Japan.

In 1860, a Japanese embassy station was set up in the United States. Two years later, the Japanese government sent delegates in a series of trade missions to Europe with the purpose of negotiating formal agreements with other Western nations.

Not all Japanese readily accepted the treaties, and attacks by militants on European shipping in Japanese harbors became commonplace during the early 1860s. A renewed display of force by an American naval detachment in 1864 once again overawed the Japanese and thereafter the number of attacks declined rapidly.

Japanese Imitation of White Civilization Launched

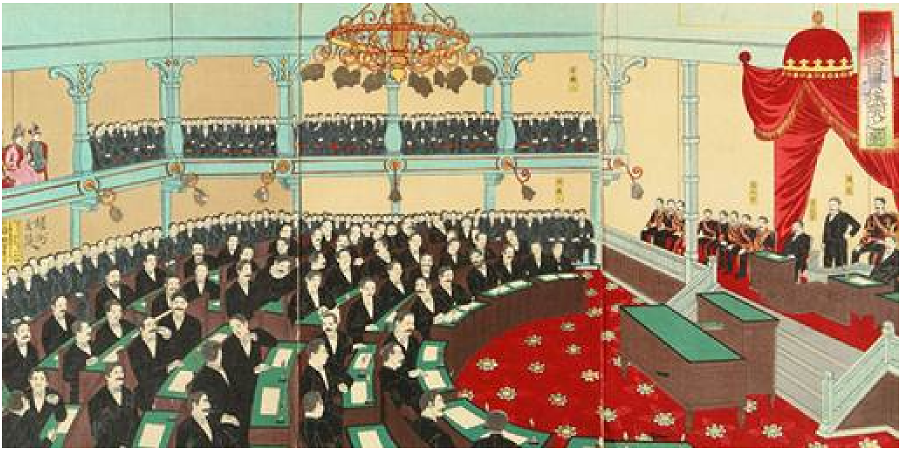
The Japanese government then began copying everything they saw in white European nations, a pattern for which their country later became famous. French army officers were paid to enter Japan to remodel the Japanese army while British naval officers were paid to reorganize the Japanese navy.

Dutch engineers were paid to supervise the construction of the first major Western style public works and infrastructure on the Japanese island and Japanese officials were sent abroad to study the infrastructure and workings of white governments and to select their best features for duplication in Japan. A new penal code was modeled on that of France, and a ministry of education, based on that of the United States, was established in 1871 to develop a system of universal education.

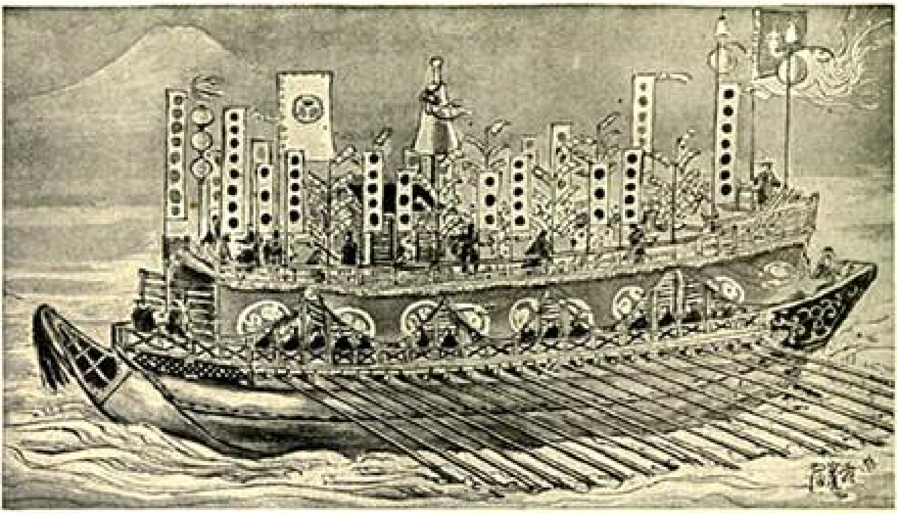
This imitation of the white nations' infrastructure was extended to every level of society. In 1884, the Japanese emperor created a peerage, preparing the way for an upper house of parliament. At the same time, a lower house of parliament, elected on a qualified franchise, was created. A cabinet modeled on that of Germany was organized in 1885, and the post of prime minister and a cabinet was created in 1888. A new constitution, drafted after constitutional research in Europe and the United States, was promulgated in 1889.

Rapid industrialization, under government direction, accompanied this political development and by 1890, Japan had completely revised its criminal, civil, and commercial law codes to match the European and American models.

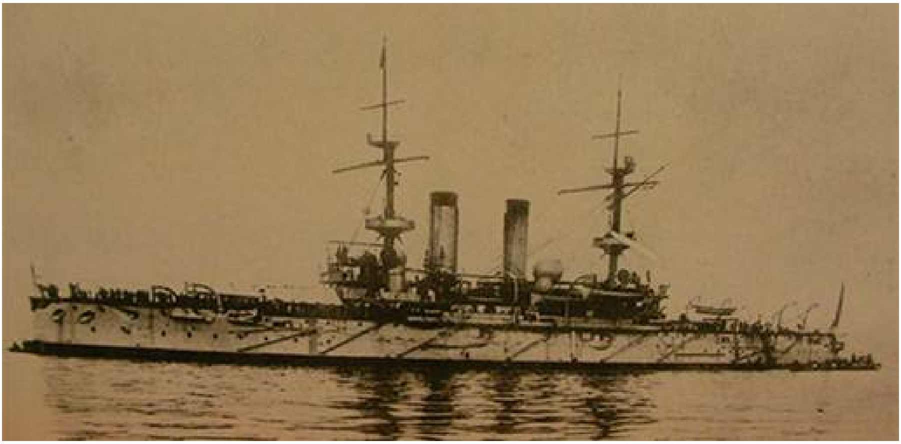
JAPAN’S RAPID ADOPTION OF WHITE CIVILIZATION



Above: The new Japanese parliament opens in 1891, modeled directly on white parliaments after the Japanese sent fact-finding missions to Europe and America to study governmental systems. This original Japanese print is interesting because it captures the “white-ized” nature of the political structure in Japan and even the dress of the ladies in the public gallery. The Japanese constitution was drawn up by a specially-appointed commission under a samurai nobleman, Ito Hirobumi, who in 1882 sent missions to the US, Britain, France, Spain and Germany to observe their democratic systems. Eventually, the German model (and the Prussian variant in particular) was selected and implemented in 1890.



The dramatic change in Japanese technology after its forced meeting with the Western world was most visible in its armed forces. Above: A Japanese warship, 1850; and below, a Japanese warship, 1900.



Above: Japanese soldiers, circa 1868, and below, Japanese soldiers, 1905.

Westernized Japanese Expansion

Suitably "white-ized" or Westernized, Japan once again turned its attention outward. War followed in 1894 with China over possession of Korea, with the recently industrialized Japanese army making short work of the Chinese forces.

Japan also contributed to the international military force sent to quell the Boxer Rebellion in China in 1900, and the Anglo–Japanese Alliance treaty followed between Britain and Japan in 1902. (This treaty caused Japan to enter the First World War on the side of Great Britain with an attack on German bases in China.)

Russia, which had seized Manchuria from the Chinese following the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, attempted to occupy Korea as well. In 1904, Japan broke off diplomatic relations with Russia over the matter and attacked the Russian-held Port Arthur in southern Manchuria. The newly Westernized Japanese army overwhelmed the Russians at Port Arthur, leaving no one in doubt that Japan was now a world power.

Japan and China—Modern Giants Who Practice Racial Homogeneity

By the end of the twentieth century, both Japan and China had developed into industrial giants, responsible for the production (but not the invention) of the majority of day-to-day appliances and convenience goods used all over the world. Both nations also practice immigration policies designed to preserve their racial homogeneity, and do not tolerate mass Third World immigration, unlike the white Western nations. Japan, for example, famously refused to take Vietnamese boat people refugees of the 1970s and 1980s unless they were racially compatible with the existing Japanese population.

This strict, racially-based immigration policy is Japan and China's formula for long-term survival and progress. If maintained, this policy will ensure that they escape the fate of Western nations who have abandoned such policies.

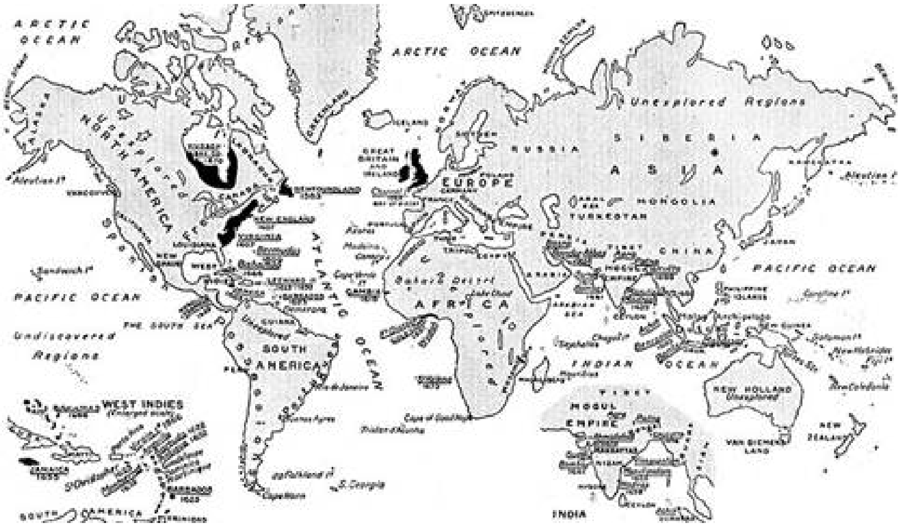
CHAPTER 45: The Sun Never Sets—The British Empire

When the British Empire was at its height in the early 1900s, it included over 20 percent of the world's land area and more than 400 million people—the single largest empire in the history of the world.

This remarkable achievement, by a country half the size of France, was a tribute to the superb organizational skills of the white empire builders of that nation. The global spread of their colonies meant that some territory was always in daylight, which in turn gave rise to the saying that the "sun never sets on the British Empire."

This astonishing empire was never undone in the way that the Roman Empire was. Instead it dissolved peacefully and by mutual consent. In this way, the British Empire became the first not to be destroyed within the borders of its dominions.

BRITISH EMPIRE—LARGEST IN HISTORY OF THE WORLD


ARCTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
NORTH AMERICA
CANADA
GREENLAND
ICELAND
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
EUROPE
RUSSIA
Unexplored Regions
SIBERIA
ASIA
MONGOLIA
TURKESTAN
CHINA
PACIFIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
AFRICA
SOUTH AMERICA
INDIAN OCEAN
Undiscovered Regions
WEST INDIES
NEW HOLLAND
NEW ZEALAND
VAN DIEMENS LAND
MOGUL EMPIRE
INDIA
Aleutian I.
S. Georgia

These illustrations from a 1908 encyclopedia show the extent of the British Empire (marked in black) in 1702, and below, the empire in 1902, illustrating the territorial expansion over a two hundred year period. The loss of the thirteen colonies in North America was made up through the addition of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India, and assorted colonies in Africa. This map does not include the additional territories added after the end of the First World War.

ARCTIC OCEAN
ALASKA
BAFFIN BAY
GREENLAND
GREENLAND SEA
NORTH WEST TERRITORY
CANADA
NORTH AMERICA
UNITED STATES
PACIFIC OCEAN
WEST INDIES
SOUTH AMERICA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
EUROPE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
ASIA
CHINESE EMPIRE
INDIAN EMPIRE
PACIFIC OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
INDIA

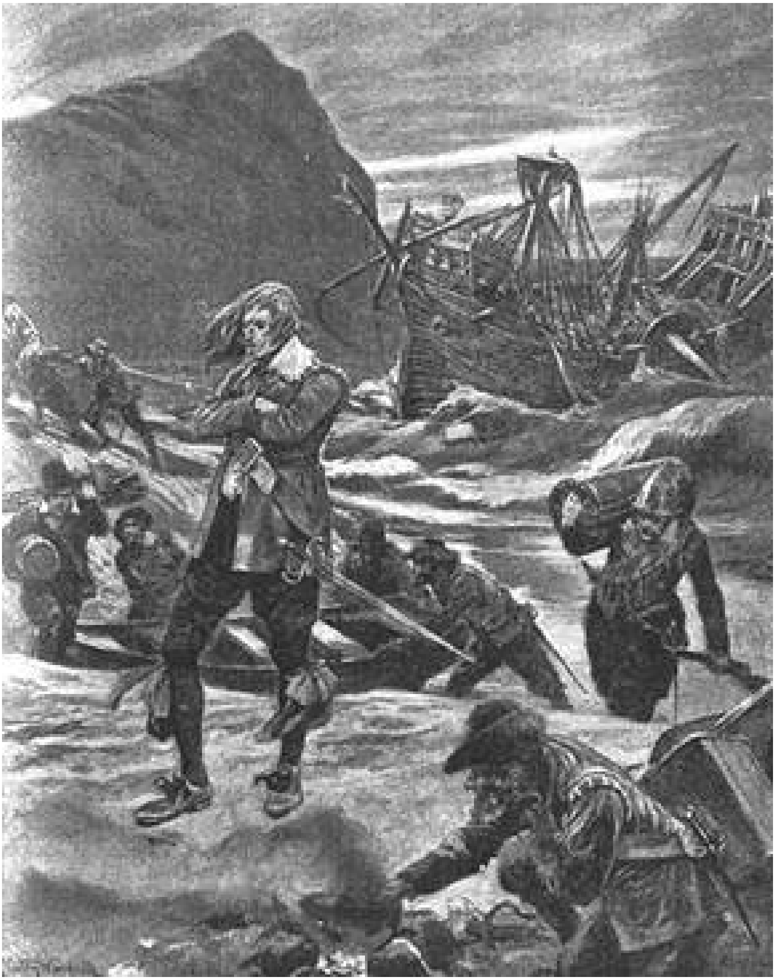
Origins under Elizabeth I

The first move by the British to establish an empire came during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558–1603). Elizabeth was a farsighted sovereign who financially supported the voyages of exploration, mainly through her favorite, Sir Francis Drake.

The English East India Company Established in 1600

The British were, like the Dutch and Spanish, quick to realize the potential of trade with the newly discovered lands. In 1600, the English East India Company was established to facilitate trade, but because of the continuing war with Spain, the British overseas interests were limited mainly to raiding Spanish fleets.

SHIPWRECK LEADS TO COLONY OF BERMUDA



One of the chief promoters of the Virginia Company, Sir George Somers, was shipwrecked in 1609 along with a group of would-be settlers on the islands of Bermuda. Not one to miss an opportunity, Somers claimed the islands in the name of the English king and established a colony there. Above, a bedraggled Somers comes ashore after the shipwreck.

Failed Attempt to Colonize North America

The very first attempt at creating a British colony in the Americas was launched by the English adventurer, Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1585. This settlement did not survive, and the English did not attempt further exploration and colonization in the Americas until 1604, after peace had been made with Spain. Raleigh gained fame in the war with Spain, but fell out of favor with the English monarch and was later imprisoned in the Tower of London and executed in 1618.

North America Colonized in Seventeenth Century

During the seventeenth century, Britain established its first permanent colonies in North America: first in Virginia, and then in the Caribbean, with tobacco plantations in the West Indies and religious colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America.

First Slaves in America Were White

The first British foothold in the West Indies was Saint Christopher (later Saint Kitts), acquired in 1623. Thereafter, a series of acquisitions spread British control throughout the Caribbean, so that eventually the island nations of Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, the Bahamas, Barbados, the Bay Islands, Belize, the British Virgin Islands, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago, and the Turks and Caicos Islands all became colonies.

The demand for labor in these islands led to the importation of the first set of workers who were white indentured slaves from England.

Jamaica—First Colony to Be Seized by Force

In 1655, the English conquered the Spanish colony of Jamaica, the first ever British colony to be seized by force of arms. The English invasion was only formally acknowledged by Spain in 1670.

Black Slaves Imported to Caribbean

The continuing acquisition of Caribbean Islands by the British saw the establishment of sugarcane plantations, which were labor-intensive industries. The British then set up the Royal Africa Company in 1672, to import black slaves to the Caribbean.

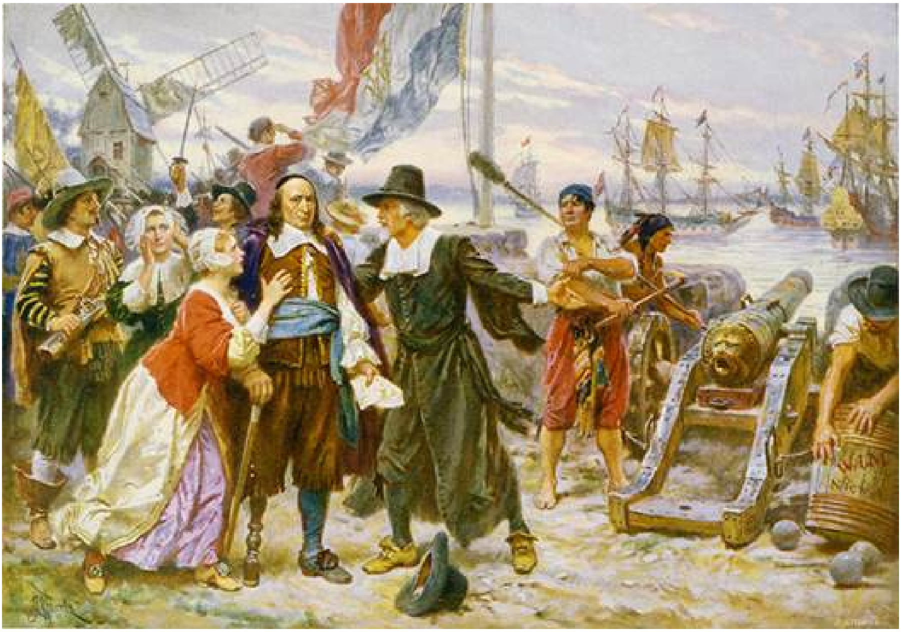
Previously, there were no blacks in the Caribbean—but by 1680, Africans were being imported at the rate of seventy thousand per year. This policy resulted in a black majority population, a factor which would later determine the future of those islands.

The Mayflower *Brings Religious Refugees to North America*

The great English religious settlements in North America started in 1620 with the arrival of the Pilgrims, who sailed from the English city of Plymouth in the *Mayflower*. The Pilgrims, Protestants who held that the Anglican Church of England was still too close to the Catholic Church, set up a Puritan community through the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1628.

Other religious colonies were established in Rhode Island (1636), where the colony was based on the principle of religious toleration; Connecticut (1639), based on Congregationalist religious beliefs; and Maryland (1634), a haven for Roman Catholics, named after Mary, the biblical mother of Jesus.

DUTCH SURRENDER COLONY OF NEW AMSTERDAM TO BRITISH



The Dutch governor of the settlement of New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island surrendered his garrison to surrender to the British in September 1664. The British took the settlement without a fight as the discontented settlers, ignored and misruled by the Dutch, refused to fight when a British fleet arrived. The settlement was renamed New York. Above, Governor Peter Stuyvesant, stands on shore among residents of New Amsterdam who are pleading with him not to open fire on the British who have arrived in warships waiting in the harbour.

British Colonization along American East Coast

Slowly, the English penetrated further down the eastern American coastline and by 1664, New Amsterdam was seized from the Netherlands and renamed New York. The Dutch inhabitants were the first large established white settlement to be subdued by force into the then growing British Empire.

In 1681, the British king granted a royal charter to the entrepreneur William Penn to establish a new colony which was called

Pennsylvania. This was followed by the establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1670 with the formal title of the "Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay."

The Company was at one time the only authority in many parts of North America before white numbers grew to the point where formal colonial states could be established. It remains in existence, and is now the oldest commercial enterprise in North America.

By 1714, British forces had captured the French colonies of Acadia and Newfoundland at the conclusion of the War of the Spanish Succession. The war was waged by English settlers against their French and Spanish compatriots, in alliance with assorted Indian tribes.

British Penal Settlements in North America

The colonies in North America were also used as penal colonies by the British government. The 1718 Transportation Act subsidized the moving of convicted criminals from Britain to the colony of Georgia, to which around fifty thousand people were sent. The crimes for which people were deported varied from what today would be regarded as relatively minor offences (such as debt) right through to theft and robbery.

French Colonies Seized after European War

As a result of the Seven Years' War in Europe (1756–1763), Britain was able to seize further French colonies in North America. In 1758, the French fortress of Louisburg fell, giving the British access to the Saint Lawrence Valley. In 1759, the city of Quebec was captured, marking the end of the French colonial presence in Canada.

American Revolution Displaces British Dominance in North America

The British colonies in North America soon became one of the most valuable and prized possessions in the Empire, and a significant source of revenue for the English Crown. However, as detailed later in this book, the colonists broke out in open revolt against direct British rule and seized their independence during the American Revolution.

This momentous event saw the British lose all their North American possessions except for Canada, which subsequently became known as British North America and remained a loyal colony and later a member of the Commonwealth. The British settlement of Canada was boosted by around thirty thousand loyalist refugees who fled from the newly-created United States of America.

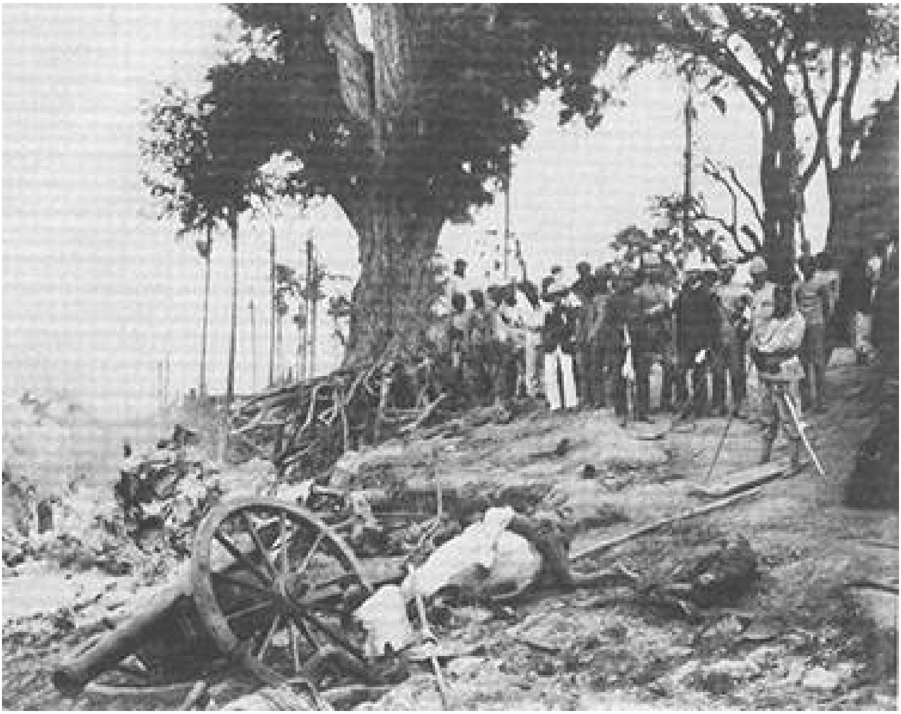
India—the British Establish the City of Calcutta

British interests in India were first served by a private company, the English East India Company (EEIC) which had by 1700, set up three major trading posts on that continent. At this stage the Company only wished to trade with the natives, and no attempt was made to colonize or rule the Indians.

Through cooperation with a local prince, the EEIC built a factory on the Hooghly River, which grew in significance and ultimately became the city of Calcutta. The EEIC established their first major area of jurisdiction on the Indian subcontinent in Bengal after a conflict with a French mission in Bengal resulted in the 1757 Battle of Plessey.

India was only incorporated into the Empire after the Indian Rebellion of 1857, when the British government decided to take control of the colony away from the EEIC.

RACE WAR IN BURMA 1885



A Burmese position, overrun by British troops in 1885. Note that by this time the Burmese had been able to capture and use white technology, namely the cannon, visible bottom left.

Anglo–Burmese Wars

Although the British initially had no intention of expanding further in Southeast Asia, the rulers of Burma forced their hand through a prolonged series of attacks against India.

A particularly serious land invasion in 1824 finally forced the British to formally declare war and counterattack to drive the Burmese forces off Indian territory.

Although this First Anglo–Burmese War cost a large number of British and Indian lives (estimated to be in the region of thirty thousand), it ended in total defeat for Burma in 1826. In terms of the armistice agreements, Burma was forced to acknowledge British rule over the territories of Assam, Manipur, Cachar, Jaintia, Arakan, and Te-nasserim. In addition, the Burmese were forced to pay compensation totaling a million pounds sterling.

Further disputes resulted in the Second and Third Anglo–Burmese wars (1852 and 1885) which eventually saw Britain occupying all of Burma, and the country officially made a province of India in 1886.

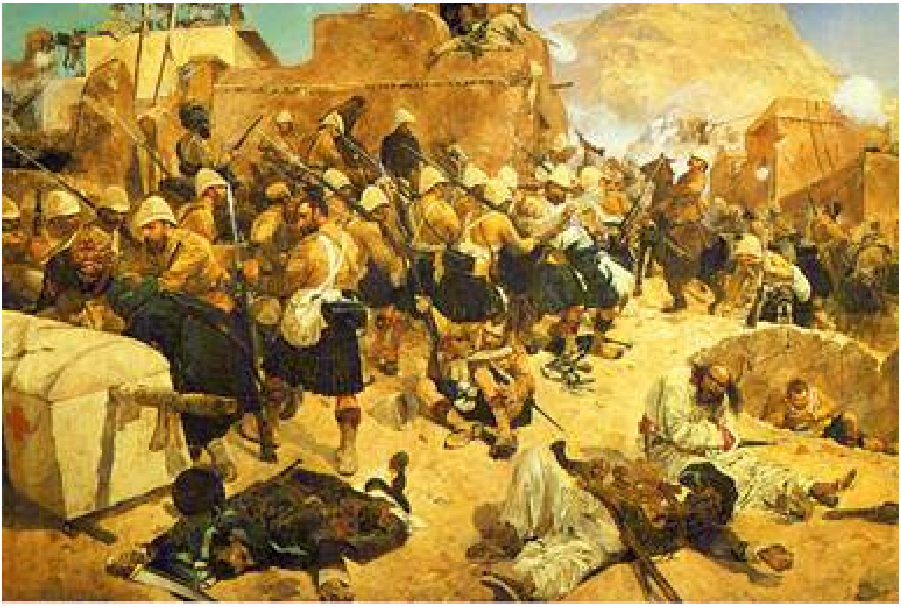
British Wars in Afghanistan End in Defeat

The country of Afghanistan was of interest to the British because of its geographic location, bordering as it does India and Russia. Mindful of the ever-present specter of European nationalism, both Britain and Imperial Russia considered Afghanistan as a potential military conquest which might provide a base from which the two nations could attack each other.

The British invaded Afghanistan for the first time in 1839 (known as the First Anglo–Afghan War), based on the false report that a Russian invasion was imminent. After some initial successes, the invasion ended in failure after the infamous Battle of Khyber Pass in 1842, where nearly sixteen thousand British troops and their Indian recruits were trapped and killed.

Despite this defeat, the Second Anglo–Afghan War (1878–1880) broke out after the Afghans refused to allow a British military mission into Kabul, despite granting that right to Russia.

SECOND AFGHAN WAR—BRITISH SEIZE KANDAHAR



Soldiers from the 92nd Highlanders and 2nd Gurkhas, storming the Gaudi Mullah Sahibdad at Kandahar on September 1, 1880. Kandahar was the second largest city in Afghanistan, and its capture opened the road to Kabul.

A British invasion force took the Afghan capital in 1879 and defeated the main body of the Afghan army at the Battle of Kandahar in 1880. This brought an end to the conflict. Although Afghanistan was returned to nominal self-rule, many important powers were ceded to the British authorities in neighboring India.

The Third Anglo–Afghan War (1919) broke out when Afghanistan invaded India, hoping to wrest that nation out of British hands following mass unrest after an Indian rebellion and the First World War. However, British air power played a major role in defeating the attack, and the Afghans were forced to sue for peace after only three months.

Australia—First Large White Settlement 1788

Although Australia had been sighted by first the Dutch and then the British in the 1600s, it was only in 1788 that the first large white settlement took place when a penal colony was established to replace those lost after the American Revolution. The history of Australia, which became an important part of the British Empire, is recounted in a separate chapter, along with the story of New Zealand, which was also settled for the first time in significant numbers in 1839.

Gibraltar Acquired by Britain

The Treaty of Utrecht, which ended the Spanish War of Succession in 1714, granted control of the Spanish territories of Gibraltar and Minorca. This gave Britain its first physical presence in the Mediterranean Sea, with Gibraltar playing a significant military role right up to the end of the twentieth century.

Napoleonic Wars Give Britain Mastery of the Seas

The outbreak of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe saw Britain's land empire expand once again through a series of conquests of French or French allied territories. This expansion was directly linked to the great British naval victory over the French fleet at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. At that famous naval battle, the French fleet was destroyed.

This allowed Britain to assume uncontested mastery of the seas, a situation which would remain unchanged until the early twentieth century.

Territory Acquired after Napoleonic Wars

In 1794, Britain captured the French sugar-producing islands around Guadeloupe in the Caribbean. This resulted in a glut of sugar on the British market and contributed indirectly to British legislation in 1807 which abolished the slave trade, by virtue of the fact that production was so high that few new slaves were needed. (The islands were later returned to France.)

During the Napoleonic Wars, the Netherlands became aligned with France. This caused Britain to seize several Dutch colonial possessions around the world in order to prevent them from being used as bases from which attacks could be launched. These territories included the Cape Colony in South Africa, Ceylon (later Sri Lanka) off the Indian coast, and parts of Guiana in South America.

Rhodesia Seized from Black Tribes

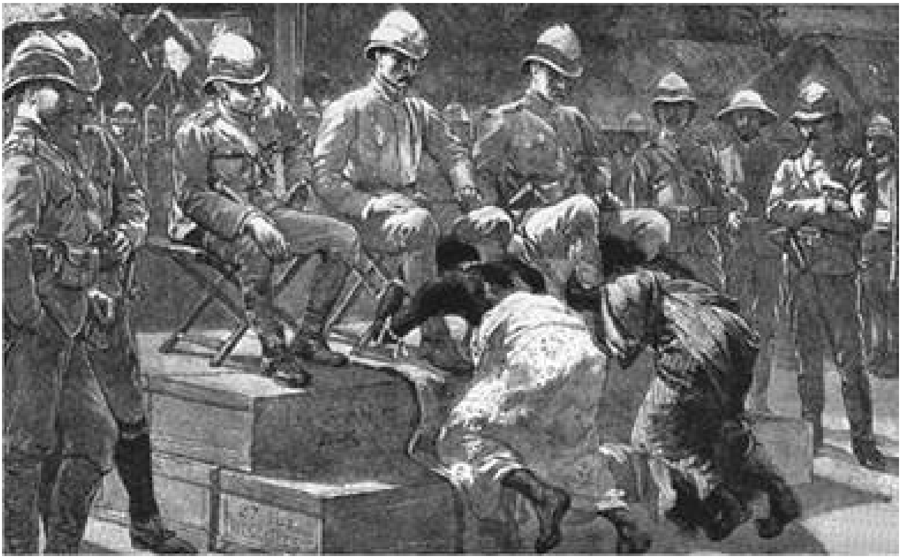
By 1893, British rule had extended north of present-day South Africa, which led to the creation of what became known as the Colony of Southern Rhodesia. This land, occupied by the Shona and Matabele tribes, would later become known as Zimbabwe.

The Matabele revolted against British rule in 1893 and again in 1896, when they were joined by the Shona. The native uprising was suppressed both times by an outnumbered but heavily armed colonial military force. Despite being defeated on numerous occasions, the black tribes never stopped fighting white minority rule. This ongoing conflict flared up again seventy years later, sparking a bush war which finally ended white rule in Rhodesia.

The Gold Coast and Sierra Leone—Freed Slave Settlements

The establishment of British outposts on the west coast of Africa—initially as trading posts, then for emancipated slave settlements and ultimately for military base purposes—led to the establishment of an ever-increasing area of colonial jurisdiction. These territories included Sierra Leone and the Gold Coast on the Gulf of Guinea, which were established with the intention of creating viable countries populated by freed ex-slaves. These high hopes were dashed as both states soon reverted to Third World status once colonial rule ended.

ASHANTI CHIEFS FORCED TO KISS BRITISH BOOTS



Defeated Ashanti chiefs are forced to kiss British boots: a remarkable scene from the Ashanti Wars which raged in West Africa from 1824 and ended in 1901 with the incorporation of Ashanti territory into the Gold Coast colony.

The Ashanti Wars

From their base in the Gold Coast, British forces gradually extended their influence into the rest of West Africa by taking over neighboring European colonies such as the Danish Gold Coast (1850) and the Dutch Gold Coast (1871). In addition, the territories controlled by the Ashanti and Fante tribes (much of present-day Ghana) were absorbed though military conquest. The occupation of the Ashanti tribe's homeland led to four different Anglo–Ashanti Wars which raged between 1824 and 1901.

The Anglo–Ashanti Wars resulted in some Ashanti victories, but ultimately the technological superiority of the British forces won the day. The Ashanti territories were finally incorporated into the Gold Coast in 1902.

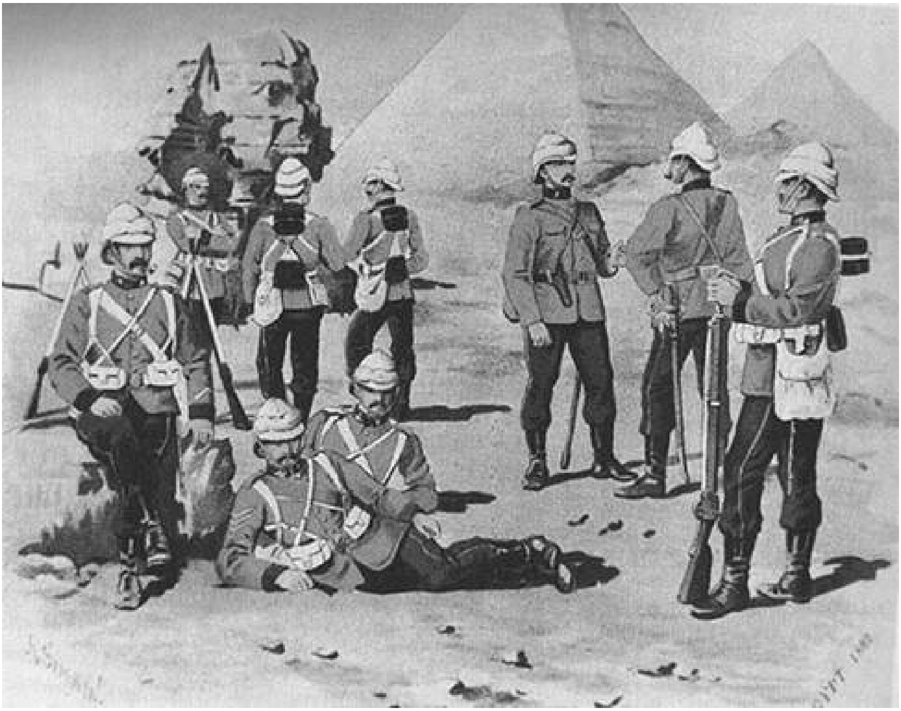
Nigeria Incorporated into Empire

The present-day city of Lagos in Nigeria was first named by a Portuguese explorer in 1472, but remained independent until 1861 when it was formally annexed as a British colony. The British annexation served two purposes: it crushed the local slave trade, perpetrated by Africans upon their own people; and it facilitated British control over the palm oil trade. The rest of the territory now know as Nigeria only came under British influence through the efforts of the Royal Niger Company (RNC), a private enterprise created in 1886.

The RNC established its authority through a series of over four hundred treaties with local tribal chiefs up and down the Niger River, and was opposed only by the Edo tribe, against whom a short war was fought over trade issues. The Edo were suppressed, and the RNC effectively ruled what became the state of Nigeria until 1900, when the colony was taken over by the British government and incorporated into a British Protectorate.

The first thing the British government did was to try and stamp out slavery, which was still rife in the east of the country, and was dominated by the Aro tribe. An expeditionary force was set up to crush the Aro slave trade, and a conflict which lasted from 1901 to 1902 ended with a British victory. Nigeria remained under European rule until after World War II, when it was granted independence along with most other British colonies around the world.

BRITISH TROOPS OCCUPY EGYPT



Soldiers from the British Royal Irish Regiment relax in front of the Sphinx and Giza pyramids, Egypt, 1882. Britain had gained a foothold in Egypt after the construction of the Suez Canal in 1869, and remained in the country until 1952, through various proxy rulers. Below, an early photograph of British warships docked in Port Said, 1992.

Egypt—Chaos Sees British Intervention

The Suez Canal, designed by the Austrian Alois Negrilli and built under the direction of the Frenchman Ferdinand de Lesseps in 1869, revolutionized sea travel between the east and west. Its strategic importance quickly led to international disputes over its ownership which was in private French investors' hands. The Convention of Constantinople, a treaty signed by Britain, Germany, Austro–Hungary, Spain, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Russia, and the Ottoman Empire in 1888, formally declared the canal neutral and placed it under British protection.

Britain already had an interest in Egypt, as that country's rulers had sold its minority shareholding in the canal to the British government. This, in turn, had led to British advisors being appointed to sit in the Egyptian cabinet, where their influence was disproportionate to their numbers. In addition to the British, French advisors were also given positions in the Egyptian cabinet because of France's shareholding in the canal.

Egyptian nationalist dissent against the European influence in their government led to attempts to dislodge the British and French and the situation deteriorated into a military conflict. A combined Anglo–French force bombarded Alexandria and crushed an Egyptian army at the 1882 Battle of Tel el-Kebir in what became known as the Anglo–Egyptian War.

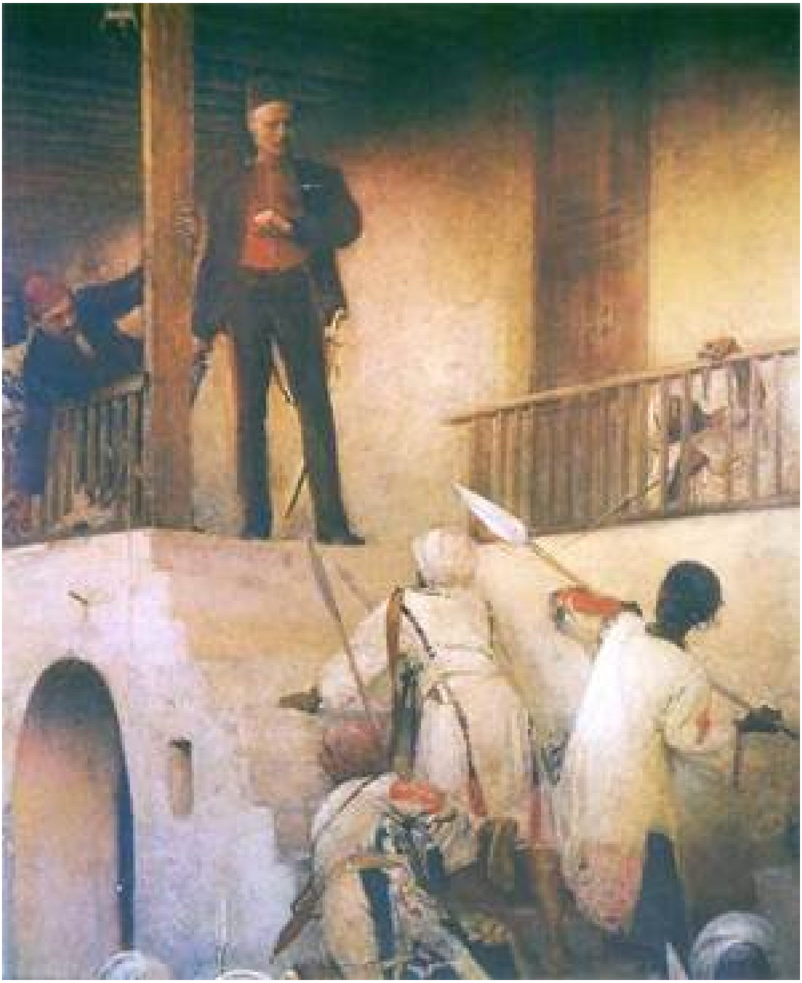
The victorious European powers then installed a puppet government which, although nominally independent, was subject to British rule. It was only during the First World War that Britain declared Egypt a protectorate as a defensive measure against the Ottoman Empire which had entered the war on the side of Germany. This protectorate status continued until 1922 when a renewed uprising forced the British government to issue a formal unilateral declaration of independence for Egypt. British influence in Egypt remained strong and was only finally brought to an end in an Egyptian military coup d'état in 1952.

Gordon of Khartoum

The territory today known as the Sudan had been formally part of Egypt since 1821 and as such also fell under British influence in the late nineteenth century.

One of the first steps the British authorities took was to introduce a Western-style police force and court system as an attempt to suppress the Islamic slave trade in southern Egypt. A local militant Muslim rebellion then took place, and British troops were forced to take refuge in the town of Khartoum.

General Charles Gordon was sent to organize a British evacuation but before it could be completed, the town was besieged by the rebel Arab army. Gordon held out in Khartoum for ten months under the most appalling conditions, but was killed when the town fell in January 1886, only two days before a British relief column arrived and suppressed the Muslim army.



Gordon of Khartoum meets his death at the hands of the Islamist army, 1886.

New Colonies in Africa and World War I

By the dawn of the twentieth century, Britain had seized control of, or annexed, through war or treaty, huge slices of Africa. These included the Sudan in 1881, Bechuanaland (now Botswana) in

1885, Kenya in 1888, and Uganda in 1894.

British control over South Africa was extended from the Cape Colony to the former Boer republics of Natalia (located on the east coast of southern Africa), the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, after military intervention against those states. The Union of South Africa was incorporated in 1910 and only declared itself a republic in 1961.

The end of the First World War saw a number of new territories, previously held by the defeated Central Powers of Germany and the Ottoman Empire, come under British rule.

In the Middle East, Britain took control of Iraq and Palestine from the Ottomans, while in Africa, German East Africa (today called Tanzania) became a British Protectorate.

The Union of South Africa, whose head of state was the British crown, took possession of German South West Africa (now called Namibia). These additions meant that by 1920, the British Empire was at its territorial height and included significant possessions on every continent.

Dissolution of the Empire after World War II

The timeline of the dissolution of the British Empire is detailed later in this work along with an overview process of decolonization. It will suffice to say here that the primary reasons for the dissolution of the British Empire were economic and political rather than racial.

Economically, Britain was too impoverished at the end of the Second World War to continue holding onto an empire created in a previous century.

In addition, public opinion, in Britain and elsewhere, turned against the concept of colonization and minority rule.

Moral political pressure led to the voluntary dissolution of the British Empire, and all other remaining European colonies, in the Third World.

GENERAL CHARLES GORDON AND THE SIEGE OF KHARTOUM 1884–1885

The son of an artillery officer, Charles Gordon was the archetypal British imperialist. He had distinguished himself in battle at the Siege of Sevastopol during the Crimean War with Russia (1853–

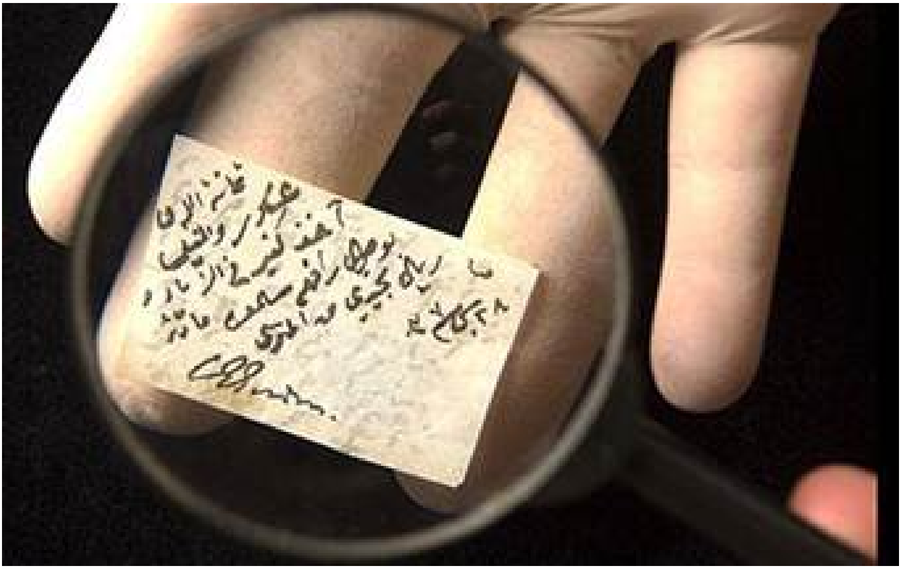
56) and had gone on to take part in the wars in China, being present at the occupation of Peking in October 1860. Gordon personally directed the burning of the Chinese emperor's Summer Palace, and in 1862 led the defense of the European trading center at Shanghai against Chinese rebels.

In 1882, a Muslim rebellion against British rule was launched by a militant named Mohammed Ahmed. The base of his operations was deep in the south of British Egypt, known as the "Soudan" and today called the Sudan. Ahmed attracted thousands of tribesmen into a war against all Christians, of whom the British governors and other European settlers were the prime targets. In the conflict which followed, Ahmed's tribesman army defeated a eleven-thousand strong combined British and Egyptian army, and drove the British out of South Egypt. Thousands of whites fled south to the town of Khartoum, cut off from the main British force far to the north in North Egypt. The British then sent their best man to lead the evacuation: Major General Charles Gordon.

Gordon arrived at Khartoum on February 18, 1884, and managed to secure the evacuation by boat, down the Nile, of two thousand white women and children and six hundred soldiers to northern Egypt out of a total garrison of fifteen thousand. Before Gordon could complete his task, Khartoum was besieged by the mixed-race Arabs. The Arab forces attacked, and in the first engagement they captured eight British boats, killing over one hundred British soldiers in the fight. Retreat down the river became impossible for the Khartoum garrison and the siege began. A successful counterattack—led by Gordon's nonwhite officers—saw the Arab lines broken, and they were in full-scale retreat when Hassan and Seid Pashas, Gordon's two leading nonwhite generals, rode after the Arab force and called them back. At the critical point, the nonwhite troops upon which Gordon had relied, switched sides. The siege of Khartoum resumed, and Gordon was considerably weakened, left with no choice but to wait it out behind the town's stockade and hope for a promised British relief column.

The Arabs closed round the city center at the end of April, and Gordon surrounded himself with a barrier of land mines (a device he invented in Khartoum) and a barbed wire stockade. In desperation, Gordon sent out Negroes to entice the slaves of the Arabs to come over, promising them freedom and rations.

Gordon's messages out were written on tissue paper, no bigger than postage stamps, and concealed in quills thrust into the hair, or sewn in the waistbands the native runners wore as they slipped past the Arab lines. On December 14, 1884, one of these letters was received by a good friend of Gordon's in Cairo. It read: "Farewell. You will never hear from me again. I fear that there will be treachery in the garrison, and all will be over by Christmas."



One of Gordon's notes, written in his own had in Arabic, it reads as follows: "Mudir of Dongola Khartoum and Senaar, in perfect security Mahamed Ahmed carries this to give you news. On his reaching you give him all the news as to the direction and position of the relieving force and their numbers. As for Khartoum there are in it 8,000 men and the Nile is rapidly rising. On arrival of the bearer give him 100 reals mejide'h from the States, C G Gordon."

Gordon was right: his positions were betrayed by his Arab lieutenant, Faraz Pasha, who opened the gates of the defenses to the enemy during the night of January 26, 1885. When Gordon awoke to find all of Khartoum had fallen, he set out with a few followers for the Austrian consulate to try and hide. Before he got there, he was recognized, and set upon by a mob.

After he had been shot, Gordon was decapitated and his head paraded around the town on a stick by the victorious Arabs.

Only two days later, the promised English relief army reached Khartoum, too late to save the garrison and its valiant leader. Gordon's last diary entry makes poignant reading: "December 14 — 11.30 A.M. Steamers returned; the Bordeen was struck by a shell in her battery; we had only one man wounded. We are going to send down the Bordeen tomorrow with this journal. If I was in command of the two hundred men of the Expeditionary Force, which are all that are necessary for the movement, I should stop just below Halfeyeh, and attack the Arabs at that place before I came on here to Khartoum. I should then communicate with the North Fort, and act according to circumstances. Now mark this, if the Expeditionary Force, and I ask for no more than two hundred men, does not come in ten days, the town may fall; and I have done my best for the honour of our country. Good bye. C. G. Gordon.”

CHAPTER 46: The Well of Bibighar—the British in India

The Age of Exploration and the "discovery" of India by European explorers in the fifteenth century set into motion a momentous series of events which boosted the development of that nation and provided a textbook case study on the moral and practical impossibility of minority rule.

The story of the British colonial experiment in India, therefore, serves as an example of the founding principle of this book, namely the iron law of demographics. Those who form the majority population in a given territory will ultimately determine the nature of the society and civilization in that region, no matter how powerful the ruling minority might appear.

Portuguese, Dutch, and British Start Trade with India

The Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama was the first white explorer to reach India by sea. Da Gama threw anchor in the harbor of Calicut in May 1498, established friendly relations with the local Indian ruler, and secured a monopoly on Indian trade for Portugal which lasted for a century.

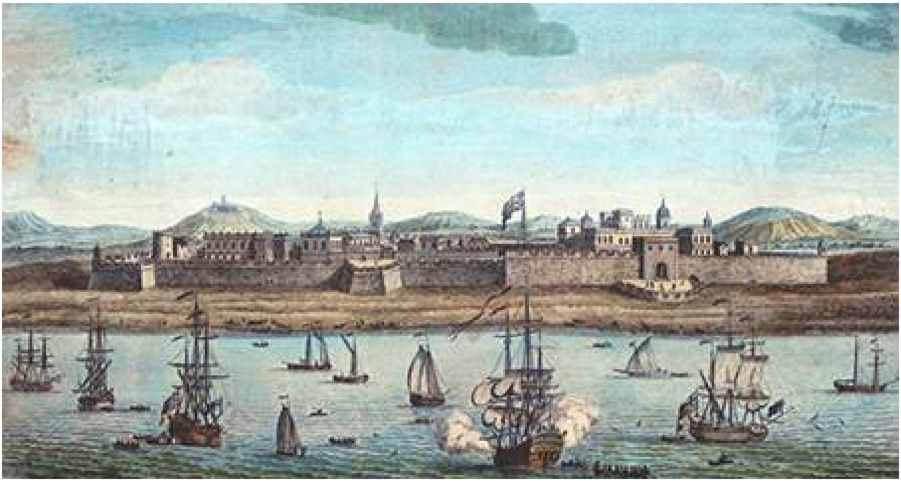
The wealth which this trade generated boosted Portugal's economy and status in Europe, a situation which was only undone by the importation of slaves and the resultant problems which their absorption caused, as outlined in an earlier section of this work. As a result, the Dutch East India Company replaced Portugal by the early seventeenth century as the main trading nation with India.

The British were the third main European power to establish trading links with India, operating through a private firm known as the English East India Company which established a trading station at Surat in 1612. This proved too much for the Portuguese. Tensions increased until a Portuguese fleet attacked a number of British ships off the Indian coast in November 1619. Although the Portuguese attack was defeated, several more skirmishes took place until the British managed to replace the Portuguese as the dominant trading partner with India.

The Dutch, already entrenched in Indonesia, also launched a military attempt to drive the British out. This failed as well, and by

1700, Britain had established itself as the preeminent European trading nation in the Far East.

BRITISH FOUND CITIES OF MADRAS AND CALCUTTA



Francis Day, an officer of the English East India Company, was sent in 1683 to India to select a site for the company's headquarters. He purchased a tract of land from the Raj of Chandragiri and proceeded to build a factory and fort on the five-mile-long strip. Day called it Fort St. George, named after the English patron saint. From this settlement grew the present-day Indian city of Madras.

Indian Cities of Madras and Calcutta Established by the British

The English East India Company (known as the British East India Company after the union of England and Scotland) continued to expand its interests in India. This was achieved by entering into treaties and alliances with local Indian rulers, who benefited greatly from the introduction of white technology and infrastructure.

The British established a base in Orissa in 1633, founded the city of Madras (now known as Chennai) in 1639, obtained trading privileges in Bengal in 1651, acquired Bombay (now known as Mumbai) from Portugal in 1661, and established Calcutta in 1690.

French Seize Madras in 1746

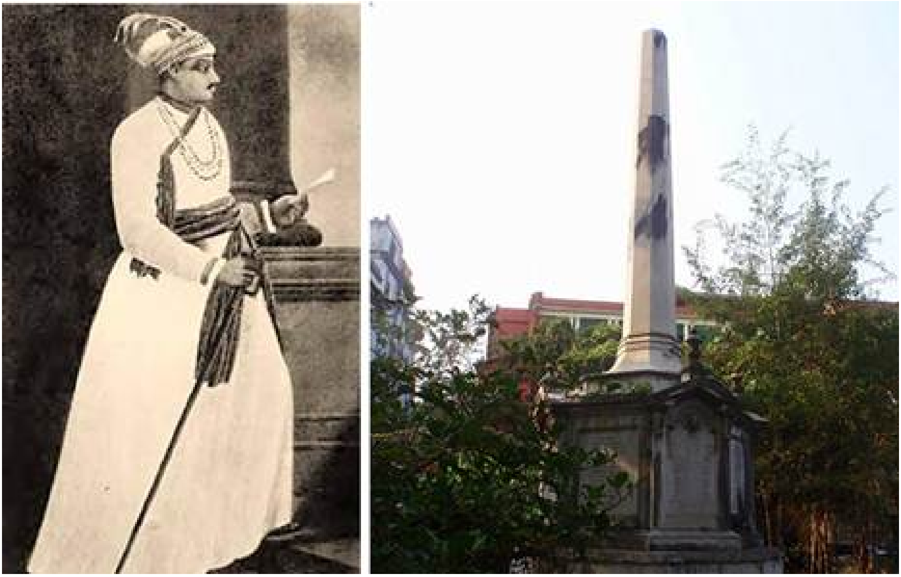
During the first half of the eighteenth century, the French, who had been sending intermittent missions to India since 1675, also started establishing permanent bases in the Far East. The ongoing wars in Europe between Britain and France and, in particular, the War of the Austrian Succession, fought from 1740 to 1748, resulted in French forces attacking and seizing the British-founded Indian town of Madras in 1746. The town was returned to the British at the end of the war in Europe, but the conflict set the stage for a major British push into India.

The outbreak of the Seven Years' War in 1756, fought between the British, French, Spanish, Prussians, and Austrians, over rivalry in trade, colonies, and territory, saw renewed clashes in the Far East as well. The French had entered into alliances with a number of Indian princes before the conflict erupted which took the British by surprise when hostilities erupted.

The Black Hole of Calcutta

One of the Indian rulers who formed an alliance with the French was Newab of Bengal, who captured the town of Calcutta from the British on June 30, 1756. The tiny British garrison of 146 men surrendered after being promised safe passage out of the town. However, Newab forced the prisoners into a tiny underground dungeon, where all but 23 of them died overnight of suffocation. The terrible event became known as the "Black Hole of Calcutta."

THE BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA



Left: Suraj Ud Daulah, the Indian Nawab whose name lives on as the perpetrator of the 1756 atrocity known as the Black Hole of Calcutta. Some 147 British men, women, and children were forced into a cramped *underground cellar overnight after being captured. Only 23 were still alive the next morning, the rest having suffocated to death. Right: The memorial which used to stand at the site where the incident took place.*

Robert Clive Conquers Indians

An employee of the British East India Company, Robert Clive, then took control of the British forces. Under his leadership, a small British force defeated a numerically superior combined French and Indian army at the decisive Battle of Plessey (1757).

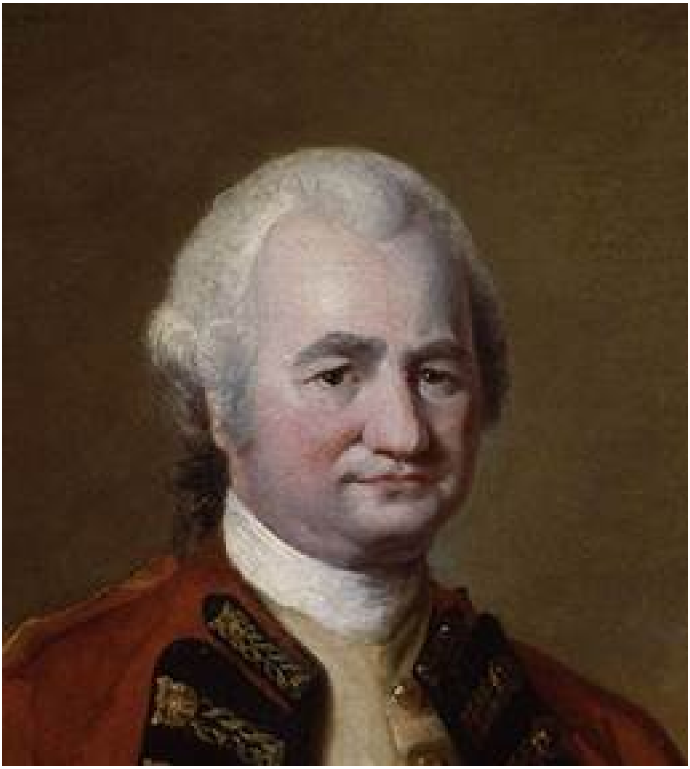
Clive's victory laid the foundation for nearly two hundred years of British rule over India, extended through military conquest or by the acquiescence of Indian princes.

British Government Intervenes

The British parliament, rightly concerned that a private company was now effectively running a country of millions, enacted laws in 1773 and 1784 which gave the government the right to appoint governors and determine policies followed by the British East India Company.

This system of dual control lasted until 1858, when in the aftermath of the Sepoy Rebellion, the British government took complete control of the country, only relinquishing it in 1947 when India was granted independence.

CLIVE OF INDIA



Robert Clive (1725–1774), the founder of the British Empire in India. He served in the British army against the French in India and won many victories, but is most remembered for the Battle of Plessey in 1757 at which he defeated an Indian army from Bengal. Clive's victory at that battle was made all the more remarkable because he defeated a sixty thousand-strong Indian army with only one thousand white soldiers and two thousand Indians recruited to the British side. After that battle, Britain became the dominant force on the Indian subcontinent. Clive became immensely wealthy due to his exploits, but suffered from depression and committed suicide in London in 1774.

British Build Infrastructure

Thousands of British men and women went to India, not to establish permanent settlements but to run the "Raj" or Empire in India, and to drag India into the modern technological age. As a result, in a very short space of time, India was completely transformed.

The white rulers built railway lines, telegraph wires, bridges, roads, irrigation systems, postal services, the first Indian schools, and almost all other essential infrastructure on the subcontinent.

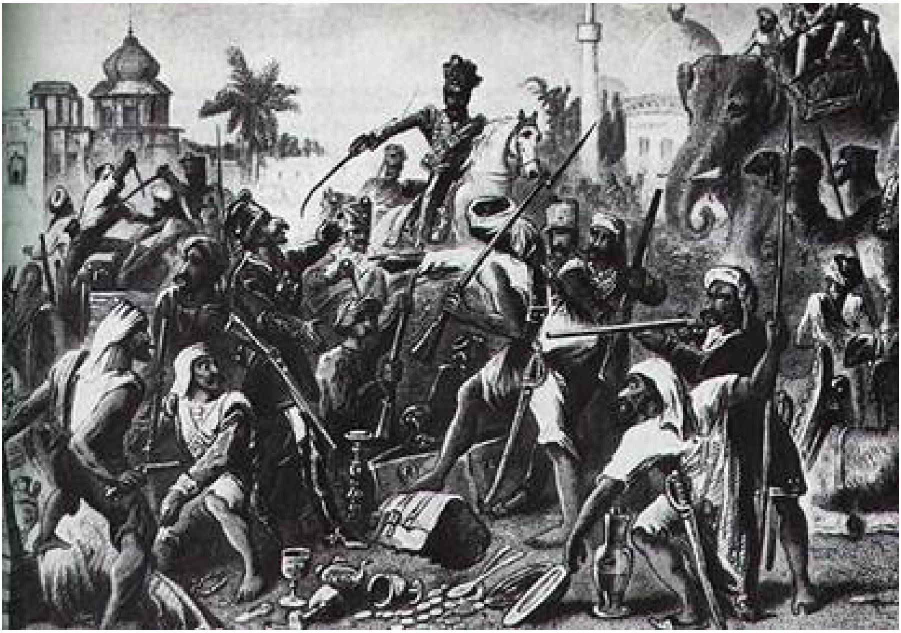
The British also transformed India on a social level. The introduction of a Western-style police force and judicial system helped stamp out the practice of suttee (in which widows were burned alive on the funeral pyres of their deceased husbands), the murder of female children, and slavery, which was rampant in certain parts of India.

In addition, the British authorities also managed to break the centuries-old criminal mafia in India, called the Thuggees. These criminals had plagued Indian society with their murderous activities, and it was only through the introduction of modern policing methods by Superintendent William Sleeman that it was brought to a halt. The English word “thug” is derived from this time.

British Recruit Indian Sepoys as Military Auxiliaries

The British, like the Romans before them, used natives in their armed forces. Indian volunteers in the British-run army were known as Sepoys and were divided into three major groups: the Bengal Army stationed in Delhi, the Bombay Army, and the Madras Army, the last two stationed in the towns bearing their names. By 1857, the Sepoys in the Bengal Army numbered 150,000. At that stage there were around 23,000 white British troops in India scattered all over the subcontinent.

BRITISH PAY PRICE FOR ARMING INDIAN SERVANTS



Sepoy Indians seized British weapons and supplies after overrunning a white position during the 1857 mutiny. The British were to pay dearly for their practice of using Indians as regular soldiers when these "loyal Indians" turned on their masters in 1857.

Sikh Resistance to British Rule

In 1845, Sikhs in the Punjab attacked isolated British outposts and inflicted heavy casualties before they were driven off. Two years later, Sikhs attacked British outposts at Chillianwala. A large number of Sepoys and white officers were killed in the attacks, but the Sikhs were decisively beaten by 1849.

Sepoys Object to Grease on Ammunition Packs

In January 1857, a rumor spread through the Sepoys in the Bengal Army that new ammunition issued to them had been packed in grease which had been derived from cattle and pigs. Standard operating procedure at the time was for the soldiers to tear open these packs in order to access the ammunition.

Under combat conditions, the soldiers had been taught to tear open the packs with their teeth. This contravened the religious dictates of Hindus and Muslims alike, to whom cattle and pigs were sacred and not to be eaten.

In May 1857, eighty-five Sepoys were placed under arrest by their white officers for refusing to open their ammunition packs. This act of defiance soon spread through almost the entire Bengal Army.

Soon the British officers had a racial rebellion on their hands, made more serious by the fact that for once the Indians were armed with the latest weaponry—including cannons—which they had seized from their barracks. The uprising became known as the "Devil's Wind" or the Indian Mutiny of 1857.

Whites Massacred in Delhi

Thousands of Sepoys launched an attack on the British army outposts in Delhi and killed hundreds of white soldiers, their wives, and children, often with the active assistance of formally loyal Indian servants. Within a day, the entire city was in Sepoy hands. British soldiers and their families who survived the initial onslaught took refuge in a number of fortified emplacements around Delhi. One British detachment managed to take control of the main army's ammunition dump inside the city with the intention of keeping it out of the rebels' hands.

The Sepoys then launched a determined assault on the armory and, as it was about to fall, the British defenders blew up the ammunition stack. Although the massive blast was heard one hundred miles away, and hundreds of Sepoys were killed, the British defenders only lost three men in the engagement and the rest managed to escape in the resultant confusion to a British-held fort to the north of the city.

SCENE OF THE MASSACRE ON THE GANGES RIVER

After the Cawnpore magazine was taken by Indian mutineers on Jun 25, 1857, some four hundred whites surrendered and were taken prisoner. Two days later they were marched down to the Ganges River, where they were told that they were going to be released and sent away on boats. It was a ruse: on the banks of the river, the Indians opened fire on the crowd, killing all but 3 men, 73 women, and 124 children. The survivors were marched off to the Bibighar buildings where an even worse fate awaited them. This picture was taken in 1858, and was titled Slaughter Ghat, Cawnpore.

Whites Massacred in Jhansi

Anti-white massacres and riots spread throughout north-central India over the following weeks, with the isolated white detachments being slaughtered in an uncompromising racial war. One of the most notable of these massacres took place in the tiny kingdom of Jhansi in June 1857.

Jhansi had been annexed by the British four years earlier when the local king had died, and now his widow took her revenge. All the whites in the kingdom were stabbed and clubbed to death, the women being left for last so that they were forced to watch their men and children being killed.

Whites Captured at Cawnpore

The Sepoy rebellion also spread to Cawnpore and Lucknow, both in the state of Oudh. In Cawnpore, some one thousand white British soldiers, along with their wives and children, took refuge from the nonwhite mobs in a fortified magazine in the city near the Ganges River. There they bedded down in the hope of a relief column which they had been promised from other British outposts.

The Sepoys laid siege to the Cawnpore magazine for twenty days. When their water ran out, the defenders were forced to surrender on June 25, 1857.

The survivors, now numbering 400, were promised safe conduct out of the city. They were taken to the Ganges, where a number of boats had been drawn up to carry them away. It was, however, a ruse. As soon as they reached the river the Sepoys opened fire, and 200 were killed, leaving only three men, 73 women, and 124 children alive.

The survivors were taken prisoner by the Sepoys and locked up in a part of the emplacement buildings known as the Bibighar. By this time it was clear that the original excuse for the uprising (the alleged animal grease on the ammunition packs) no longer mattered to the Sepoys, as they willingly used the bullets to kill as many British people as possible.

Whites Massacred at the Cawnpore Bibighar

On July 15, 1857, the three surviving white men were dragged out of the Bibighar and shot before a large crowd of Indians who had clambered onto the walls of the compound.

The Indians then returned for the women, but even though many were desperately sick with disease, they put up a fierce struggle. An eyewitness account, made during the course of a later British investigation into the events at the Bibighar, relates what happened next:

The double doors at the end of the courtyard were flung open again *and the ladies ordered out. But they refused to move and tightened their grips on the verandah pillars and on each others' arms and waists, trying to keep from crushing their weeping children underfoot. The Sepoys declared it impossible to separate them or drag them out of the building and backed out of the yard.*

Someone suggested that they secure the doors from the inside, and several women ran over and tearing strips of cloth from their gowns, frantically bound the door handles together. A few ladies raised their quaking voices in a hymn. Now the jemadar [senior Indian officer] *ordered his men to stand outside the doors and windows on one side. At a signal from the jemadar, his men thrust the barrels of their muskets through the window shutters along the one wall.*

With a great cry the women and children tried to move across the courtyard to the far verandah and seek cover behind the pillars and the tree, but there was hardly any room. The courtyard was only sixteen feet wide, the verandah five feet and the long room ten feet, so most managed only to compress themselves up towards the opposite verandah, while the remainder, including some of the sick and orphaned children, crouched helplessly on the courtyard ground.

Twenty Sepoys aimed their muskets into this wave of bodies and opened fire at point blank range. The first volley pared some of the foremost layer of women and children away, and may have wounded a few beyond.

The Sepoys backed away from the smoking windows and a second squad moved in to take their places.

By now many of the survivors of the two volleys had probably found cover in the sleeping rooms beyond the pillars. A little before sunset Sarvur Khan [one of the rebels] *appeared, trailing four companions, each with a tulwar* [scimitar] *in his hand.*

Two of his recruits were aproned Moslem butchers; both tall, one dark, pockmarked and stout. The other two appeared to be of low caste. As they approached, the onlookers resumed their places along the compound wall.

Inside, some of the women dragged the dead to one side and tried to tend to the wounded. A few soldiers' wives and daughters were determined to fight.

Now they could hear the bolt sliding back. Someone heaved against the doors and the cloth strips between the handles began to strain and *break. The doors burst open and slapped against the walls.*

Stepping out from under the dark shadow of the mulsuri tree, the burra memsahib [the senior white woman] *opened her mouth to speak. Sarvur Khan felled her with one stroke. Fearful shrieks rose from the courtyard.*

Closing the doors behind them, the five men fanned out and worked their way forward, slashing at the straggling wounded crawling along the floor.

From behind a pillar Mrs. Jacobi suddenly lunged forward and knocked one of them down with one blow [but] *his comrades came to his rescue.*

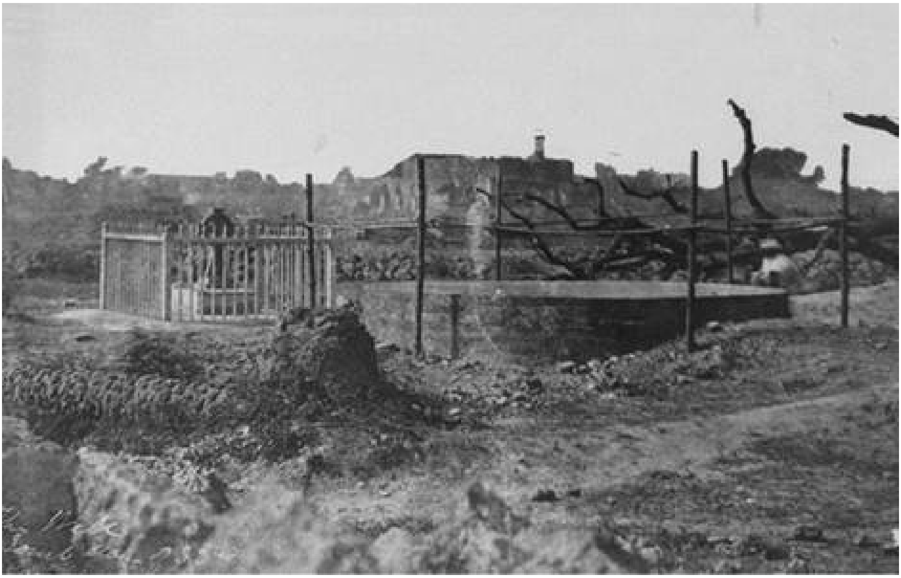
First they hung her daughter Lucy on a hook by her chin and then silenced her mother by cutting her throat. They knew that stabbing was inefficient, that hacking at their victim's necks would be the quickest way of accomplishing their mission.

If the ladies protected their necks with their arms, then their arms would simply be severed as well; the effect was the same, they would bleed to death. Slashing right and left at all who were standing, chopping downward at the fallen with their heavy blades, the five proceeded methodically, spreading a pool of blood. Others tried to dodge the men's swords by ducking into the doorways and around the pillars, and so often did Sarvur Khan strike the walls that he broke two swords and twice emerged to fetch new weapons from his fellows.

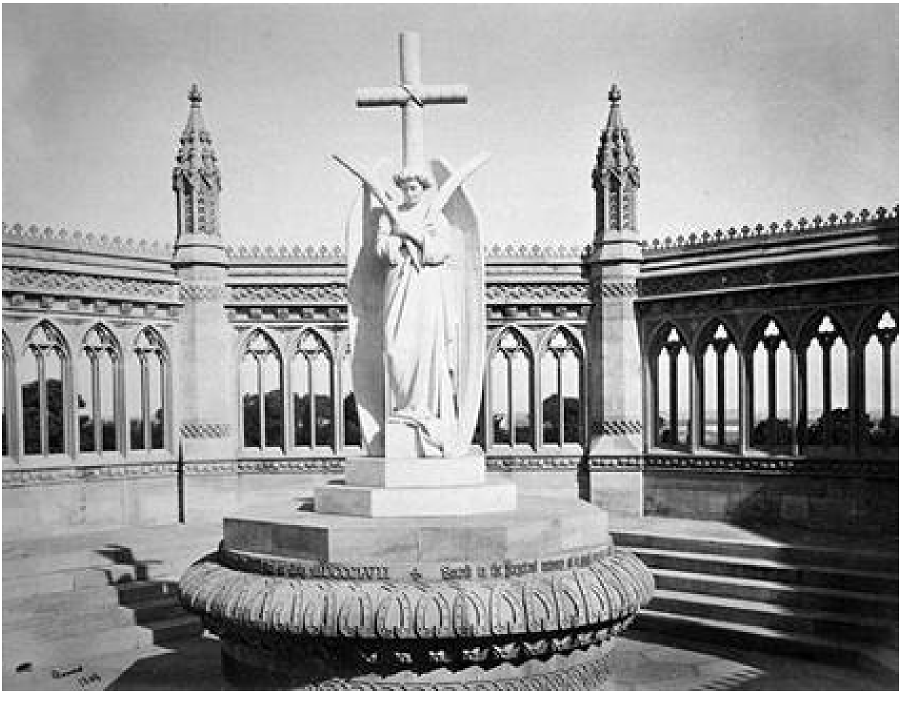
Though the shutters of the doors and window remained open, none of the women or children tried to escape out of the building, surrounded as it was by Sepoys and Indian onlookers.

The few defiant boys were cut down quickly, as was every child who tried to make a run for it through the phalanx of swordsmen. Mothers kept pulling their children close to them and pushing them back into the corners of the building, and in the sweltering heat and the crush of bodies, children suffocated to death under their dying mothers' skirts. It took something less than an hour for the chorus of wailing to die away to a few individual voices, and even these were stilled. Mrs. Probett may have died in a counterattack, for her body, like Mrs. Jacobi's, was left that evening tied to a pillar.

SEVENTY-THREE WHITE WOMEN AND 124 WHITE CHILDREN MURDERED AND THROWN DOWN THE WELL AT THE BIBIGHAR



Scenes from the massacre at Cawnpore. Above: the well into which the bodies of the women and children were thrown after being murdered. The building in which the massacre took place is in the background. This picture was taken shortly after the event. Below: the monument which was later built over the well, as pictured in 1860. The monument was later moved by the Indian government.



The Well of Bibighar

By the morning of July 16, 1857, news of the previous day's massacre had spread through the entire city of Cawnpore, and thousands of Indians assembled to view the carnage. The eyewitness account continued:

Around eight in the morning the crowd parted to make way for a burial party of scavengers. By now they were masters of this sort of thing.

[They] *had already amassed a small fortune from the plunder and disposal of English bodies at Sati Chowra and Savada House* [where the white men of Cawnpore had been executed] *but the mission today was unusual: the bodies were not to be dumped into the Ganges this time but down an irrigation well some forty feet south of the Bibighar.*

The cavity of the well was nine feet wide and fifty feet deep; three steps led up to the rim. The veteran scavengers set to work, dragging the uppermost bodies out.

But suddenly, stepping into one of the sleeping chambers, [they] *made an alarming discovery: three or four of the ladies and perhaps as many children sitting huddled in the shadows, still alive after a night of lying on the floor saturated with the blood of their late friends and companions and surrounded by their mangled bodies.*

The burial squad backed away and hurried off to the Old Cawnpore Hotel [rebel headquarters] *for further instructions.* [When they] *returned, two of the women rushed past, stumbling over the low sill of a side window and running into the yard.*

They lunged straight to the lip of the well and jumped in, one after the other, falling some fifty feet to the bottom.

The children, all aged between five and six years, followed the women out into the courtyard but only ran around the well. Where else could they go?

At first they were chased but the shrieking children eluded them. They decided to let the children run themselves out while they went about their business.

They brought out the bodies of the dead and near dead, grabbing many of them by the hair and dragging them through the grass. Those whose clothes were worth taking were stripped before they were rolled over the rim [of the well].

Several severely wounded women were still breathing when they were dragged out. Three could even speak. As the burial party continued to drag corpse after corpse through the bloody grass and dump them into the depths of the well, it became obvious that at this rate not all the dead were going to fit in.

So they went to work, severing with their swords the stiffening limbs of the dead and tucking them into the interstices of the half choked well. At last came the time to dispose of the children [who] *kept running round until they at last were caught and flung alive into the well.*

Lucknow Holds out Until Relief Forces Arrive

The white garrison at Lucknow were also besieged, but, having taken great care in the drawing up their provisions, were able to hold out for four months until they were relieved by a British force from the south.

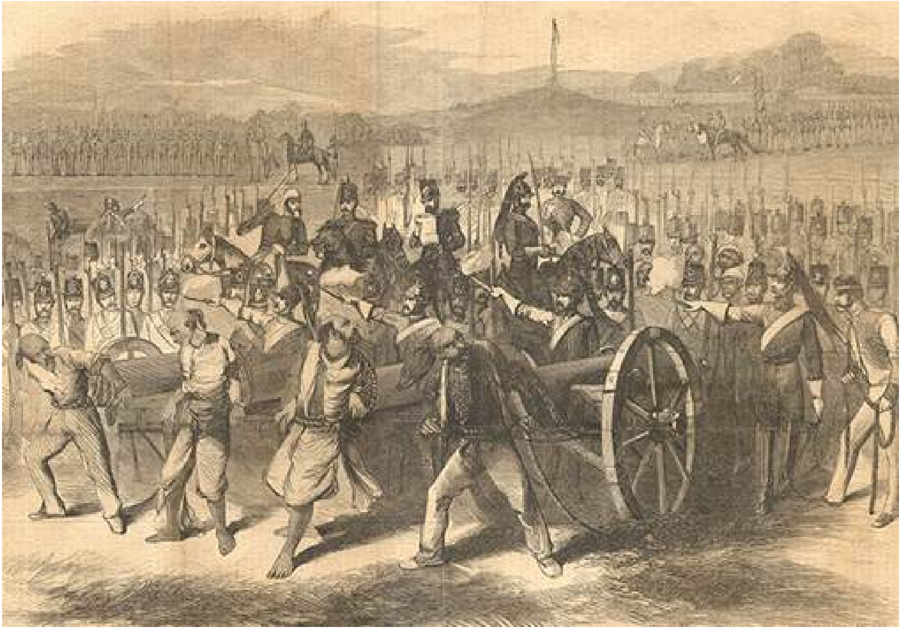
The British authorities had in the interim regrouped and drawn together a small but powerful column which raced north to relieve what they thought were the various encampments still holding out. Lucknow was relieved to much joy, but what they found at Cawnpore caused their hardest soldiers to break down and weep, particularly when messages scrawled in blood were found on the walls of the Bibighar, scribbled by the dying victims as last messages to their loved ones.

The massacre at the Bibighar turned British public opinion in Britain firmly against the rebellion, and reinforcements were sent to India which crushed the rebellion completely.

By June 1858, the last of the Sepoy rebels had been captured. Many were shot or hanged, but the leaders were publicly executed by being strapped to the barrels of cannons and blown to pieces.

The British covered up the well at Bibighar and erected a memorial on the spot. This memorial remained located over the well until Indian independence in 1947, when it was moved to the gardens of the Kanpur Memorial Church in Cawnpore.

BRITISH EXECUTE SEPOY REBEL LEADERS IN PUBLIC



The British made a public example of the Sepoy rebels by executing the leaders in public by blowing them apart, tied to the end of cannons. The lesser participants were shot by firing squad.

British Government Takes Control of India

The major result of the Sepoy Mutiny was that the British Parliament enacted legislation, termed the 1858 Act for the Better Government of India, which transferred the administration of India from the East India Company to the British government.

This constitutional shift was formalized in 1876 when the British Queen Victoria was proclaimed “empress of India,” although what the Indians thought of this was never recorded.

Indian Resistance Continues

Despite the suppression of the 1857 rebellion, Indian resistance to British rule continued in fits and starts. By the end of the nineteenth century, Indian nationalists had resorted to renewed armed attacks on whites in India as a means of exerting political pressure on the British to leave. The British authorities reacted with a series of repressive laws which served only to alienate even more Indians.

In 1909, the British tried to alleviate the growing demands for independence with constitutional reform, a move which only served to inflame demands for the end to all colonial rule.

The Amritsar Massacre

Indian unrest continued, and by 1919 waves of riots and disturbances reached such a level that the British authorities suspended all civil rights in a number of areas through a series of laws known as the Rowlatt Acts. A large protest by Indians turned violent in Amritsar, Punjab, in April 1919, and a local military unit, under the command of British officers, opened fire on the crowd. Over four hundred casualties were inflicted and the Amritsar massacre became a rallying point for the Indian nationalist movement against British rule.

Indian Independence in 1947—India Partitioned

Increasing unrest between Muslims and Hindus added further fuel to the fire, and Britain finally granted India complete independence in 1947, after it was split into Hindu and Muslim states.

In this way, Pakistan and Bangladesh were split from India, with the former two states being Muslim-dominated.

Large numbers of nationals from all three of these countries have subsequently emigrated to Europe, North America, and Australia, with consequences which are discussed in a later section of this work.

CHAPTER 47: Conquistadors—the White Conquest of Mexico and South America

The conquest of the Incas in South America and the Aztecs in North America is a tale of high drama, astonishing bravery, and staggering cruelty. It also provides a living example of how civilizations fall once their founding populations are dissipated through racial integration.

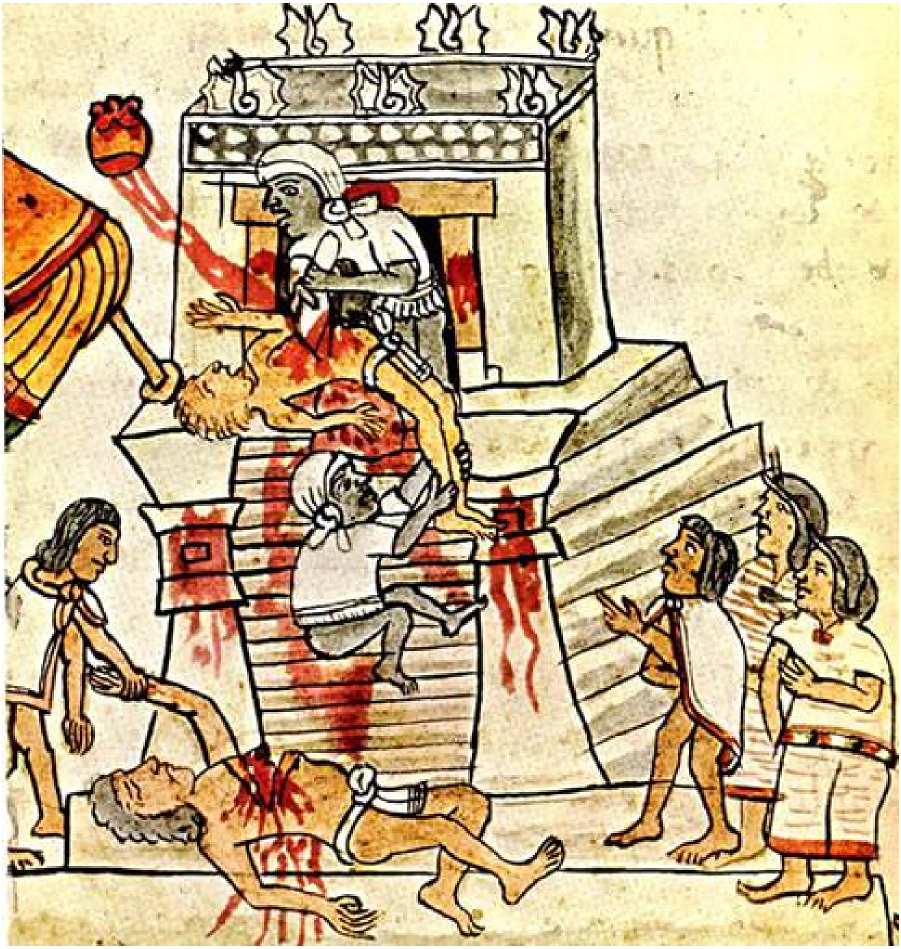
The collapse of the Inca and Aztec culture was not, as is so often claimed, caused by their military defeat at the hands of a tiny number of Spanish soldiers.

Rather, the dissolution of the Incan and Aztec cultures came about after large numbers of white settlers (mainly from Spain and Portugal) and imported black slaves intermarried with native people.

This process created a new mixed-race group which now dominates South America and Mexico, and was the primary cause of the large social, economic, and political gaps between North and South America.

The disappearance of the Inca and Aztec cultures is, therefore, a perfect example of how racial mixing can wipe out all traces of an original people, and consequently, all manifestations of their civilization.

HUMAN SACRIFICE APPALLS SPANISH EXPLORERS



The Spanish conquistadors were appalled by the human sacrifice and cannibalistic rituals employed by the Aztecs as part of their religion. These rituals, which saw the prisoner's heart ripped out of his or her chest while still beating, could involve thousands of victims at one session. The bodies would then routinely be eaten, with the palms of the hands being reserved for the emperor and the high priests (that part allegedly being the most tender and tastiest). A large number of Spanish soldiers who were captured by the Aztecs were murdered in this way, spurring their compatriots on to exact revenge.

The Legends of the White-Skinned Gods

At the time of the Spanish conquest of what later became Mexico, the Amerind Aztecs had created an empire which stretched from the Pacific Ocean to the Gulf of Mexico, and extended south to present-day Guatemala.

Their reign was cruel, and the other Amerind tribes lived in fear of them. This resulted in a large number of these subject tribes welcoming the arrival of the Spanish and some physically helping to defeat the Aztec armies.

The Aztec religion was one of the reasons why there was so much resentment among the Amerind tribes. It demanded daily human sacrifice and most of the victims were seized from the surrounding Amerind tribes.

This religion, however, also played a major role in destabilizing Aztec resistance to the white invaders. One of their gods was a plumed serpent named Quetzalcoatl, known as the god of wind and learning.

According to Aztec legend, Quetzalcoatl had been tricked and disgraced by another god, Tezcatlipoca, and then traveled to the east. He vowed to return and destroy those who worshipped his enemies, accompanied by all powerful white-skinned gods.

By the time of the Spanish assault in 1519, word of their arrival in the Caribbean Sea had traveled to the Aztecs. This triggered the widely held superstition that an angry Quetzalcoatl and his white-skinned gods had indeed returned to exact revenge. The fact that some of the Spanish soldiers had plumed helmets served to further fuel this belief. This created confusion among the Aztec leadership. Should they attack the newcomers, who might be the avenging gods, or should they try and appease them? This hesitancy allowed the Spanish to seize the military initiative.

*First White Expeditions into the Interio*r

The Spanish had established the first white settlements in South America with outposts in the Caribbean. Most prominent of these were the island of Cuba and the city of Santo Domingo (now the capital of the Dominican Republic). In 1517, the first expedition ended in disaster when the explorers went ashore on the present-day Mexican coast to seek water. They were ambushed by Amerinds and a full-scale battle followed at Champeton, during which almost half of the white explorers were killed and the survivors were forced to flee back to their base in Cuba.

In 1518, the Spaniards returned in greater force and a second battle of Champeton followed, this time ending with the Amerinds being defeated and fleeing into the forests after three days of fierce clashes.

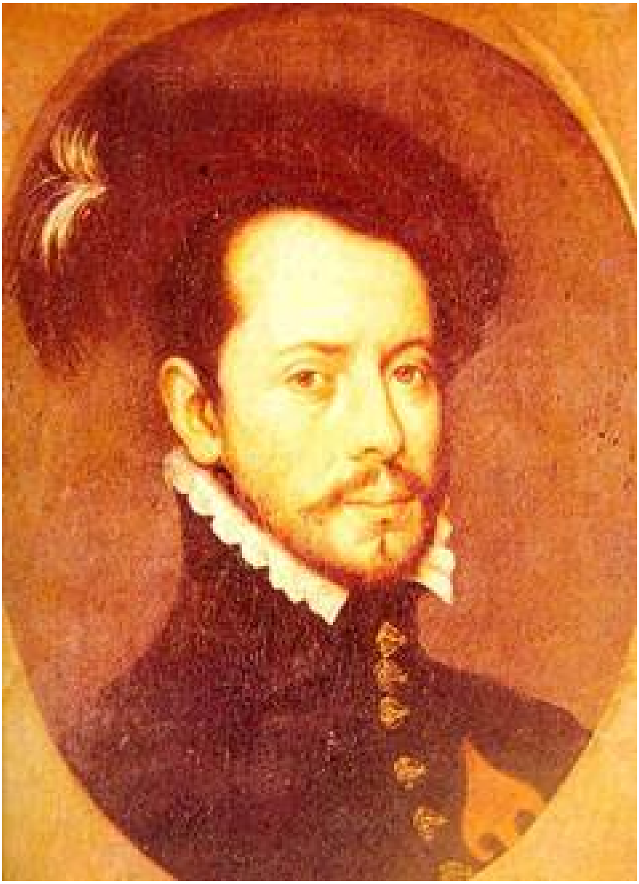
The expedition continued exploring the Gulf Coast, encountering further Amerind tribes who had suffered at the hands of the Aztecs. They were the first to tell the Spaniards about the all-powerful Aztec empire, centered around what is today Mexico City.

Montezuma II Tries to Buy off the White Invaders

The ruler of the Aztec empire at this time, Montezuma II, had received reports of the white explorers and, fearing the return of the angry gods, ordered his subjects along the coast to greet the foreigners, offer them a large feast and gifts of gold and jewelry—and then ask them to leave.

The result was that the second Spanish expedition returned to Cuba laden with riches and tales of a rich and powerful Amerind empire in the interior. Ironically, this only served to spur the Spaniards on to further explorations of the interior rather than departing as the Aztecs had hoped. A third expedition was formed under the explorer Hernán Cortés, who was to become the archetypal conquest leader, a "conquistador."

HERNÁN CORTÉS—MOST FAMOUS CONQUISTADOR WHO CONQUERED AZTECS



Hernán Cortés (1485–1547), the conquistador who conquered Mexico for Spain. Cortés took part in the Spanish conquest of Cuba in 1506 and was given land there as payment—but sold it to finance a new expedition into the mainland. In 1519, Cortés left Cuba with eleven ships, five hundred men, and fifteen horses, landing on the coast at the town he founded: Veracruz, which means "True Cross." Messengers from the Aztec emperor, Montezuma II, arrived bearing gifts, hoping to keep the bearded men (who looked like the avenging gods of Aztec legend) at bay.

This was a vain hope: after stupendous strug-gles, which saw the vastly outnumbered white force defeat huge Aztec armies numbering in the tens of thousands, Cortés conquered the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan, which was renamed Mexico City. Cortés, however, like many Spanish conquistadors, took several native women as mistresses, and had many children from those unions, some of whom accompanied their father back to Spain. Cortés died in 1547, a wealthy man.

Cortés Invades with Six Hundred Men

In 1519, Cortés and his men, numbering about six hundred in all, set sail with a few cannon and horses. A last-minute dispute with the Spanish governor saw Cortés's expedition officially canceled, but the explorer ignored the order and sailed anyway. The expedition paused briefly to pick up a half-black Spanish slave who had been captured by an Amerind tribe following an earlier shipwreck and then sailed west along the Gulf Coast. At the mouth of the Grijalva River, the expedition was attacked by a local tribe.

It was at this battle that Cortés realized the technological advantage which the white explorers possessed: steel armor, guns, and cannons were completely unknown to the Amerinds of Central America. In addition, horses filled the natives with terror, and many tribesmen fled at the very sight of a powerful charger.

Cortés Founds the City of Veracruz

Cortés sailed further north and established a settlement which he called La Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz, now known as the city of Veracruz. There he set up an independent government and renounced the authority of the governor of Cuba, pledging loyalty only to the Spanish crown. Then the white explorers burned their ships, ruling out the option of a quick return and turned their expedition into a do-or-die undertaking. Together with about five hundred men, Cortés marched into the interior in search of the Aztecs and their fabled city.

Tlaxcalans Defeated and Become Allies

The first Amerinds encountered by the expedition into the interior were the Tlaxcalan tribe. The Amerinds attacked the white interlopers and a two-week-long running battle erupted, during the course of which the natives suffered very heavy casualties. The Tlaxcalans surrendered and, motivated by their hatred of the Aztecs, became allies of the Spaniards against the Aztecs.

In October 1519, the Spanish and a few thousand of their Tlaxcalan allies marched into Cholula, an ancient city devoted to the god Quetzalcoatl. Cholulan priests and leaders welcomed the whites, but demanded that the Tlaxcalans camp outside the city.

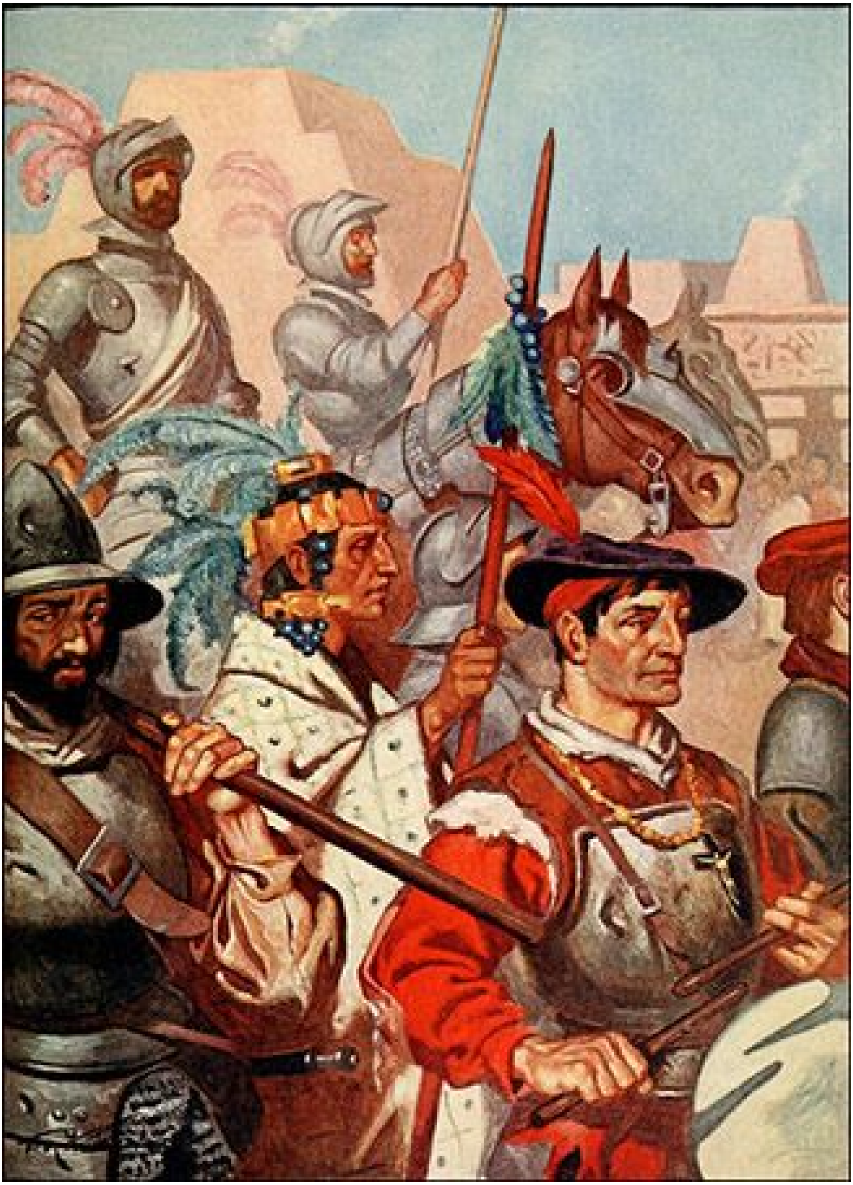
Battle of Cholula—Indians Defeated

After the Spanish had been in the city of Cholula for three days, an Indian informant told them of a plan to ambush and kill the whites when they were least expecting an attack. Cortés responded by summoning all the tribal leaders of Cholula to a meeting. Once they were assembled, Cortés ordered his men to seize the Indian chiefs and detain them in a prepared room in a house in the town.

This move left the Cholulan soldiers leaderless, and Cortés then ordered an attack on the Indian soldiers who were preparing for battle outside the town. The presence of the guns and horses won the day and it is estimated that some 3,000 of the city's residents were killed in the resulting Battle of Cholula, even though there were less than 450 Spaniards involved in the conflict.

News of the Spaniard's easy victory at Cholula reached the Aztec emperor Montezuma and persuaded him not to further resist the white interlopers.

CORTÉS MEETS AZTEC EMPEROR AT TENOCHTITLAN



Cortés enters the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan. Wary that the Spaniard was the avenging white god of Aztec legend, Montezuma tried his best to pacify Cortés. However, the Spaniards alienated the Aztecs by objecting to their religious habits, forbidding them to engage in human sacrifice and physically knocking down several of their idols. Eventually, tensions rose to the point where conflict broke out, which ended disastrously for the massively technologically inferior nonwhites.

Spanish Arrive at Aztec Capital, Tenochtitlan

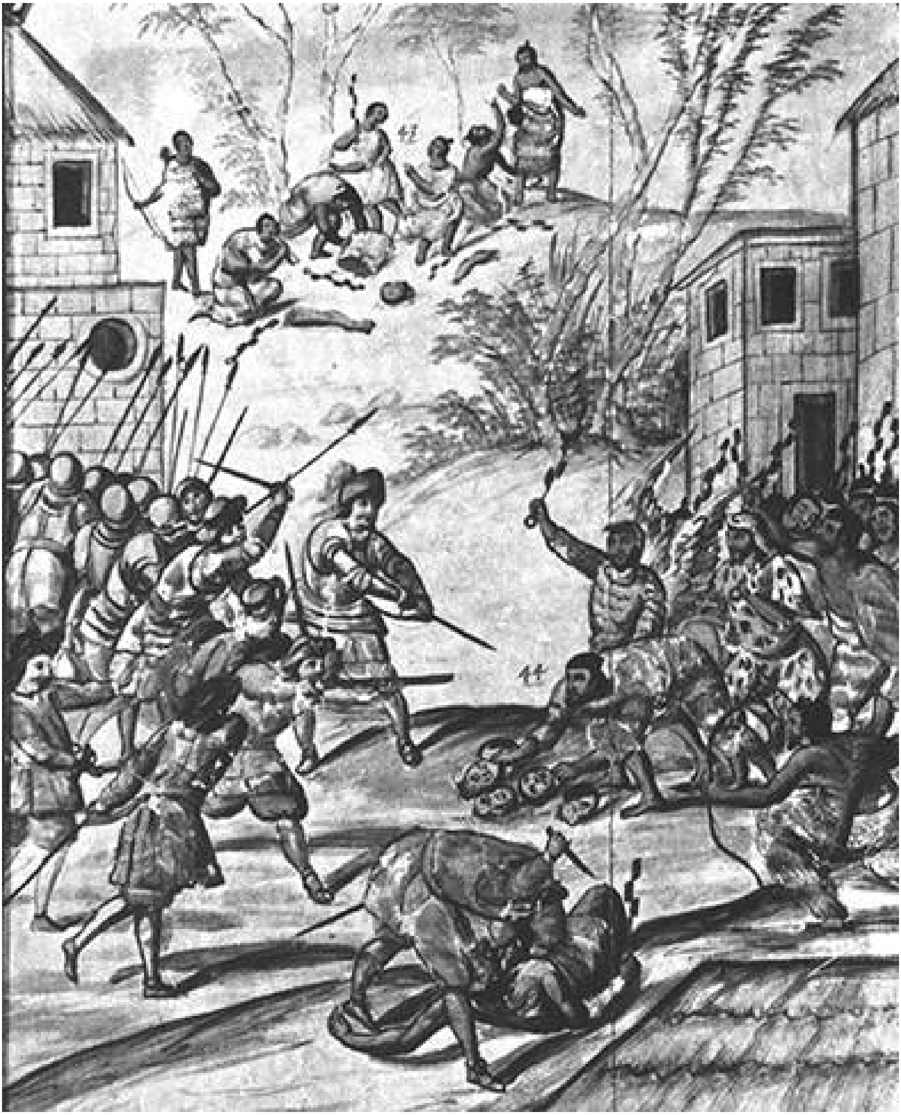
The conquistador force marched on the Aztec capital city, Tenochtitlan, and arrived there on November 8, 1519. Montezuma met Cortés outside the city walls and invited him and his army into the city.

The Spanish soldiers were accommodated in a large specially prepared building and were given free rein to roam the city, finding much of the promised gold readily available. The Aztecs let them pass unhindered, fearful of the revenge of the white-skinned gods. Despite the friendly reception, Cortés knew that sooner or later the Aztecs would rebel.

In an attempt to shore up his position (his force had dwindled to a few hundred whites, and ever decreasing numbers of Amerind allies, who were camped outside the city), he took Montezuma hostage and forced him to swear allegiance to the king of Spain and to provide a huge ransom in gold and jewels. In the interim, the Spanish governor of Cuba had sent an armed force to arrest Cortés for insubordination as punishment for refusing the order not to set sail.

In April 1520, Cortés received word in Tenochtitlan that a Spanish force had arrived on the coast with orders to arrest him. Leaving two hundred white soldiers at Tenochtitlan, Cortés marched with the remainder of his men to the coast and entered the Spanish camp at night. He arrested the expedition leader and by the sheer force of his personality (along with promises of gold and riches) induced the rest of the punitive expedition to join him in his conquest of the Aztecs.

AZTECS TAUNT SPANISH WITH RITUAL MURDERS



At the Battle of Cholula, the Spanish conquistadors defeated an Aztec army, but not without cost. Above, Spanish prisoners unfortunate enough to be captured by the Amerinds were eaten or decapitated, with their heads being thrown at the remaining Spanish soldiers.

Whites Besieged in Tenochtitlan

Meanwhile in Tenochtitlan, matters took a turn for the worse after a skirmish broke out between a small number of whites and some Aztec priests. The scuffle escalated into a full-scale battle and resulted in the deaths of several hundred Aztecs.

The killings broke the spell under which the Aztecs had been held. A mob of thousands besieged the building in which the Spaniards were housed and in which Montezuma was being held hostage. In the middle of the siege, Cortés returned to the city from his expedition to the coast.

Montezuma Stoned to Death

The Indians allowed Cortés and his men to enter the building, but as soon as they were inside, launched a new assault. After dozens of Aztecs were killed, Cortés persuaded Montezuma to address the crowds in an attempt to disperse them. The enraged crowd refused to obey and instead stoned their emperor, who died of his wounds three days later.

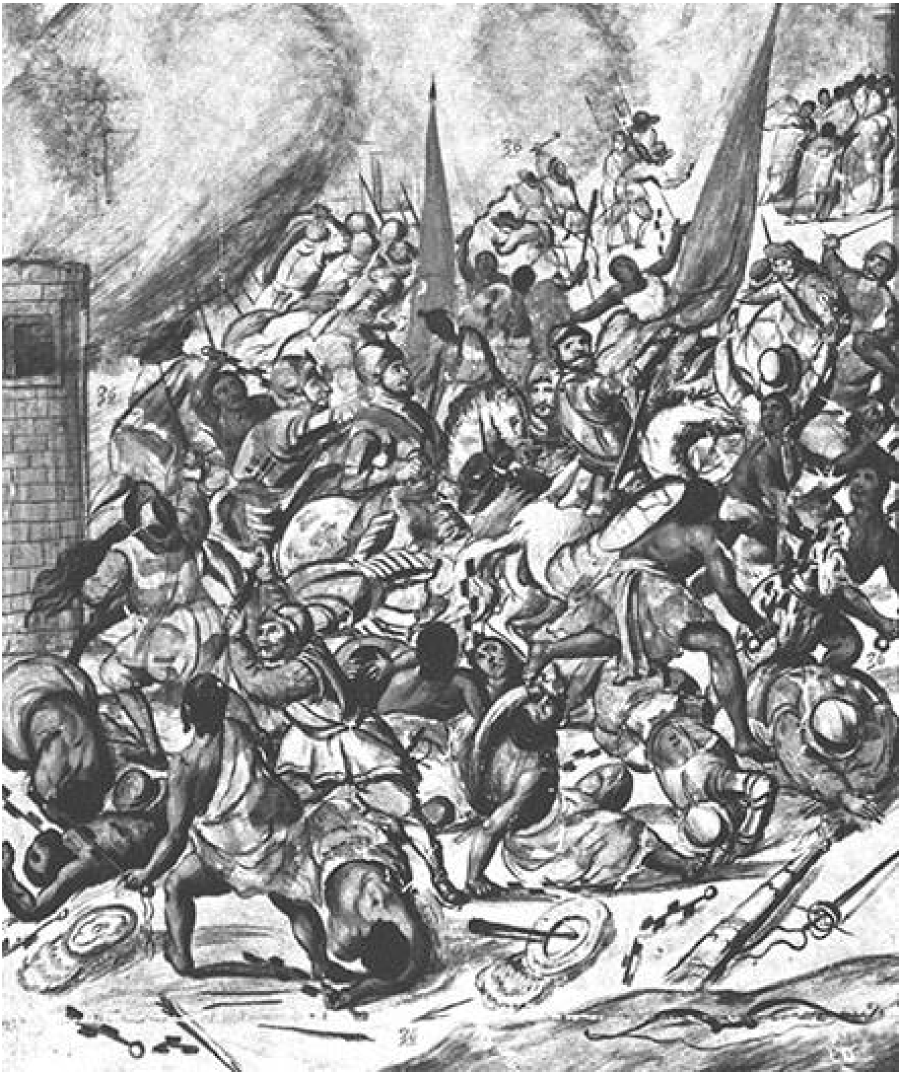
Besieged Whites Break Out

The Spaniards' situation became critical. Their supplies were not enough to last more than a few days, and Cortés decided that their only hope was to make a breakout back to their base camp.

On June 30, 1520, the Spaniards burst out of their besieged building and fought their way out of the city center. At first, the breakout seemed to be a success, but as they crossed a causeway outside the city (which was surrounded by waterways), they came under heavy and unexpected attack from thousands of Aztecs in canoes.

More than half the white soldiers were killed and all of their cannons were lost. In addition, most of the treasure which they were carrying was abandoned or lost in the lake and canals. The first white expedition into the Aztec capital had ended in disaster.

WHITES BREAK OUT FROM TENOCHTITLAN



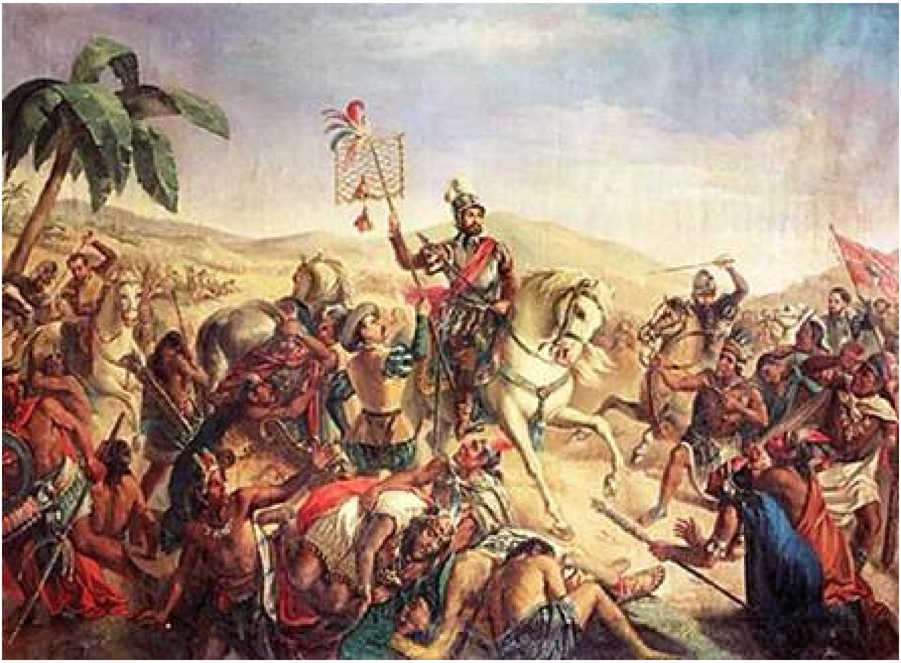
The conquistadors were besieged in a building in the middle of the city of Tenochtitlan after the Aztec emperor had been stoned to death by an angry crowd of his own people. The Spaniards' situation grew desperate, and on June 30, 1520, they broke out, fighting their way through the mob. When they reached the lake which surrounded the city, the Aztecs attacked from boats, killing more than half of the total Spaniard contingent.

Cortés Invades Again—Conquers Tenochtitlan

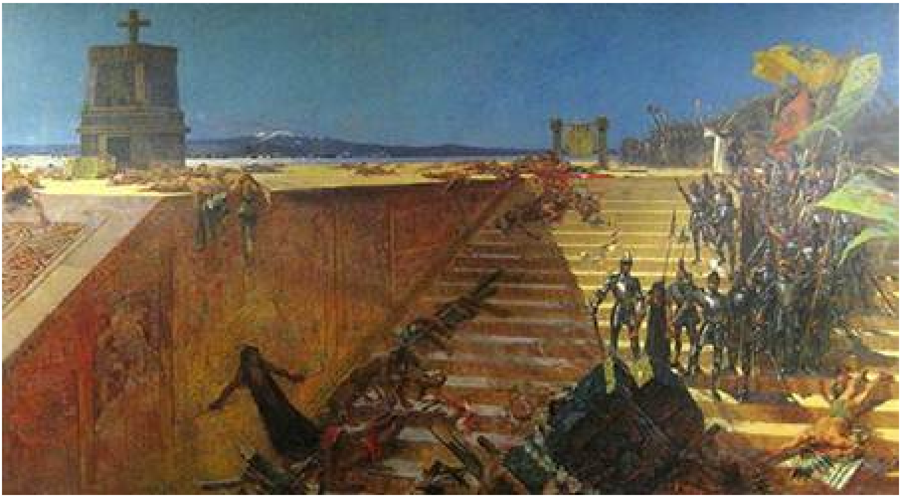
The Spanish survivors from the first failed expedition found refuge in territory controlled by their Tlaxcalan allies. Cortés immediately planned a new invasion and obtained supplies and reinforcements from Veracruz, which had in the interim been boosted by the arrival of new immigrants from Spain and Cuba.

Over the next few months, Cortés subdued many of the surrounding Aztec tribes before daring to approaching Tenochtitlan in May 1521. This time he laid siege to the city, using artillery mounted on ships specially constructed for the shallow waters of the surrounding rivers and lake. These cannon bombarded the city as the Spanish soldiers attacked the walled defences. According to Spanish accounts detailing the grimness of the attack and siege conditions, each night the Spanish soldiers could hear the screams from those unfortunate comrades who had been captured during the day's fighting, as they were sacrificed alive on the Great Pyramid in the center of the city.

CORTÉS KILLS AZTEC ARMY CHIEF, OTUMBA, 1520



After Cortés and his conquistadors were forced to flee the Aztec capital of Tenochtitlan, they attempted to return to Tlaxcala to regroup. On the way, they were confronted by a large Aztec army on the plain of the Otumba Valley. Despite being outnumbered once again, the Spanish were able to use their horses to destroy the Aztec army, whose soldiers had never before seen a cavalry charge. Cortés personally killed the Aztec commander and seized his personal standard, as illustrated above. The Aztec army broke up at this sight and retreated, which allowed the Spanish to reach Tlaxcala.



The last days of Tenochiltan. Spanish soldiers survey the dead who littered the streets of the Aztec city. Note the Christian cross erected on the raised platform on the left, placed there by the Spanish as symbol of their victory over the Aztec religion.

Meanwhile, famine, dysentery, and smallpox ravaged the Aztec defenders inside the city. Finally, on August 13, 1521, the new Aztec emperor was captured and Tenochtitlan fell. The accounts also mention that more than forty thousand decomposed bodies (most of whom had died of disease) littered the city streets and canals. The legend of the revenge of the white-skinned gods had come true after all.

Tenochtitlan Renamed Mexico City

The Spaniards proceeded to raze Tenochtitlan's buildings and built a new city in its place. This settlement came to be called Mexico City and is today the capital of Mexico.

Race and Social Class in Mexico

Although the Aztecs had been militarily defeated and their numbers had been thinned out by disease, they had not vanished. Instead, they were steadily absorbed into a racial mix created by the Spanish presence and the importation of black slaves from Africa, which together formed the basis for the present-day Mexican population.

It is this mixed-race group which in the present day is the source of the greatest number of legal and illegal immigrants into the white-created prosperity of North America. Those persons of part

Spanish and part Amerind race were called Mestizos, and by the year 1800, they were the single largest group in what was by then officially called Mexico.

Zambos—Mixed Amerind and Black Slave

Black slaves were first imported into Mexico during Cortés's time. By the dawn of the nineteenth century, around 200,000 had been brought over as part of the trans-Atlantic slave trade. A large number were absorbed into the already mixed-race population and those of mixed Amerind and black parentage became known as "Zambos." During the course of the nineteenth century, however, the majority of Zambos had in turn been absorbed into the Mestizos.

Caste System Emerges

As in ancient India, a class structure based on "whiteness" emerged in Mexican society, with the palest people forming the highest class, and the darkest forming the lowest class.

During the Spanish colonial period, Spaniards who came to the colony formed the upper class, and were called peninsulares. Most of them returned to Spain when their tour of duty was over.

Underneath the peninsulares were the criollos, or Creoles, people of part or full white extraction who had been born in the Americas. As time went on this group also became increasingly darker, until today the elite in Mexico represent the last of the whitest of this group. Below the criollos were the mestizos, followed by the blacks.

As also occurred in India, there was a constant striving to be racially reclassified. Many persons of mixed-race claimed white status, and during the eighteenth century the king of Spain enacted a legal procedure to pronounce on a person's whiteness upon payment of a fee. Such a pronouncement had huge ramifications for a person in the Spanish colonial hierarchy and could open up positions and offices barred to persons of mixed descent.

Because of the number of black slaves and the ever-increasing Mestizo population, colonial Mexico had numerous slave riots. A number of escaped slaves established settlements in rural parts of the country.

Mexican Independence Granted in 1821

The French occupation of Spain during the Napoleonic Wars in 1808 deepened divisions between the colony in Mexico, now called

"New Spain," and the fatherland. With Spain in disarray and under occupation, control over New Mexico broke down and a civil war between competing factions broke out. A small group of whites emerged as the dominating force and, after a decade of strained relations with Spain, Mexico was formally granted independence in 1821.

Race Wars with America

The extent of Mexico's borders at the time of independence stretched into the present-day American states of Texas and California. White settlers had started moving into the sparsely populated areas of Texas after 1820, and their increasing numbers led to Mexican unease that their territory was being colonized by the newly-emerged United States of America. In 1835, white settlers in Texas formally rebelled against Mexican rule.

The Mexican president, Santa Anna, personally led an army into the territory to quell the rebellion. The historic Battle of the Alamo followed in 1836, sparking off a war which ended in a Mexican defeat and the establishment of the state of Texas.

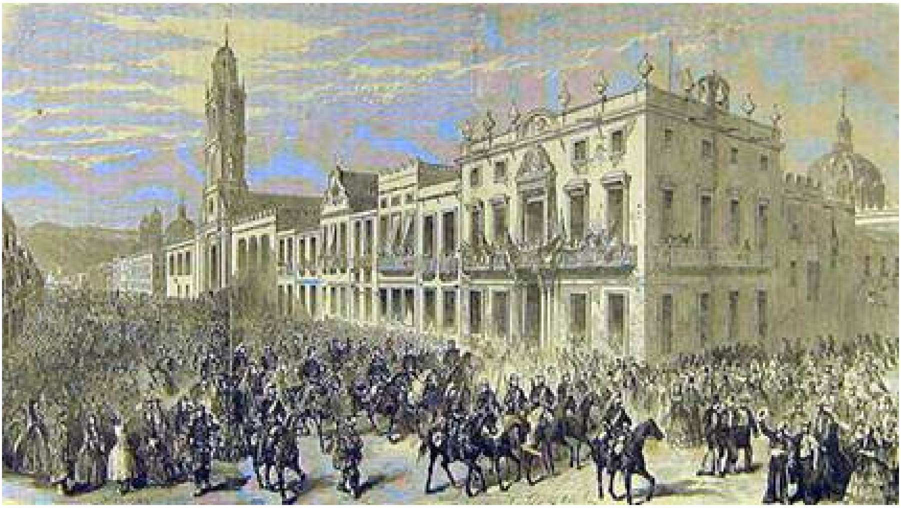
The conquering American army also occupied Mexico, with the capital of Mexico City being besieged and captured in an eerie replay of the first white capture of that city from the Aztecs in 1521.

The Last White Invasion of 1861

Thereafter Mexico was plunged into the usual bouts of political, social, and economic chaos which plague the Second and Third World. In 1861, a refusal by the Mexican government to pay off its foreign debts led to a new white occupation when France, Great Britain, and Spain intervened to protect their investments in Mexico.

The joint European military expedition captured Veracruz and seemed set to seize all of Mexico. However, when the French ambition to take over the government of Mexico became apparent, the British and Spanish withdrew from the expedition. The now isolated French army was attacked and defeated by a numerically superior Mexican force at Puebla in May 1862.

FRENCH INVASION OF MEXICO 1861–1867



The French army under Marshal Bazaine enters Mexico City, 1863. Originally proposed as a measure to protect Western interests in Mexico, Napoleon III of France persuaded England and Spain to support the adventure. However, when it became clear that Napoleon III actually wanted to annex Mexico, the two other European nations withdrew, leaving France to occupy the country. French rule came to an end in 1867 when the French ruler of Mexico, Maximilian, was executed after a successful uprising.

Napoleon III, then ruler of France, sent a huge army of thirty thousand men to Mexico to avenge the defeat and seize control of Mexico City, a feat which was accomplished in June 1863. The French installed a new government and declared Mexico to be an empire. Napoleon III offered the crown of Mexico to the Austrian archduke Maximilian, who accepted and became emperor of Mexico.

The French never managed to quell the entire country, and the Americans were unable to intervene because of their own civil war at the time. Events in Europe forced Napoleon III to withdraw his troops in 1867 and the short reign of Emperor Maximilian was ended with his arrest and execution by rebellious Mexicans in 1867.

In the present day, Mexico is important for two reasons:

- It is the source of the largest number of legal and illegal Third World immigrants into the United States; and

- It is also used as a launchpad for the drug trade into North America.

Spanish and Portuguese Voyages of Discovery to South

America

The South American mainland was first sighted by Christopher Columbus on August 1, 1498, during his third voyage. The next white explorer to reach that continent was the Portuguese navigator Pedro Cabral, who threw anchor off the coast of present-day Brazil in April 1500. Cabral claimed the land for Portugal, but his pronouncement was ignored by his countrymen for around three decades as they concentrated on establishing the sea route to India around Africa.

During this time of Portuguese indifference, the Spanish seized the initiative in South America. As a result, when Portugal finally expressed an interest in the continent, a dispute arose over which areas fell under Spanish or Portuguese influence.

The dispute was ultimately settled by the pope who, in 1493, drew up defined areas of influence for the two nations, using Cabral's claim as the benchmark. In time, the Portuguese territory became known as Brazil, hence the lingua franca of that country to this day is Portuguese, while most of the rest of the continent speaks Spanish.

The Incas—Most Advanced South American Indians

The Incas were, like the Aztecs in Mexico, the most advanced Amerind tribe in South America.

They built large cities of stone and created impressive works of art, yet, mysteriously, also appeared never to have had the wheel. This bizarre dichotomy has never been fully explained, and is an indicator of an ancient non-Amerind presence on the continent.

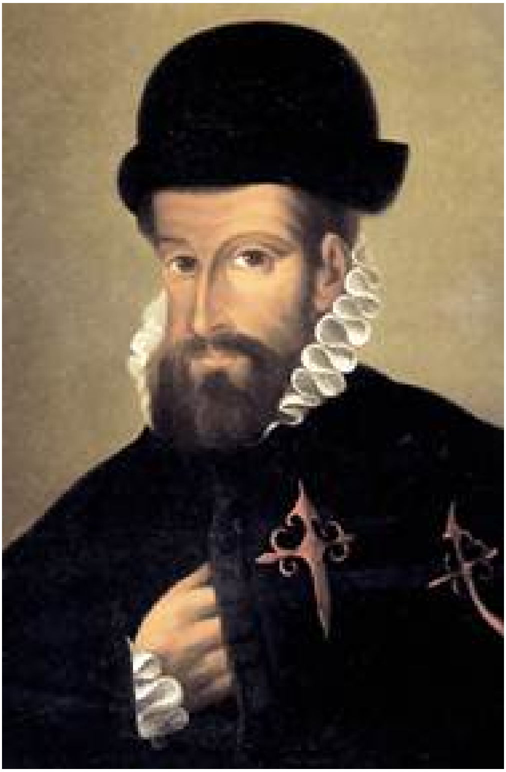
The marked difference in technological levels between South American Amerinds (who had sophisticated cities) and North American Amerinds (who, for the most part, were still living in animal skin tents and wearing loincloths) has also never been fully explained.

Germans Are the First Colonists

Until 1529, when a German, Bartholomeus Welser, led the first attempt at a white colony on the continent, white settlements in South America had been temporary, despite the Spanish and Portuguese explorations. Welser was granted territory in South America by the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V (also king of Spain) and he established a settlement in present-day Venezuela.

However, racial clashes with the natives occurred and after several massacres were committed by both sides, Welser's grant was revoked by the Church in an attempt to defuse the growing racial tensions.

PIZARRO—CONQUEROR OF THE INCAS



Francisco Pizarro (1475–1541), the Spanish conquistador, conqueror of the Inca Empire, and founder of the city of Lima. After taking part in the conquest of Hispaniola, he accompanied Vasco Núñez de Balboa's 1513 expedition which discovered the Pacific Ocean. In 1524, Pizarro launched the first of three missions to conquer the Incas of South America, an objective finally achieved in 1532. Pizarro did not live long to enjoy his fame or victory. He was murdered by fellow conquistadors during a bout of internal intrigue and bickering in 1541.

180 White Men Invade South America

The explorers' contact with the Amerind tribes in the coastal areas of South America had been enough to make the Spanish realize that the Inca civilization was advanced and possibly wealthy. As a result, the Spanish then pushed deep into the interior of South America.

In 1531, the conquistador Francisco Pizarro launched what became one of the greatest tales of adventure and conquest when he invaded the interior of South America with 180 white men and 62 horses. This tiny force defeated hundreds of thousands of natives living in the gold-rich Inca empire which covered the areas of present-day Peru, Chile, and Bolivia.

Eyewitness Account of the Defeat of the Incas

The Spanish account of the first defeat of the Incas and the capture of their emperor Atahualpa at the Battle of Cajamarca makes remarkable reading. The eyewitness accounts made by Pizarro's companions, including those of his brothers Hernando and Pedro, were sent back to Spain for the edification of the Spanish king and read as follows:

Our Spaniards, being few in number, never having more than 200 or 300 men together, and sometimes only 100 or fewer, have in our times, conquered more territory than has ever been known before. On reaching the entrance to Cajamarca, we saw the camp of Atahualpa at a distance of a league, in the skirts of the mountain. The Indians' camp looked like a very beautiful city.

Until this we had never seen anything like this in the Indies. It filled all our Spaniards with fear and confusion. But we could not show any fear or turn back, for if the Indians had sensed any weakness in us, even the Indians we were bringing with us as guides would have killed us. So we made a good show of spirits, and after carefully observing the town and tents, we descended into the valley and entered Cajamarca.

We talked a lot among ourselves about what to do. All of us were full of fear, because we were so few in number and we had penetrated so far into a land where we could not hope to receive reinforcements. Few of us slept that night, and we kept watch in the square of Cajamarca, looking at the campfires of the Indian army. It was a frightening sight. The governor's brother estimated the number of Indian soldiers there at 40,000, but he was telling a lie just to encourage us, for there were actually more than 80,000 Indians.

The Governor concealed his troops around the square at Cajamarca, dividing the cavalry into two portions . . . In like manner he divided the infantry . . . at the same time he ordered . . . three infantrymen with trumpets to a small fort in the plaza and to station themselves there with a small piece of artillery. When all the Indians and Atahualpa with them, had entered the plaza, the governor would give a signal to . . . fire the gun and the trumpets should sound, and at the sound of the trumpets the cavalry should dash out of the large court where they were waiting *hidden in readiness. At noon Atahualpa began to draw up his men and to approach. Soon we saw the entire plain full with Indians, halting periodically to wait for more Indians who kept filing out of the camp behind them.*

Atahualpa (came) . . . in a very fine litter with the ends of its timbers covered in silver. Eighty lords carried him on their shoulders . . . The litter was lined with parrot feathers of many colors and decorated with plates of gold and silver. These Indian squadrons began to enter the plaza to the accompaniment of great songs, and thus entering they occupied every part of the plaza.

In the meantime all of us Spaniards were waiting ready in a courtyard, full of fear. Many of us urinated without noticing it, out of sheer terror.

Governor Pizarro now sent Friar Vicente de Valverde to go to speak to Atahualpa, and to require Atahualpa in the name of God and of the king of Spain that Atahualpa subject himself to the law of our lord Jesus Christ and to the service of His Majesty the King of Spain.

Advancing with a cross in one hand and the Bible in another, and going among the Indian troops up to the place where Atahualpa was, the friar addressed him. Atahualpa asked for the book, that he might look at it, and the friar gave it to him closed. Atahualpa did not know how to open the book, and the friar, extended his arm to do so, when Atahualpa, in great anger, gave him a blow on the arm. Then he opened it himself, and with astonishment at the letters and paper he threw it away from him five or six paces, his face a deep crimson.

The friar then returned to Pizarro, shouting, 'Come out, Christians! Come at these enemy dogs who reject the things of God. That tyrant has thrown my book of holy law to the ground! Did you not see what happened? Why remain polite and servile towards this over proud dog when the plains are full of Indians? March out against him, for I absolve you!

The governor then gave the signal . . . (the gun was fired) and at the same time the trumpets were sounded, and the armored Spanish troops, both cavalry and infantry, sallied forth out of their hiding places straight into the mass of Indians . . . We had placed rattles on the horses to terrify the Indians . . . The booming of the guns, the blowing of the trumpets and the rattles on the horses threw the Indians into panicked confusion. The Spaniards fell upon them and cut them to pieces. The Indians were so filled with fear that they climbed on top of one another, formed mounds, and suffocated each other. . . . The cavalry rode them down . . . The infantry *made so good an assault on those that remained, that in a short time most (Indians) were put to sword.*

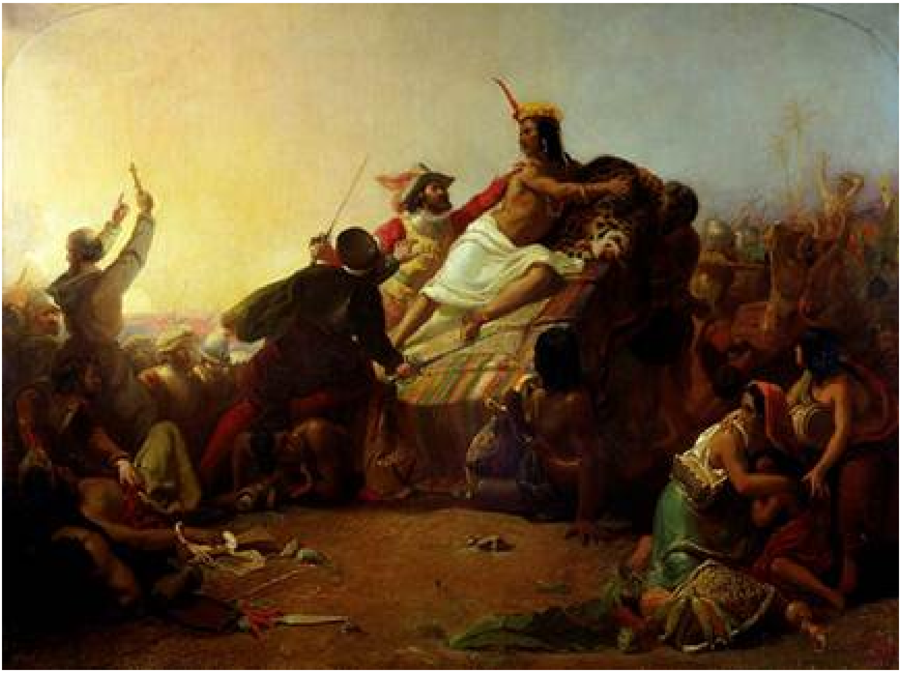
The Governor himself took his sword and dagger, entered the thick of the Indians with the Spaniards who were with him, and with great bravery reached Atahualpa's litter. He fearlessly grabbed Atahualpa's left arm . . . but he could not pull Atahualpa out of his litter because it was held up so high. Although we killed the Indians who held the litter, others at once took their places and held it aloft, and in this manner we spent a long time overcoming and killing the Indians. Finally seven or eight Spaniards on horseback spurred on their horses, rushed upon the litter from one side, and with great effort they heaved it over on its side. In that way Atahualpa was captured. . . . the Indians carrying the litter, and those escorting Atahualpa, never abandoned him, all died around him.

The panic stricken Indians remaining in the square, terrified at the firing of the guns and at the horses—something they had never seen—tried to flee from the square by knocking down a stretch of wall and running out onto the plain outside. Our cavalry jumped the broken wall and charged out into the plain, shouting: 'Catch those with the fancy clothes! Don't let any escape! Spear them!'

All the other Indian soldiers whom Atahualpa had brought were a mile from Cajamarca ready for a battle, but not one made a move, and during this not one Indian raised a weapon against a Spaniard. When the squadrons of Indians who had remained in the plain outside the town saw the other Indians fleeing, most of them too panicked and fled. It was an astonishing sight, for the whole valley for 15 or 20 miles was completely filled with Indians. Night had already fallen, and our cavalry were continuing to spear Indians in the fields, when we heard a trumpet calling for us to reassemble at camp.

If night had not come on, few out of the more than 40,000 Indian troops would have been left alive. Six or seven thousand Indians lay dead, and many more had their arms cut off and other wounds. Atahualpa himself admitted that we had killed 7,000 of his men in that battle.

PIZARRO SEIZES THE INCA EMPEROR ATAHUALPA, 1532



The Inca emperor, Atahualpa, is seized by Pizarro at the Battle of Cajamarca, November 16, 1532. The emperor was taken captive and held in a room at his capital, which he allegedly filled with gold and silver as a ransom. Atahualpa was then convicted of killing his brother and plotting against Pizarro and his forces, and was executed by garrote on August 29, 1533. A year later Pizarro invaded Cuzco with indigenous troops and completed the conquest of Peru.

Victory Despite Overwhelming Nonwhite Numbers

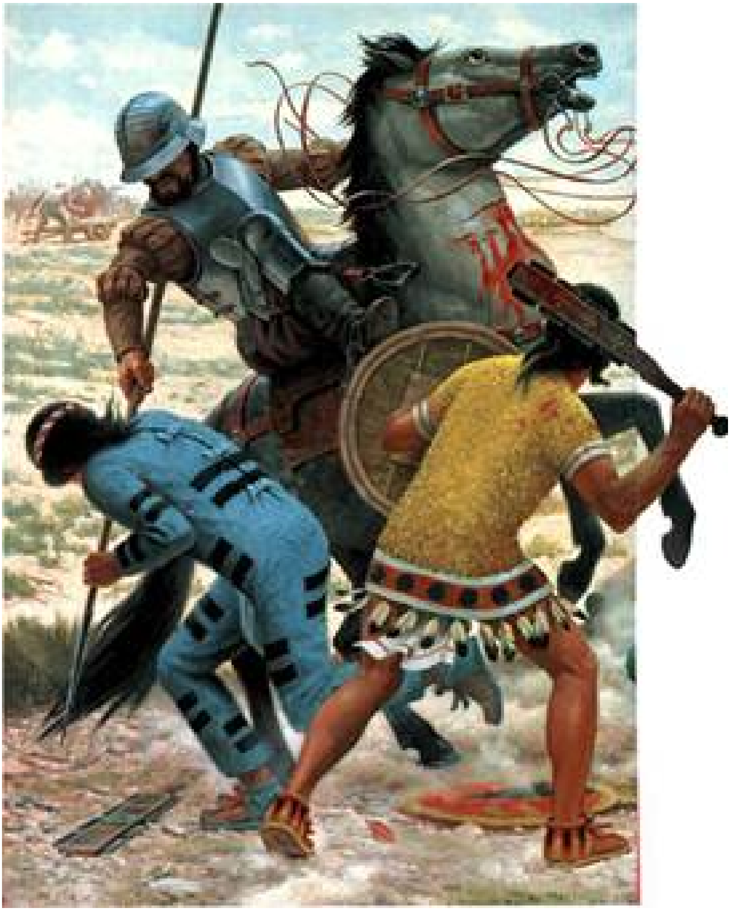
The record shows that Pizarro had exactly 62 soldiers mounted on horses and 106 foot soldiers, while Atahualpa commanded an army of about 80,000. More than 7,000 Incas were killed but not one white died.

The staggering military victory was based solely on white technological superiority. The Amerinds had only stone, bronze, and wooden clubs; maces and hand axes; slingshots, and quilted material body armor against the steel swords, spears, and chain armor of the Spaniards. Even the firearms which the Spanish possessed were not the decisive factor: they were slow-loading and difficult to fire. The Spaniards were ultimately victorious because the Incas were unable to mortally wound any of the white soldiers with their weapons.

The odds which prevailed at the Battle of Cajamarca were to be repeated even more dramatically a further four times:

- At the Battle of Jauja, eighty Spaniards defeated an Inca army of tens of thousands;
- At the Battle of Vilcashuaman, thirty Spaniards defeated tens of thousands of Inca opponents;
- At the Battle of Vilaconoga, ten Spaniards defeated an army of tens of thousands of Incas; and
- At the battle of Cuzco, forty Spaniards defeated the last great Inca army, also consisting of tens of thousands of Inca warriors.

PRIMITIVE AMERIND WEAPONS NO MATCH FOR EUROPEAN FIREARMS AND STEEL ARMOR



The primitive weapons (slate knives and clubs) possessed by the Incas and Aztecs were no match for the guns and steel body armor of the *conquistadors. Time and time again, small numbers of Spaniards fought and defeated thousands of Amerinds in a conquest that was as brutal as it was uneven.*

Inca Emperor Atahualpa Executed

Pizarro captured the Inca emperor Atahualpa, who attempted to buy his freedom by offering a staggering amount of gold and silver. This offer notwithstanding, the conquistadors decided to burn Atahualpa at the stake to break Inca resistance.

Using the fact that Atahualpa had murdered his own brother, the conquistadors charged him with murder, adding conspiracy against the Spaniards as an additional charge. With the Spaniards as prosecutors and judges, the Inca emperor stood no chance, and was condemned to death. As Atahualpa converted to Christianity while awaiting execution, the Spaniards decided to spare him the flames and instead publicly strangled him to death, a brutal method of execution perfected back in Spain during the Inquisition.

As Pizarro predicted, the death of the Inca emperor left his tribe leaderless and incapable of mounting any effective, coordinated opposition. The conquistadors then set about destroying all the Inca power structures, subduing the huge territory with the same brutality they had used in dealing with the Inca emperor.

Conquistadors Found Buenos Aires and Santiago

In 1535, the conquistador Pedro de Mendoza occupied and subdued the area around the Rio de la Plata River. He founded Buenos Aires in 1536 and established Spanish rule over present-day Colombia.

In 1540, the conquistador Pedro de Valdivia launched a war of racial conquest against the Araucanian Amerinds in present-day Chile. Like the other campaigns in South America, it was a short and one-sided affair which ended in a Spanish victory. In 1541, Valdivia founded the city of Santiago.

Civil War and Miscegenation

The conquistadors were as prone to fighting among themselves as they were to battling with the Amerinds. Pizarro was murdered in one of these internecine squabbles (only ten years after his defeat of the Incas) over mineral rights.

This anarchy was compounded by the common practice among the conquistadors and other white settlers of taking Amerind wives. In this way, large numbers of mixed-race people with no particular loyalty to Spain came to dominate South America.

This development was dramatically illustrated in 1780, when an armed group of about sixty thousand Amerinds and mixed-race Creoles rebelled against Spanish rule. Although initially successful, the uprising was crushed in 1781, and its leaders were tortured and executed. A similar rebellion was put down in 1814.

Portuguese Settlement in Brazil

By 1530, the Portuguese realized that the Spanish were taking over South America, and they launched a campaign to colonize the land known today as Brazil. The Brazilian climate lent itself well to the cultivation of sugar, with the result that vast sugarcane plantations were soon established.

The rise of the plantations created a demand for manual labor which the Portuguese met by importing large numbers of African slaves. Records show that three million Africans, or 38 percent of the total Atlantic slave trade, were imported into Brazil from 1530 to 1807. This created a racial legacy which can still be seen in Brazil today.

Gold and Tin Mines Draw Portuguese and Spanish

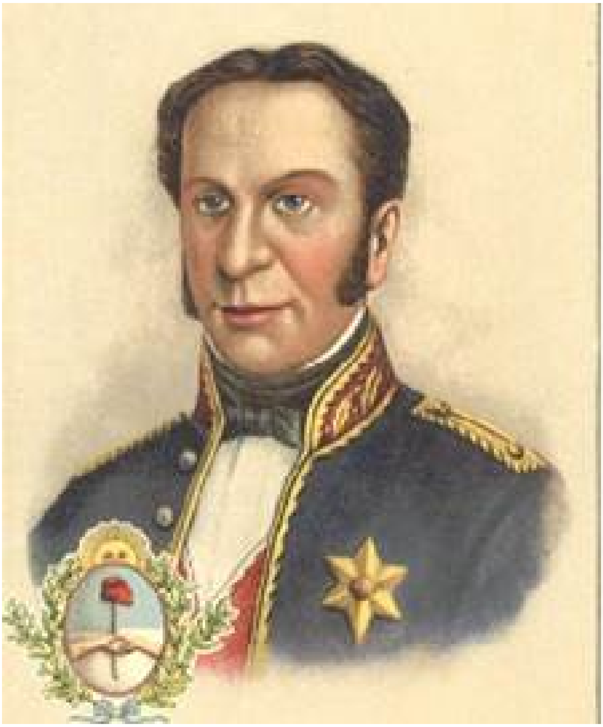
In 1693, gold was discovered in present-day western Brazil which attracted a large number of Portuguese fortune-seeking immigrants. This boosted the growth of the port of Rio de Janeiro. Tin mines were established in present-day Peru by Spanish settlers and, when combined with the abundant natural resources, that region was turned into one of the most profitable colonial undertakings in all of South America.

As a result of these colonial conquests, by the year 1700 all of South America was under Spanish or Portuguese rule, except for the territories of Guiana, which had been belatedly grabbed by Britain, France, and the Netherlands. Eventually the Spanish colonies, which had once provided much of the wealth upon which the greatness of Imperial Spain had been built, became liabilities, despite being heavily taxed to pay for Spain’s disastrous European wars.

The taxation burden and political interference in the South American colonies by the Spanish state created unrest among the white settlers, the mixed-race element, and the natives. A number of rebellions took place against Spanish rule in Paraguay from 1721 to

1735, in Peru from 1780 to 1782, and in most other Spanish-held territories in the 1780s.

SIMON BOLIVAR—FOUNDER OF FOUR SOUTH AMERICAN STATES



Simon Bolivar (1783–1830), a Venezuelan-born aristocrat, was a soldier, statesman, political philosopher, and the liberator of four countries in South America from Spanish rule. He was educated in Spain and personally witnessed Napoleon's coronation as emperor in 1804. Disgusted, he returned to South America determined to break links to royalty once and for all. In a series of adventures he raised a number of military forces and eventually drove the Spanish rulers out of Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia—the latter country being named after him.

Wars of Independence Sparked by American and French Revolutions

The success of both the American War of Independence and the French Revolution provided the impetus for a series of renewed rebellions against Spanish rule in South America.

On May 25, 1810, a coalition of Spanish colonists and Creoles in Buenos Aires deposed the Spanish viceroy and established a provisional governing body for the provinces of La Plata. The following year, in August 1811, the Paraguayans proclaimed their independence. In 1818, the Argentinian Jose de San Martín led a successful rebellion against Spanish rule in Chile, which was aided by the revolutionary leader Bernardo O'Higgins, who was actually of Irish descent. O'Higgins went on to declare Chile independent in 1818, after a Spanish force had been defeated.

The Venezuelan Simon Bolivar recruited an army of mercenaries from England to fight against the Spanish and this force provided the power through which Bolivar was able to inflict an important defeat upon Spanish imperial forces in 1819. Bolivar then established the states of Venezuela, and Quito (later called Ecuador).

In 1820, San Martín drove the Spanish out of the city of Lima, in present-day Peru, but was nearly defeated by a determined Spanish army counterattack. Bolivar came to his aid and, by December of that year, the Spanish forces had been defeated. It took another five years to finally drive the last Spanish armies off the continent, and upper Peru was named Bolivia in honor of its liberator.

Brazilian Independence

The Portuguese king fled Portugal to Brazil in 1808 after his nation was conquered by the French under Napoleon Bonaparte. Upon Napoleon's ultimate defeat, the Portuguese king, João VI, returned to his homeland, leaving his elder son Prince Pedro de Alcântara to rule the colony of Brazil.

This provoked an uprising in Brazil against rule from Europe and Prince Pedro seized the opportunity to declare independence in 1822. He was rewarded by being crowned the first emperor of Brazil that same year.

Argentina—White Majority under Threat from Growing Mixed-Race Population

It is estimated that over six million Europeans, mainly of Spanish or Italian origin, emigrated to Argentina after its establishment as an independent state. This has created one of the largest white populations in any South American country, but Argentina is also home to a growing mixed-race element which is steadily outbreeding the Europeans. As a result, the white part of the Argentinian population is steadily decreasing when expressed as a percentage of the total. A genetic study conducted in Argentina in 2009 ("Inferring Continental Ancestry of Argentinians from

Autosomal, Y-Chromosomal and Mitochondrial DNA," Corach, et al., *Annals of Human Genetics,* Vol. 74, Issue 1, Dec. 2009), concluded that Argentinian DNA is 78.6 percent European, 17.3 percent Amerind, and 4.2 percent African.

Bolivia—Majority Mixed-Race Population

The tiny Spanish occupation force in Bolivia was quickly absorbed into the local population through a process of physical integration. When the tin mines in upper Peru were exhausted, many other Europeans drifted away, leaving the country in the effective control of the largely mixed-race population still resident there today.

Racial demographics in Bolivia are based on self-identification, and according to official figures released in 2006, whites made up 15 percent of the population, with the rest comprising Amerind or mixed-race elements.

BLACK SLAVE LEGACY

Blacks, the descendants of slaves, make up the lowest elements of South American society. This image shows a typical shantytown slum located on the slopes of the mountains around Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. These shanty town settlements were originally called bairros africanos, *or African neighborhoods, but are now known as* favelas.

Brazil—Majority Mixed-Race Population

According to the Brazilian government's official estimates, whites made up 49 percent of the population in 2009. Given the relatively high level of racial mixing which has taken place in Brazil, this figure is most certainly an overestimation and other estimates claim that the white element is only about 30 percent.

This 70 percent mixed-race estimate has been backed up by recent genetic studies which have shown that Brazilian maternal DNA is 39 percent European, 33 percent Amerind, and 28 percent African origin. Expressed as an average across the entire Brazilian genetic pool (female, male, and autosomal DNA), this translates to at least 61 percent of all Brazilians having at least one Amerind ancestor ("Estudo demonstra herança portuguesa no mapa genético do Brasil," por Inés Nadais, *Os Genes de Cabral,* Terça-feira, March 21, 2000).

Brazil's history since independence mirrors that of its neighbors, namely a large degree of political instability matched by economic and social deprivation, with the establishment of very clearly defined classes of people based upon their racial appearance.

Chile—Small but Significant White Spanish Presence

Determined Amerind resistance against Spanish colonization at one stage nearly eradicated the European presence completely. These attempts were ultimately unsuccessful. The Araucanian tribe in particular defended their territory vigorously, and in 1553, a rebellion saw the majority of the scattered white settlements destroyed and their inhabitants slaughtered. The drawn-out conflict between the Spanish settlers and the Araucanians which followed lasted nearly a century.

As part of this war, Spain encouraged as many settlers as possible to enter the country, with the result that a small but significant European population bloc was created. According to a 2007 study, people of European origin comprised 52 percent of the total population in that year, but this is likely to be an overestimate based on self-classification rather than DNA. A 2006 genetic study by the University of Chile revealed that only 30 percent of Chileans had Caucasian-only ancestry.

Uruguay—Disputed Racial Statistics

Uruguay was largely colonized first by Spanish and then Portuguese settlers, and the small native population was either quickly absorbed or died out. According to a 2006 genetic study in Uruguay, some 82 percent of male chromosomes were of European origin, 8 percent Amerindian, and 10 percent African. On the maternal side, 49 percent of chromosomes were of European origin, 30 percent were Amerind, and 21 percent African ("Population structure and admixture in Cerro Largo, Uruguay, based on blood markers and mitochondrial DNA polymorphisms," Monica Sans, et al., *American Journal of Human Biology,* Jul–Aug 2006, 18:513–524). Averaged out, this would imply that there is a majority white population in Uruguay. It is likely that given the nature of population growth rates, the mixed-race element is steadily increasing.

Venezuela and Costa Rica

Venezuela does not keep racial statistics of any sort, and is only listed as having "European, African and Indigenous" ancestry by the CIA's *World Factbook*. Given Venezuela's economic and social standing, it is not far farfetched to conclude that the majority of the population is of mixed-racial origin.

Costa Rica, on the other hand, has one of the highest white populations of all the Central American countries. It is also one of the most stable countries in that region.

First and Third World in South America

The racial history of South America has resulted in First and Third World conditions existing side-by-side on this huge continent. Although significant white populations remain, the ever-increasing mixed-race element seems set to inevitably dominate and, as they do, the areas of First World influence will decline proportionally. South American history since the wars of liberation against Spain have reflected this racial reality. Nation-states on the continent have varied from prosperous to desperately poor, and from technologically advanced to basic subsistence-level economies.

South America has also, along with Southeast Asia and certain parts of the Middle East, become the heartland of the world drug production and distribution empire. This criminal zeal has also spread to Central America and Mexico, with murderous drug gangs terrorizing entire towns along the American–Mexican border.

Politically, these nations have swayed between totalitarian dictatorships and partial democracies, while socially, South America has become the source of some of the greatest disparities in the world. This is reflected in the economic gaps between the small, usually white elite, and the rest of the population, a feature which characterizes all South American nations.

White Enclaves in Majority Mixed-Race Countries

The end result of this tremendous mix of races in South America has been a continent of extremes: relatively well-off white enclaves surrounded by masses of desperately poor and ever growing numbers of nonwhites. One interesting aspect of the racial mix in South America is the clear racial undertones of the South American hierarchy. Mestizos, or mixes between Spanish/Portuguese and Amerinds are the most common, while the second smallest group are those of European and African ancestry. The smallest group of all are those who are the product of Amerind and African ancestry.

Racial Mixing—the Destruction of the Incas, Aztecs

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the disappearance of the Aztec and Inca civilizations provides an extremely valuable lesson in racial demographics and its effect on the dominant culture.

The Aztec and Inca civilizations no longer exist today because the people who founded and maintained those cultures are no longer in existence.

It is a commonly held, but false, belief that the Incas and Aztecs vanished because they died out due to the introduction of European-borne diseases. While it is most certainly true that a large percentage did succumb to new diseases, there is no evidence to indicate that two entire races of Amerinds were wiped out in this way.

There is also no evidence to show that the military defeats suffered by the Incas and Aztecs destroyed those racial groups. The DNA evidence from present-day Mexico and Central and South America shows very clearly that the native Amerinds disappeared through being absorbed into a new mixed-race population. The decline and disappearance of the Aztec and Inca cultures proves that all civilizations, no matter their origin, will disappear once the people who created and sustained them vanish.

This is the reason why in South America today, Aztec and Inca buildings lie in ruins: the mixing of their race with others caused the makeup of those people to change, a far more fatal blow than any military defeat or disease. Races can recover from military defeats, but when a racial group disappears through mixing, it can never recapture its original nature and is gone forever. The ruins of the once great Aztec and Inca civilizations stand, like the pyramids in Egypt, as silent testimony of vanished peoples, submerged among people of a different race.

From the racial point of view, South America has been a close repeat of the ancient Aryan invasion of India. The population growth among the mixed-race inhabitants is such that even the remaining pockets of whites in South America are due to be bred down into an insignificant number within the next one hundred years, political change notwithstanding.

CHAPTER 48: Revolution! The Birth of the United States of America

Although the United States did not emerge as an independent nation until the end of the eighteenth century, it assumed a dominating role in world history from that time onward. The reason for this was that European immigration, occupation, and natural reproduction had created a new white heartland.

First Settlements—Ancient Whites, Vikings, and Mainland Europeans

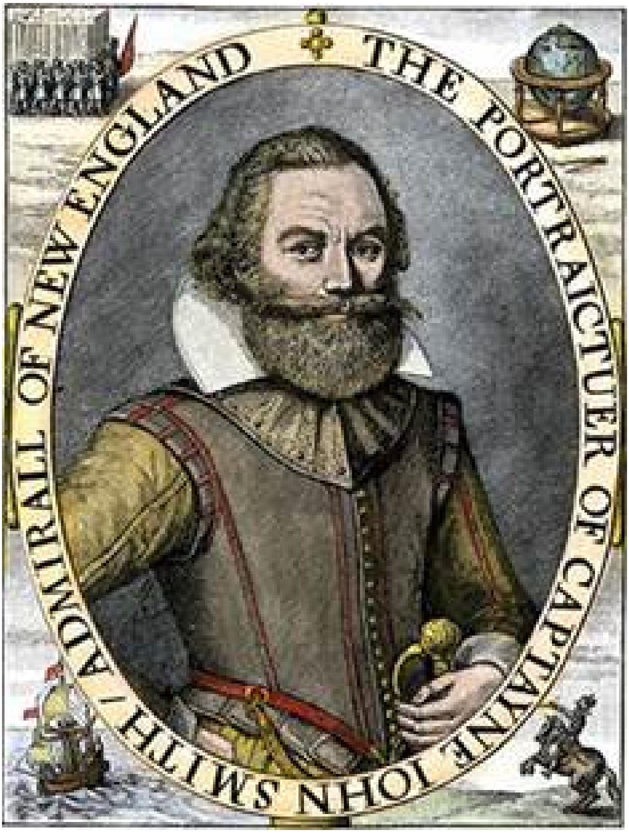
Archaeological excavations in North America have indicated a pre-Amerind, and possibly white, presence many thousands of years old. The interesting discoveries have included skeletal remains, tools, and structures. These findings, and the ultimate demise of those early people, are reviewed in an earlier chapter of this work.

The next whites to set foot upon the North American continent were the Vikings, who landed in present-day Canada during the eleventh century. They failed in their efforts to establish a permanent settlement on the continent, and it was only in the fifteenth century that the voyages of Christopher Columbus and John Cabot finally opened North America to large-scale European exploration and settlement.

Spain laid claim to large parts of the New World after the discoveries of Columbus, while Britain claimed part of North America after the exploration work of Cabot. The French also laid claim to parts of North America, which would subsequently bring them into conflict with the English.

The French had established small colonies in Quebec and some northern territories such as present-day Newfoundland. They had also explored and claimed a huge area of the present-day American Midwest, following the Mississippi River south to Louisiana. The French did not, however, settle their territories in large numbers, choosing instead to focus on setting up trading stations.

JOHN SMITH—INTERNATIONAL ADVENTURER AND MAN OF ENDURING LEGEND


THE PORTRAICTUER OF CAPTAYNE IOHN SMITH / ADMIRALL OF NEW ENGLAND

John Smith (1580–1631) was an English adventurer who was most famous for his role in the establishment of the first permanent English colony in North America. Above: A contemporary engraving showing him taking an Amerind chief prisoner. Smith's career is shrouded in legend. Allegedly he fought for France against the Spanish, for the Habsburgs against the Ottomans, and was captured by the Algonquian Indians when they attacked the settlement of Virginia in 1607. It is claimed that Smith befriended the Indians through a young native girl, Pocahontas, and was subsequently freed. He became leader of the Virginia settlement in 1608.

Effect on Amerinds of European settlement

The first racial consequence of the arrival of large numbers of white settlers in North America was the decimation of the American Indians.

The reduction in the number of American Indians was caused by a number of factors, which included disease, military defeat, and the expansion of white urbanization which reduced the Amerind's ability to maintain their subsistence lifestyle.

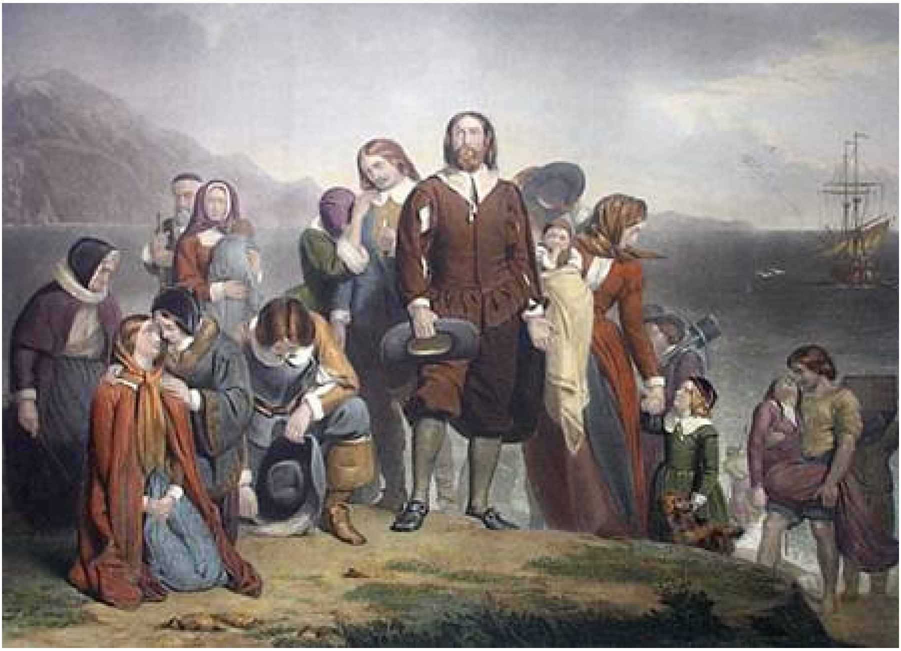
It is not known exactly how many Indians died as a result of the introduction of European-borne diseases such as influenza, typhus, measles, and smallpox. Estimates vary wildly, but the most likely figure is around 30 or 40 percent, based on the numbers of Europeans who died when the bubonic plague was introduced to Europe.

The white settlers also introduced livestock and horses to America. These domesticated animals took land away from the indigenous game animals such as the bison. This, combined with a later deliberate policy of reducing the number of bison, deprived the Indian hunters of a major source of their food.

Scalping Shocks White Explorers and Settlers

By 1630, the Spanish, French, Dutch, and English had established colonies in North America and all found themselves waging racial wars against the Amerinds to varying degrees. This was the first time that the white settlers came into contact with and experienced the practice of scalping, which was the taking of the scalp of a defeated enemy as a trophy. The horror with which this practice was greeted was only overshadowed by the realization that cannibalism was also common among the Indians.

PILGRIM FATHERS—RELIGIOUS DISSIDENTS LAND IN NEW ENGLAND 1640



The Pilgrim Fathers arrive on the American east coast in the Mayflower, which lies anchored in the background in this period print. After first settling in the Netherlands, the Pilgrims decided that the New World offered them the best chance of religious freedom. Their numbers swelled over the years from 17,800 in 1640 to 106,000 by 1700.

Pilgrim Fathers—Religious Refugees

In 1620, a group of English religious dissidents known as the Separatists (also later called the Pilgrims) were granted permission to settle in the British colony of Virginia.

Originally, there were to be two ships full of Pilgrims, but one became unseaworthy and only the ship named the *Mayflower* undertook the voyage, departing in June of that year. The ship missed its destination port of Jamestown, Virginia, and in November 1620, threw anchor off the coast of present-day Massachusetts in what is now the harbor of Provincetown.

Despite the fact that they were in land outside of any colonial power, the Pilgrims landed their 102-strong group and founded a settlement near present-day Cape Cod, called the Plymouth Colony, after the port in England from where the *Mayflower* had sailed.

The Plymouth colony became a lightning conductor for all manner of Christian dissidents seeking religious freedom. Between 1629 and 1640, some twenty-five thousand English dissidents immigrated to the new settlement. The concentration of these religious extremists led to a number of excesses, which included the banning of Christmas and, eventually, witch hunts in Salem in 1692. This became one of the last witch hunts to take place anywhere in the Western world.

Massachusetts Bay Colony 1630

In 1630, the Massachusetts Bay Colony was established by the Massachusetts Bay Company, an English company established in terms of a specially granted charter for that purpose. The authority contained in this charter gave the colony almost complete self-government.

This authority was used to expel religious dissidents under the leadership of theologian Roger Williams from the Massachusetts Bay Colony in 1636. Williams moved off and established the settlement of Providence, which later became the state of Rhode Island.

That same year, the first settlers from the Massachusetts Bay Colony started pushing westward due to the increasing demand for grazing land for cattle. The Indians were displaced and the movement west created the present-day state of Connecticut. Simultaneously, new waves of white settlers continued to arrive in North America. Catholics settled in a territory which they named Maryland in honor of the biblical mother of Jesus.

In 1663, King Charles II of England granted a charter to settlers to establish settlements in present-day North and South Carolina. The following year, British troops occupied the Dutch colony of New Netherlands and renamed it New York. The same year, the British seized the neighboring Dutch settlement in present-day New Jersey.

Metacom's War against the Whites

The Indians living on the American east coast resisted the white incursions as best they could, given the fact that they stood little real chance against the Europeans' technological superiority.

The last attempted resistance in New England came in 1675 when three Amerinds were executed for murder. Motivated by a desire for revenge, an Indian chief named Metacom (also known as King Philip) arranged for a loose alliance of tribes to launch a number of fierce guerrilla raids on the colonists.

The settlers were forced to move onto the offensive and a bloody tit-for-tat series of clashes took place until Metacom's secret hideout was discovered and he was killed. The radical decision was then taken to physically drive the surviving Indians out of New England, a task which was completed in short order.

Colonies of New Hampshire and Pennsylvania Created in 1679 and 1681

The present-day state of New Hampshire was created in 1679 out of the colony of Massachusetts, while in 1681, the Englishman William Penn received a charter for the region which he named Pennsylvania.

The founding charters of both these colonies granted the settlers the right to form their own system of government. The early settlers, with their love of freedom and independence, embraced a rugged, almost foolhardy individualism. This created the sense of self-enterprise and liberty by which the American spirit came to be known.

Mass White Immigration

As news of the colonies in the Americas spread throughout Europe, hundreds of thousands of whites from nearly every country in Europe converged on the new territories.

Some were attracted by the opportunity of owning their own land—something impossible for common folk since the time of feudalism—while others wanted to escape the class system and religious conflict into which Europe had descended.

Waves of Germans, Irish, Danes, Dutch, Swedes, and others poured into the colonies, even though they were still under the nominal control of Britain.

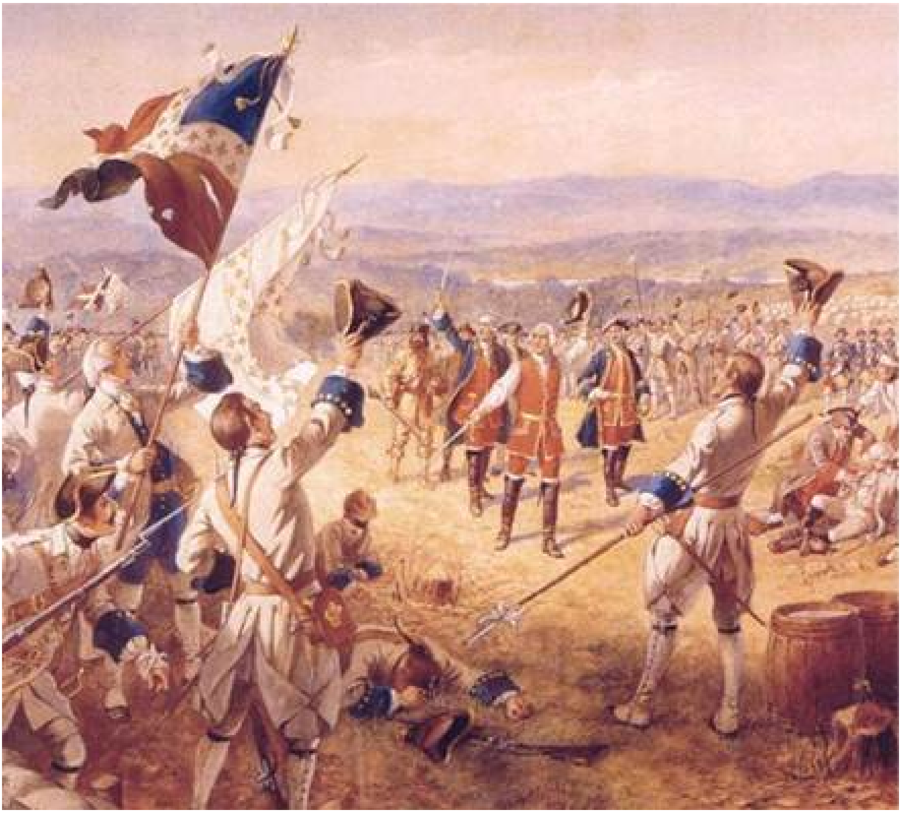
Growth of Resentment against British Laws

As the colonies developed and became increasingly wealthy in their own right, the British government sought out more ways to extract taxes from the colonists. One of the first such laws was the 1651 Navigation Act, which specified that all colonial imports and exports be shipped in English-flag vessels.

In 1684, the Massachusetts Bay Colony Charter was revoked as a punishment for violations of the Navigation Act and, in 1686, the British king, James II, ordered that the states of New York, New Jersey, and New England be unified into a single province, the Dominion of New England, in order to centralize control over the colonists.

Resentment against the continuing interference grew among the colonists. The colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island refused to give up their charters to a British-appointed governor and an armed rebellion broke out in Massachusetts in 1689. Further rebellions occurred in Boston and New York City.

BRITISH DEFEATED AT BATTLE OF CARILLON



The Battle of Carillon (also called the Battle of Ticonderoga) was an important French victory in the French and Indian Wars (the North American theater of the Seven Years' War). On July 8, 1758, about four thousand French soldiers decisively defeated a numerically superior force of British troops. The battle was the bloodiest of the war, with over three thousand casualties suffered, of which over two thousand were British.

The French and Indian War Results in Increased British Territory

The War of Spanish Succession, which was ended in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht, saw the French relinquish a considerable amount of territory in North America, including Acadia, Newfoundland, and the region surrounding Hudson Bay to the British. The outbreak of the Seven Years' War between the French, the Prussians, and the English in 1756 was preceded, and directly caused, by the French and Indian War which first erupted in North America in 1754. That conflict, which was actually several sets of wars between the French and British in North America, saw both sides ally themselves at various stages with different Indian tribes.

The French were far more successful at this tactic than the British, as their earlier policy of leaving the Indians alone gave them greater leverage with the natives.

After 1757, Britain and its allies in Europe and elsewhere managed to inflict decisive defeats upon the French forces. In North America, a British army, aided by colonial auxiliaries, seized Quebec in 1759 and, in 1760, conquered Montreal. The war ended with the signing of the Treaty of Paris with France ceding the rest of its possessions in Canada to Britain, retaining only two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

By 1775, the total white population of the British colonies of North America stood at just under two million. Of this number, approximately 1.2 million, or over 50 percent, were not of British stock and had come from other parts of Europe.

The Stamp Act—Increased Taxation

The financial strain of the ongoing European wars forced the British government to look for increased funds from the colonies, and laws were created to crack down on tax evaders.

In 1765, the British government introduced the Stamp Act which required American colonists to validate all essential legal documents—including documents ratifying sales and purchases—by buying and attaching revenue stamps which had to be attached to these papers.

This was an obviously gratuitous tax and aroused great indignation among the American colonists, who correctly felt they were being exploited after their important contribution to the defeat of France. Protests broke out in many cities and towns and civil servants who had been appointed to enforce the Stamp Act were forced to resign. Thousands of the stamps were burned as the protest movement gathered support.

"Sons of Liberty" Stir up Dissent

Secret societies of independence-minded colonists emerged under the name of the "Sons of Liberty." In October 1765, colonists from all over the thirteen colonies met and declared their opposition to the Stamp Act and demanded its retraction.

The following year, the British government acceded to this demand, but by then it was too late, as the seeds for rebellion had been sown.

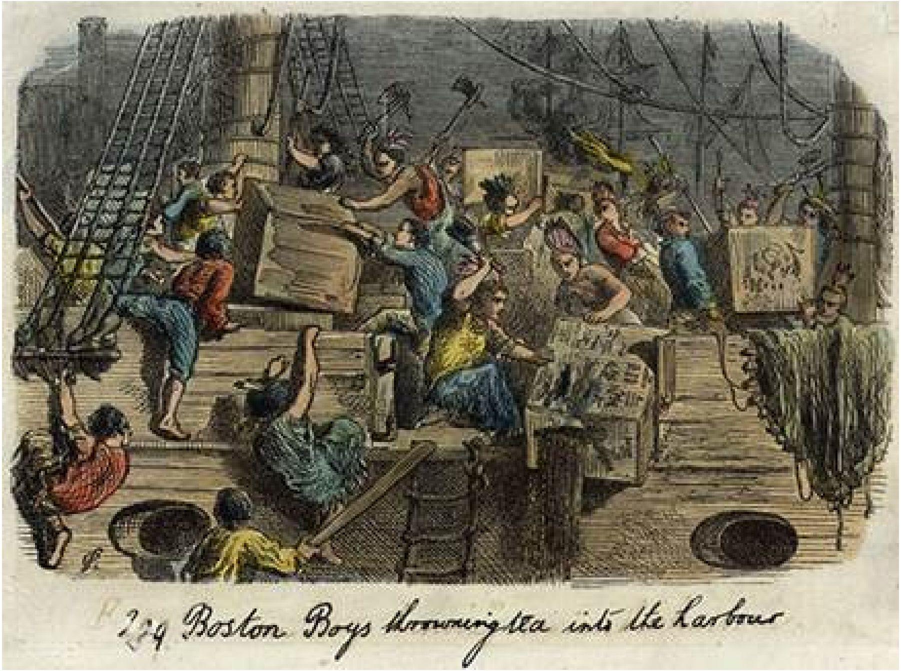
Even so, the British crown might have been able to keep the colonies under control but for a major blunder in the form of a new set of taxation laws called the Townshend Acts which were introduced in 1767. These laws imposed new customs duties on tea, paper, lead, paint, and glass, and served to inflame the colonists once again. British goods were boycotted, and in Massachusetts, the people of the town of Boston openly refused to adhere to the custom duty laws.

Boston Massacre Serves as Revolutionary Rallying Point

In response to the renewed outbreak of dissent, the British sent two regiments to Boston. On March 5, 1770, British troops fired on a crowd of protesters, resulting in what became known as the Boston Massacre. Five protestors were killed and six were injured and the outpouring of ill-feeling forced the British to backtrack once again. Customs duties on all products except tea were repealed, with the rationale being that tax had to be maintained on at least one product to keep the principle valid that the British Crown had the right to levy taxes on the colonies.

The colonists stopped their boycott of all British goods except tea. That product remained banned in order to preserve the right of the colonies to object to taxation without representation.

PRELUDE TO REVOLUTION—THE BOSTON TEA PARTY 1773


224 Boston Boys throwing tea into the harbour

An old print showing the action in Boston Harbor, December 16, 1773. Bales of tea were thrown overboard in protest against British taxes. The event, organized by about sixty members of the Boston Sons of Liberty, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded three British ships to destroy the cargo. They succeeded in this aim and, by the evening, had smashed 342 crates of tea into Boston Harbor. Thereafter they took off their shoes, swept the decks, and made each ship's first mate attest that they had destroyed only the tea. The whole event was remarkably quiet and peaceful, but had major repercussions.

The Tea Act and the Boston Tea Party

In 1773, the British parliament passed a law granting the British East India Company a monopoly on all tea sold to the colonies in America. Known as the Tea Act, this law precipitated a new crisis as the colonists quite correctly regarded it as yet another attempt by the British to extract more tax from the colonies.

In response, the colonists intensified their tea boycott. When three tea-laden British East India Company ships entered Boston Harbor in December 1773, a group of colonists, disguised as Indians, boarded the ships and dumped the cargo into the water. This event became known as the Boston Tea Party, and the British reacted by declaring the port of Boston closed and by prohibiting public meetings in Massachusetts.

Discontent at the suppression of their right to protest spread, and representatives of all the colonies gathered in September 1774 for what was to be called the First Continental Congress.

Here a petition was drawn up and sent to the British king, George III, asking for a change in policy toward the colonies. At the same time, the congress called for an intensification of a trade boycott with Britain. They resolved to meet again the next year if Britain refused to accede to their petition.

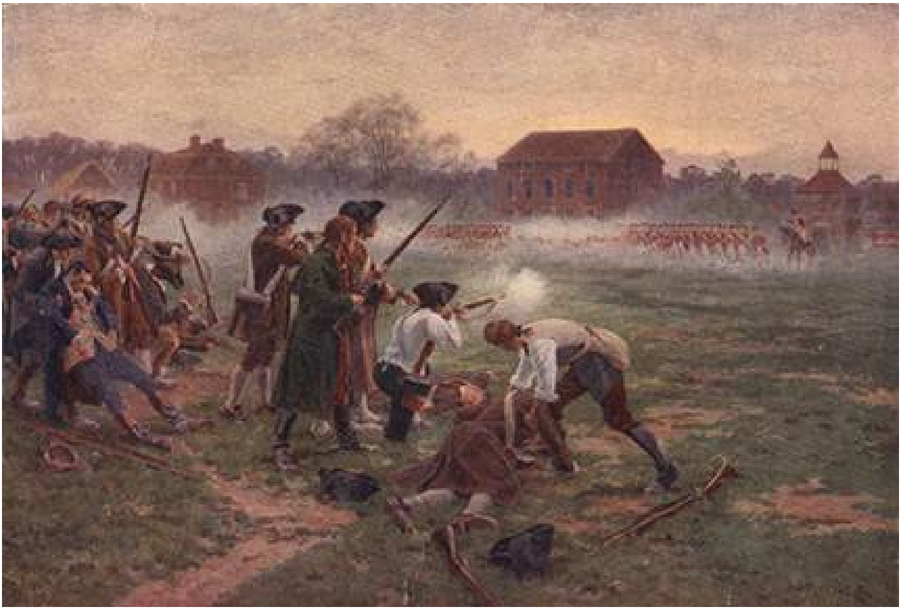
The American Revolution Starts

George III rejected the petition out of hand and called upon his loyal subjects in the colonies to suppress the budding rebellion. Within four months of his reaction being reported to the colonies, the rebellion which King George feared broke out in earnest.

On April 19, 1775, some seven hundred British troops marched to Concord, Massachusetts, to destroy a store of weapons hoarded by the increasingly militant colonist militia. On the way, they were confronted by a group of seventy militiamen near Lexington. The British ordered the militiamen to disperse. All but one obeyed: he fired a shot at the British troops, and with that one shot the American War of Independence was triggered. The British troops returned fire and eight of the already dispersing colonists were killed and a further ten wounded. The incident marked the point of no return for both sides.

British troops marched on to Concord the same day, to which news of the shootings at Lexington had already been relayed. As the British reached Concord and started to burn the colonists' supply store, militiamen attacked. In this second engagement, the British troops were routed and fled, suffering 273 casualties to the militia's 95.

"IF THEY MEAN TO START A WAR, LET IT BEGIN HERE"



On the night of April 18, 1775, British forces set off from Boston to capture a militia military store at Concord. The Americans, warned in advance by Paul Revere and others, met the British at Lexington, about two miles from Concord. The commander of the militia, Captain John Parker, told his men: "Stand your ground. Don't fire unless fired upon. But if they mean to have a war, let it begin here." The Battle of Lexington is marked by a stone monument on Lexington Green.

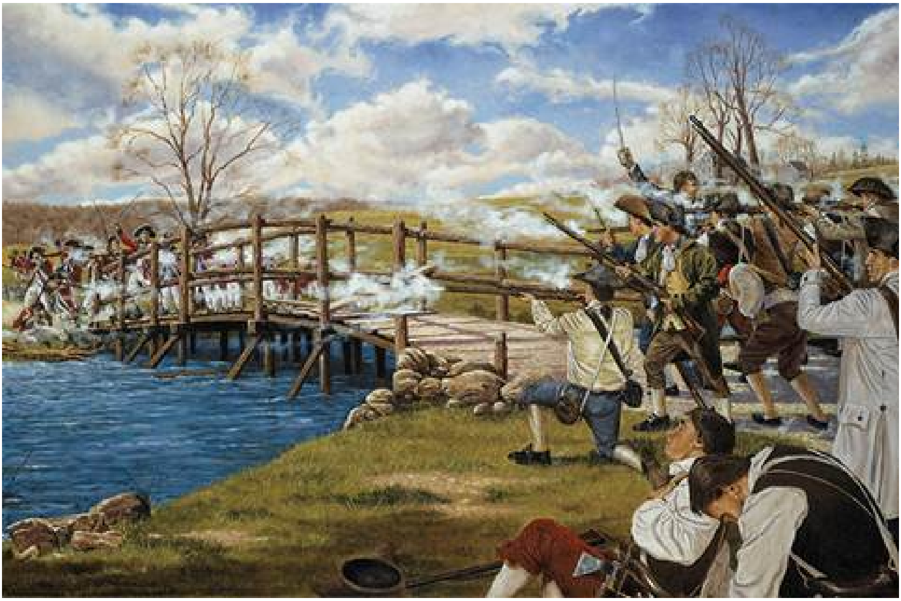
American Resistance Formalized

In May 1775, the colonists convened a Second Continental Congress in Philadelphia and declared "American" determination to resist British aggression with armed force. The Second Continental Congress formally created an army and appointed George Washington as Commander in Chief. It also authorized the issuing of paper money and took on the role of a formal government.

In numerical terms, the conflict was uneven. England, Wales, and Scotland had a combined population of about 9 million, compared with 2.5 million in the thirteen rebel colonies (of whom nearly 20 percent were black slaves). In addition, the British could count on mobilizing thousands of loyalists in America as well as Indians who were hostile to continued white expansion.

Washington's main army, called the Continental Army, never had more than twenty-four thousand active-duty troops. This included about twenty thousand regulars and a smaller number of militiamen (who, because of their preparedness to take up arms at a minute's notice, were called Minutemen). However, Washington's army was poorly supplied and always short of weapons and food.

BATTLE OF NORTH BRIDGE AT CONCORD CONFIRMS THAT REVOLUTION IS SERIOUS



Immediately after the first engagement with the American militia at Lexington, the British marched on to Concord, where they were met in battle at North Bridge by another American militia, this time numbering over 1,000 men. American casualties were under 100, while the British suffered 275 casualties, including 73 killed. The British withdrew, realizing they were no longer dealing with a handful of rebels, but with a far more organized uprising.

German Mercenaries Employed by British

A number of German mercenaries from Hesse-Kassel were recruited by the British to fight against the rebels. Called the Hessians, these Germans fought with distinction but became best remembered for the defeat they suffered at the Battle of Trenton in December 1776. Many of the Hessians settled in America and Canada after the war.

Battle of Bunker Hill Boosts American Morale

Meanwhile, the British forces suffered another defeat at the hands of the militia, who, buoyed by the success at Concord, went on the offensive.

As part of a move to surround Boston, a section of the fledgling American army occupied an outpost called Breed's Hill at Charlestown, in June 1775. British troops tried twice to dislodge the militia by storming the hill, but each time they were beaten back and suffered significant losses. Finally the militiamen ran out of ammunition and retreated, but the Battle of Bunker's Hill (as it became known) provided a great morale boost to the rebels. The British suffered more than 1,000 casualties, compared to 140 dead and 270 wounded on the American side.

Civil War Erupts in the South

Fighting broke out between supporters of the Revolution and loyalists in Virginia, and in June 1775, the governor of Virginia, Lord John Dunmore, took refuge on a British warship in Chesapeake Bay. From there he organized two military forces to take the war to the rebels. One force was comprised of whites, the Queen's Own Loyal Virginians, and the other was made up of black former slaves and called the Ethiopian Regiment. Dunmore also issued a proclamation offering freedom to all slaves and indentured servants who joined the loyalist cause.

In North Carolina, Governor Josiah Martin tried to maintain his authority by raising a force of about 1,500 Loyalist migrants. However, in February 1776, a Revolution-supporting militia defeated Martin's army in the Battle of Moore's Creek Bridge.

In addition, an attack on Charleston, South Carolina, by about three thousand loyalists and British troops in June 1776 was successfully repelled by a local militia drawn from town citizens.

GREEN MOUNTAIN BOYS SEIZE FORT TICONDEROGA

Fort Ticonderoga, originally built by the French near Lake Champlain in 1755, was seized by the British in 1759. On May 10, 1775, at the start of the American Revolutionary War, the fort was captured in a surprise attack by the legendary Ethan Allen and his Green Mountain Boys. The Americans were forced to evacuate the fort in 1777 after a large British force took up position nearby. The British only briefly reoccupied the fort, abandoning it the same year, and the building was never garrisoned again.

The Green Mountain Boys and the American Invasion of Canada

In upstate New York, a rough and ready militia group from Vermont called the Green Mountain Boys attacked and seized possession of Fort Ticonderoga in May 1775. Fort Ticonderoga had first featured in North American history by being captured by the British from the French in 1759.

The capture of this fort, along with its valuable cannon, was an important military breakthrough and the leader of the Green Mountain Boys, Ethan Allen, went on to become an American Revolutionary hero.

The Americans pushed northward and forced the surrender of the British garrison at Crown Point on Lake Champlain in September. The Americans then captured Saint Johns and Montreal.

By November 1775, another American force, consisting of only six hundred men, advanced as far as Quebec where it joined up with two other American armies and launched an attack on the well-fortified British-held city.

The combined assault failed to capture the city but laid siege to it until April 1776, when a British relief convoy arrived and drove the Americans back. The British force also recaptured Montreal from the by now disease-ridden and poorly supplied American occupying force.

Declaration of Independence 1776

The setback in Canada did not discourage the rebels and on July 2, 1776, the Second Continental Congress voted in favor of a resolution which declared independence for the thirteen colonies.

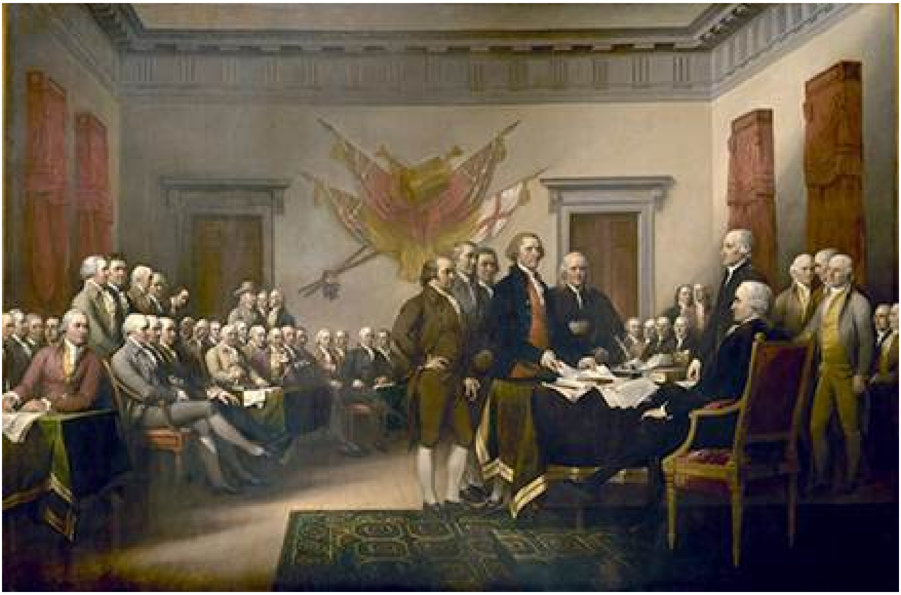
Each colony's delegation cast a single vote, after deciding among themselves by a vote whether to be for or against independence.

Nine of the thirteen delegations initially voted in favor of independence, with only Pennsylvania and South Carolina voting against, while New York and Delaware abstained.

However, later debates and the arrival of more delegates, at the meeting hall in Philadelphia, saw Pennsylvania and Delaware reverse their decisions, while the New York delegation only received permission from their state assembly a week later to vote for independence. Thus the resolution of independence was finally adopted with twelve votes in favor and only one against.

Two more days of debate on the wording followed, and finally on July 4, the Congress adopted a formal Declaration of Independence from Britain. By then, the colonies had been at war with Britain for over a year.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE—JULY 4, 1776



The Declaration of Independence marked a dramatic stage in the war which was ended only by Britain giving up all claims to the thirteen colonies. Immediately after it was signed by all the assenting delegates, the declaration was announced publicly from the outside of the state house in Philadelphia, on July 4, 1776.

British Occupy New York City

In July 1776, a British army of more than thirty thousand men landed on Staten Island near New York City. The next month they launched an assault on the ten thousand American troops entrenched on Brooklyn Heights. The Americans, faced for the first time by a professional and experienced army of this size, were soundly defeated and fled. The victorious British forces pursued the revolutionaries and inflicted two further defeats upon them in quick succession, at Harlem Heights and White Plains, in October 1776.

George Washington, who personally led the Continental Army, was outnumbered and outgunned. His failure to evacuate the emplacement known as Fort Washington on the northern end of Manhattan Island saw three thousand of his men captured by the British.

The defeats persuaded Washington and his army to retreat south, where they could better prepare for the inevitable British assault. By doing this, Washington left the British to occupy New York. By December, the British had also taken the strategically important port of Newport, Rhode Island.

Battles of Trenton and Princeton

To forestall a British attack on Philadelphia, Washington crossed the Delaware River with 2,400 men on Christmas Eve 1776 and after a nine-mile march, attacked and took the town of Trenton from a surprised Hessian mercenary force.

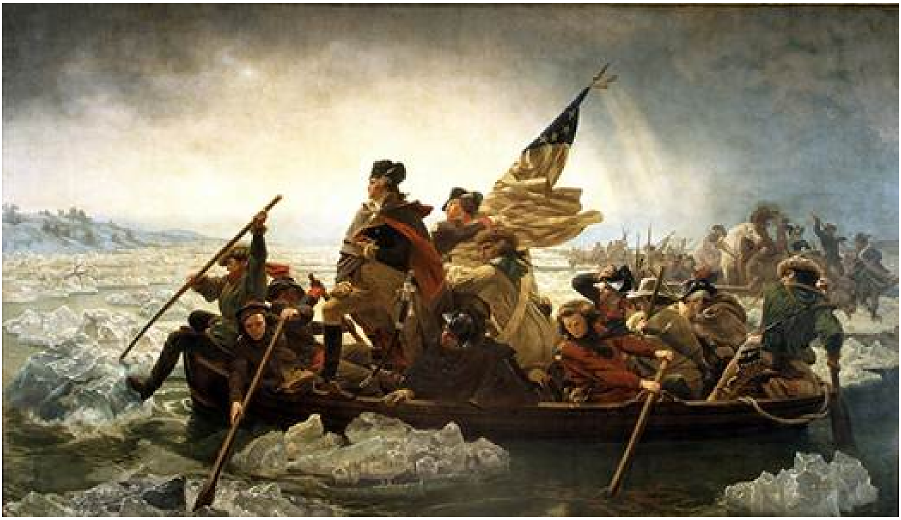
The Americans retreated back across the river, but crossed it once again on December 29 to draw up a defensive position at Trenton. There they awaited an attack from the British forces under General Lord Cornwallis, which took place early in January.

After fending off the initial British attack, Washington moved his forces up to counterattack at Princeton. After an engagement whose outcome lay in doubt for much of the battle, the British were forced to retreat to Trenton. Washington then moved his army on to Morristown where the British were defeated once again, forcing them to leave all of southern New Jersey in rebel hands.

The British Capture Philadelphia 1776

Although defeated in New Jersey, the British army regrouped and advanced on Philadelphia with about twenty thousand men. The Continental Congress fled the city and Washington had no choice but to meet the British in battle again, even though he was hopelessly outnumbered. The result was predictable. The British easily seized the city after winning the outflanking battles at the Brandywine in September, and at Germantown in October.

WASHINGTON DEFEATS HESSIANS IN SURPRISE ATTACK ACROSS THE DELAWARE



On December 25, 1776, George Washington and his Continental Army crossed the iced Delaware River, launching a surprise attack on 1,500 hired Hessian soldiers who were celebrating Christmas. It was the first clear American victory against the British in eighteen months. This victory spurred Washington on to a series of victories, including the occupation of Trenton just five days later.

The British Strike South from Canada

In July 1777, a nine thousand-strong British army left Montreal and took Fort Ticonderoga back from the Americans. The victorious British forces then pushed south toward the settlement of Albany.

Simultaneously, a force consisting of about two thousand British regulars and Indians marched south along the Saint Lawrence River to Lake Ontario with the intention of relieving the British garrison at Fort Ticonderoga. They were halted after being defeated by an American garrison at Fort Stanwix. A large number of Indians deserted and the remainder of the British force had to retreat to Montreal, their objective unachieved.

This American success was followed up with another victory for the revolutionaries when they smashed a British relief and supply column on its way to Fort Ticonderoga at the August 1777 Battle of Bennington.

Saratoga—First Major British Defeat

By mid-September 1777, the British had pushed to just outside

Saratoga but were halted by American troops at Bemis Heights. The British force, reduced to around five thousand men, was forced to withdraw into Saratoga, which was besieged by a seventeen thousand-strong American force. The siege lasted until October, when the British garrison was forced to surrender.

French Intervention Follows Alliance

The most important effect of the American victory at Saratoga was the decision by France to intervene in the war.

The French, still seeking revenge for their defeat in North America at the hands of the British in 1763, had been secretly aiding the rebels since the war began through a front company set up in Paris in 1776 under the direction of the author Pierre-Augustin Caron de Beaumarchais.

Military supplies had been given to the rebels through this company, financed by secret loans from the French and Spanish governments.

The American victory at Saratoga prompted bolder action, and in February 1778 the Continental Congress entered into a formal alliance with France. The French agreed to give up their claim to Canada and regions east of the Mississippi River and promised to fight until American independence had been achieved.

In return, the United States opened up their trade to French merchants and agreed to support French territorial gains in the West Indies. Not surprisingly, war broke out between France and Britain over this alliance.

American Army Almost Extinguished at Valley Forge

Despite the addition of the French to the war, Washington faced serious problems. His exhausted eleven thousand-strong army was still undersupplied and undertrained, and he decided to encamp for the winter at Valley Forge in Pennsylvania. The winter was unusually harsh and long-lasting. From December 1777 to June 1778, some 2,500 soldiers died from exposure or disease and desertions cut the army down to an all-time low of about 6,000.

Washington feared for a full-scale mutiny which would have meant the end of the rebellion. At the critical moment, a Prussian volunteer named Baron von Steuben took command of the camp and restored discipline. He also remolded the rebel army through drilling and organizational techniques, using his considerable Prussian military skill to upgrade the American forces and restore their morale.

The British Drive through Georgia

The British army's next move was to secure their two seaports in the north, New York City and Newport. Their army in Philadelphia was evacuated to New York, fighting an inconclusive battle with Washington's forces at Monmouth in New Jersey in June 1778.

With their northern bases secure, the British concentrated on the south. In December 1778, a British army of 3,500 captured the settlement of Savannah, Georgia, and seized Augusta the following month.

By the end of 1779, most of Georgia was captured by the British forces, and in May 1780 British forces, aided by local loyalists, took Charlestown, the major port city of the state of South Carolina. The British conquest of South Carolina was sealed with a further victory at Camden in August 1780.

The War at Sea

The British supply line, across the Atlantic Ocean, was a logistical nightmare. It suffered continual attacks from American warships and from approximately 450 private American ships which were given official permission to attack any British ship they found. These privateers, as they became known, eventually captured or destroyed nearly two thousand British merchant ships.

The tiny American navy also carried out intermittent attacks, and on two occasions temporarily seized the British port of Nassau in the Bahamas. The most famous American naval officer of the war was the Scottish-born John Paul Jones. Originally a sailor in the British navy, he deserted to the American side and joined the fledgling rebel navy where he was given command of a number of newly-built warships.

Jones's most daring acts of war were a raid carried out on the English post of Whitehaven in 1778, and the capture of a British sloop, the *Drake,* off the British coast. Both acts caused considerable consternation in Britain.

The Tide of the War Turns

As the war dragged on, American resistance turned to guerrilla tactics instead of open set-piece battles. In the south, British supply lines were subjected to so many attacks that the redcoats retreated into the large port towns of Savannah and Charlestown rather than be isolated targets in the interior.

A series of important American victories then followed which helped turn the tide of the war. At the October 1780 Battle of Kings Mountain, North Carolina, a rebel militia decisively defeated a loyalist militia.

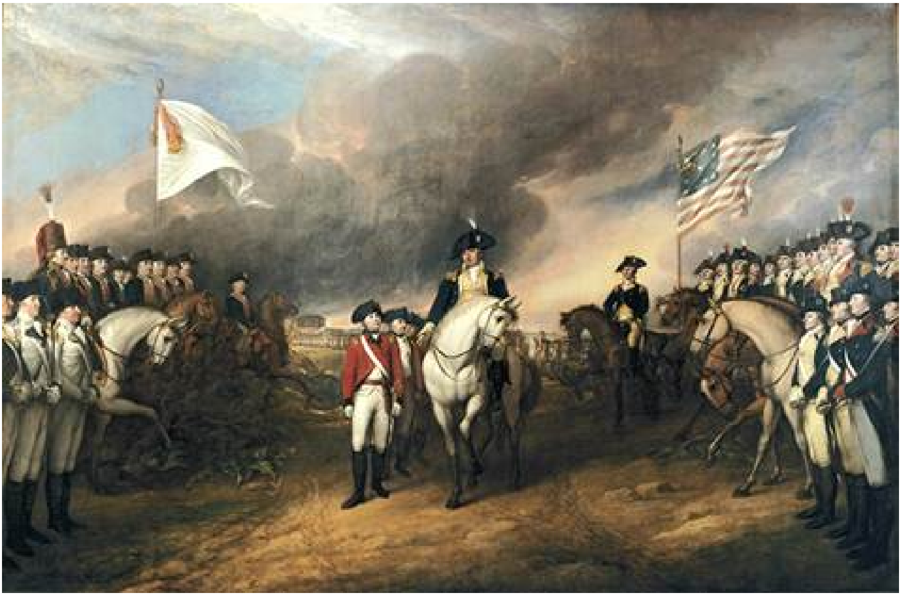
Then in January 1781, the Battle of Cowpens saw the British forces in South Carolina soundly defeated by a rebel army in a clash which was a turning point in the reconquest of South Carolina by the revolutionaries.

In March 1781, American forces were defeated at the North Carolina Battle of Guilford Court House, but it was a pyrrhic victory for the British. After the battle, the main British force moved into South Carolina, which allowed the Americans to regroup and eventually seize back most of the South.

The remaining British troops in South Carolina fought several successful rearguard actions against the Americans, but could not deliver a single decisive defeat as the American guerrillas melted away into the countryside each time a serious defeat seemed imminent.

Meanwhile, Lord General Cornwallis led a British army into Virginia, which proved to be the penultimate disaster for the imperial forces. In July 1780, a French army of five thousand men invaded Newport and ejected the British. The presence of this French army gave Washington enough military strength to attack the British army in Virginia, which was forced to retreat to Yorktown.

YORKTOWN—BRITISH SURRENDER MARKS FINAL VICTORY FOR AMERICANS



The British surrender at Yorktown, October 19, 1781. Falling back on the Virginia village of Yorktown, Lord Cornwallis and his army were besieged by the American continental army. The only hope of relief lay in supply from the sea, but by this time the French had entered the war and blockaded Yorktown Harbor. Cornwallis was faced with no alternative but to surrender. The last major British force was defeated, and the Americans had won.

British Defeat at Yorktown

A French fleet then blockaded Yorktown from the sea, which prevented the British from being evacuated or supplied. By September 1781, the seven thousand-strong British force in Yorktown faced certain defeat at the hands of a combined French and American army which was sixteen thousand-strong.

With no hope of reinforcements, Lord Cornwallis was forced to ask for terms and the siege ended on October 19, 1781, with Cornwallis's surrender. It was the end of Britain's attempts to suppress the colonial uprising.

Treaty of Paris Gives Formal Recognition to the Independence of the Thirteen Colonies

All sides involved in the war signed the Treaty of Paris in 1783, which granted official independence to the thirteen colonies after an eight-year-long war.

Britain had been dragged into a conflict of her own making which she could ultimately not win. Faced with an enemy spread out over a vast territory, there was no center which the British could take which would destroy the rebellion. It was therefore never possible to deliver any single knockout blow. Stripped of allies, simultaneously fighting in the West Indies, America, the North Atlantic, Africa, and India, against a range of sometimes coordinated enemies which included France and its allies (Spain and the Netherlands), Britain was overstretched and was forced to concede defeat after the reverse at Yorktown.

US Constitution Ratified

Having won independence from Britain, the next problem facing the Americans was to devise a constitution which would bind the thirteen ex-colonies into a cohesive political whole. This would prove to be no easy task, as the individualistic spirit upon which the colonies had developed, and which underpinned their resistance to British authority, meant that each state had its own form of government.

These states had been governed during the War of Independence by an unelected congress which had taken certain powers to itself, such as raising an army, borrowing money from foreign governments, and entering into alliances.

These powers codified shortly after independence in an agreement known as the Articles of Confederation, which were in turn ratified by each state.

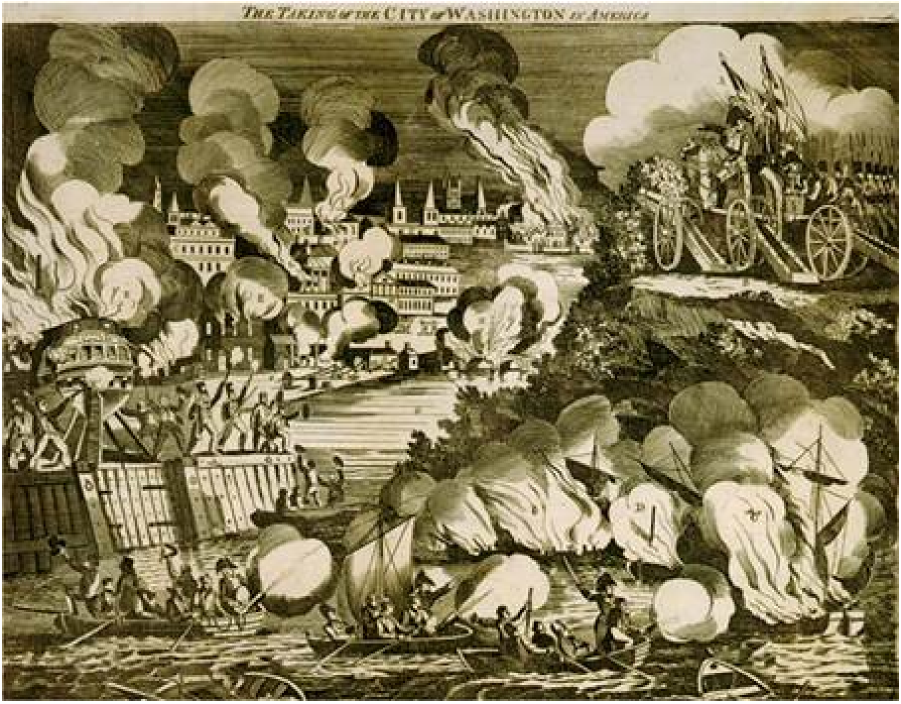
Initially, the Articles of Confederation were designed specifically to prevent the union from interfering with the right of individual states to legislate over their own affairs. This became known as the concept of “states’ rights.” However, the lack of financial policy uniformity soon created problems among the states as some adjusted their currency and taxation levels to the detriment of other states.

The debt incurred as a result of the war also created economic problems caused by an increase in tax. Tensions reached the boiling point in Massachusetts where, in 1786, a dispute over tax and property confiscations caused a second attempted revolution, led by Revolutionary War veteran Captain Daniel Shays. The short-lived Shays’ Rebellion convinced many that there could be no national security or stability without a central government.

A specially-convened Continental Congress met in Philadelphia from May to September 1787 and drew up the Constitution of the United States of America which replaced the Articles of Confederation and gave new and greater powers to a central government.

The new constitution became the law of the land in 1788, and on April 30 of that year, George Washington, who had been unanimously elected the first president of the United States, was inaugurated in America's first capital, New York City.

WASHINGTON DC BURNED BY BRITISH TROOPS 1814


THE TAKING of the CITY of WASHINGTON in AMERICA

The city of Washington DC is burned by British troops, August 24, 1814.

British Invade Again in War of 1812

The Treaty of Paris did not end tensions between America and Britain. By 1812, America had instituted a boycott of British goods after the Royal Navy had harassed American merchant ships on the pretext of searching for deserters. The real reason for the harassment, however, was to send a message to America not to enter the then still-raging European wars on Napoleon's side. The US Congress was finally provoked into direct action after it emerged that the British had given aid to the Shawnee Indian tribe which had violently resisted American territorial expansion.

In June 1812, the US Congress declared war on Britain. American forces then invaded British North America (Canada) at a number of border points located between Detroit and Montreal. The ill-conceived and hurried plan went awry almost immediately.

British Capture Detroit

The British, acting in partnership with their Shawnee allies, launched a counterattack and captured Detroit, while on the Niagara peninsula two American armies were defeated at the Battle of Queenston Heights. The next year, a hurriedly and purpose-built American navy defeated a British fleet on Lake Erie, which allowed ground forces to recapture Detroit. A renewed American assault captured York (now called Toronto) and a combined British–Shawnee army was defeated at the Battle of the Thames in October 1813.

In the same year, the war spread to the southwest when the Creek Indians seized the opportunity to attack. An American army under Andrew Jackson inflicted a crushing defeat on the Creeks at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in March 1814 which ended that phase of the conflict.

British Burn Washington DC

In the north, American forces had held their advance positions against repeated assaults at the Battles of Chippewa and Lundy’s Lane near Niagara. Napoleon’s defeat in Europe, however, freed up a large number of British troops who were redeployed from the European theater of war to North America. Renewed British land and sea invasions took place at Lake Champlain and in the Chesapeake Bay. British troops advanced south and occupied Washington DC, burning it to the ground in August 1814. Their advance positions nearly took Baltimore as well, but were halted just outside that city.

It was during the British bombardment of Baltimore that the American poet, Francis Scott Key, wrote “The Star-Spangled Banner” which later became the American national anthem.

An American counterattack relieved the siege of Baltimore and retook the ruins of Washington. Simultaneously, a British land invasion of the state of New York was halted after the Americans seized control of Lake Champlain following the naval Battle of Plattsburgh in September 1814.

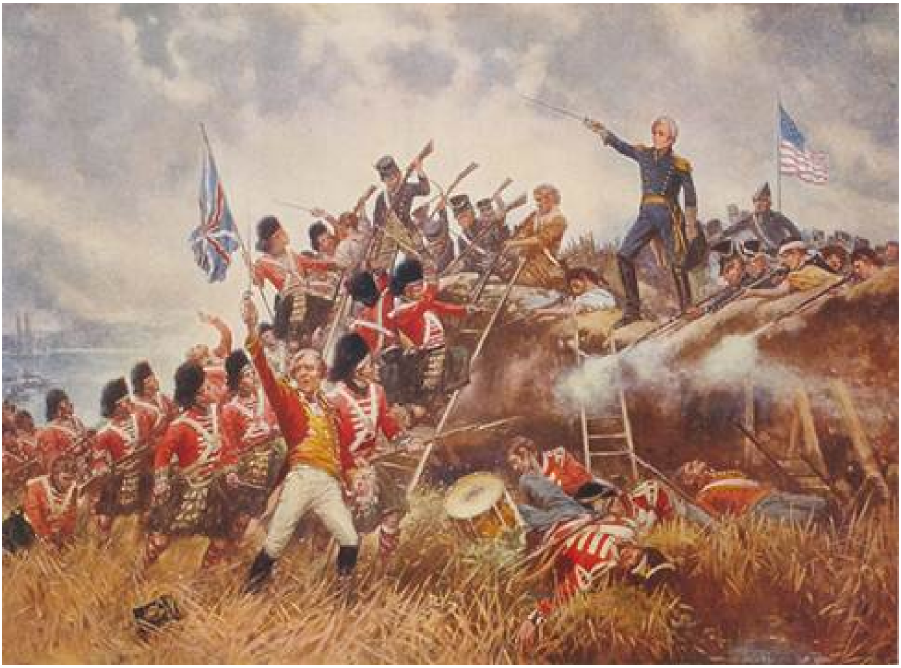
In August 1814, a British force landed at Pensacola, Florida, and prepared the port as a base for incursions into the American

South. In the Mississippi Valley, concentrated around the present-day Iowa/Illinois and Missouri borders, a fierce series of conflicts took place between American forces and the British-backed Sauk Indians. The initial assault was so fierce that the Americans were forced to abandon Fort Madison in September 1813.

A British attack from Canada in July 1814 resulted in an American defeat at the Battle of Prairie du Chien, located at the confluence of the Mississippi and Wisconsin Rivers. The same month, an American attempt to capture Mackinac Island was repulsed by a spirited British defence.

Most of the territorial gains by the British and their Indian allies remained in place until the end of the war, when they were returned to American control in terms of the treaty which ended the conflict.

BRITISH DEFEATED AT NEW ORLEANS 1815



American Major General Andrew Jackson defended the city of New Orleans against a surprise attack by British forces in January 1815, over two weeks after a treaty had been concluded ending the War of 1812. Jackson became very popular as a result, and was later elected to be seventh president of the United States in 1829.

British Attack after Peace Treaty Signed

By 1814, support for the war had faded in America and in Britain. Exhaustion and growing pressure for peace forced the governments of both nations to sign the Treaty of Ghent in December 1814. This agreement, signed in Belgium, restored the border between America and British North America to its original line.

Although the treaty was concluded in December, news of the peace took two months to reach the British forces in Florida. As a result, the British forces attacked the city of New Orleans early in January 1815.

The American general Andrew Jackson had been sent south with an army to prepare the city's defences and, in one of the most famous victories of the war, soundly defeated the British attack at the Battle of New Orleans.

The final ratification of the Treaty of Ghent was completed by both sides in February 1815, and the war came to its official end.

Racial Consequences of the American Wars

The War of Independence was psychologically testing for the white colonists. Of the approximately 400,000 adult white men who lived in the colonies in 1775, about 175,000 fought in the war, either as rebels or loyalists. Thus, husbands or sons from nearly half of all families were part of the war.

The American Revolution also carried with it clear racial undertones. The British call to black slaves to rebel against white Americans and the raising and arming of all-black armies for this purpose served to alienate Africans from the new republic.

Many crossed into British North America along with loyalist supporters to escape the slave-owning Americans, despite limited attempts by the republic to offer freedom in exchange for military service against the British.

Black Slave Population Was 20 Percent of Total Founding Population

The population in the American colonies had grown by leaps and bounds. In 1700, there were around a quarter of a million people in the thirteen colonies, but by 1775 this number had grown to 2.5 million. Of this number, 567,000 (20 percent) were African slaves, up from the 1775 slave total of around 250,000.

The large black population was subjected to strict social segregation, and racial miscegenation was specifically outlawed, being viewed as a criminal offence. Many of these anti-miscegenation laws were only repealed in the 1960s.

Although America always had a large black population, they were never absorbed into the white mainstream, as was the case in Portugal, where that process was actively encouraged.

Shawnee and Creek Amerind Power Broken

The most important consequence of the War of 1812 was the destruction of the Shawnee and Creek Indians' ability to resist further white American expansion. This had major consequences for the next phase of American history which was the opening of the West Coast. This action would spark off a prolonged race war with the Indians which would ultimately lead to that race's complete defeat.

CHAPTER 49: The Seventh Great Race War—the Amerinds

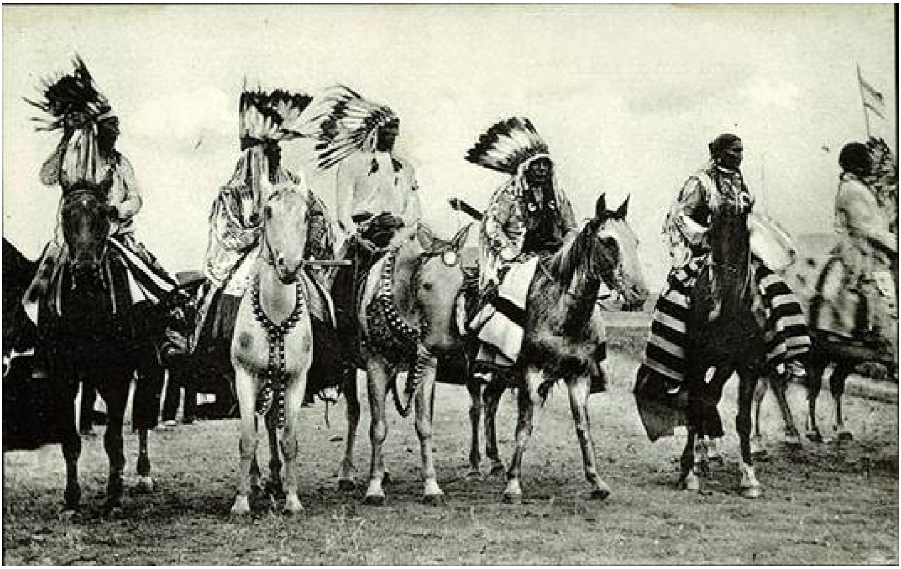
The settlement of North America by white immigrants was achieved at the expense of the nonwhite people already living on the continent, the Amerinds, or so-called “Red Indians.”

This conquest and population replacement in North America is an outstanding example of the principle which underpins the rise and fall of every civilization, namely that those who form the majority of the population determine the nature of the society in that territory.

Before the white settlers arrived, the dominant culture in North America was Amerind. After the whites arrived and replaced the Amerinds as the majority population, the dominant culture in North America became European. The Amerind culture “fell” because the population makeup of continental North America changed—not because of any military defeat the Amerinds may have suffered.

Simply put, the Amerinds lost demographic control of their territory. The story of their dispossession contains a lesson which present-day America ignores at its peril. As a result, an overview of precisely how the Amerinds were dispossessed—through losing the demographic war—is well worthwhile.

THE INDIAN BRAVE—ARMED WITH GUNS AND HORSES OBTAINED FROM THE WHITES



Armed with firearms and horses—neither of which the Red Indians had before whites arrived in North America—the Amerinds of the Great Plains were not the easy military pushover that their stone-age armed cousins on the East Coast had been. Armed resistance against European encroachment took place until late in the nineteenth century.

Amerinds of Mongoloid Stock

The Amerinds were long considered to be of Mongoloid racial stock, descended from people who had entered North America from Asia some twelve thousand years ago over what would presumably have been a land bridge or the frozen Bering Straits.

Recent genetic testing carried out on numerous Amerind tribes has identified the dominant male ancestry Y-chromosome in North and South America to be Haplotype Q. This is of interest because it is the dominant haplotype in Mongolia, and not in all of Asia. This would indicate that the Amerinds are more closely related to the Mongol people, and not Asians in general.

There is even less Asiatic female lineage in Amerinds than in the male line, a fact which has created intense speculation among geneticists. The most likely explanation is that the Amerinds are descended from a Mongol tribe who took some other Asiatic female tribes with them on their travels to the Americas.

Amerinds are only called "Indians" today because the first white explorers to set foot in the Americas during the Age of Exploration were looking for India. In addition, they were known as

“Red Indians” because of the American east coast Indian trait of wearing red clay as face paint.

First Contact with the Amerinds

The first meeting of whites and Amerinds in North America was by all accounts very one-sided. The Amerinds were in awe of the technological wonders which accompanied the white explorers, starting with their ships. The billowing sails appeared like great ghosts on the sea’s horizon and more than one instance is recorded of Amerinds fleeing in panic at the very sight of an explorer ship.

If they were in awe of the sight of the ships, it needs no imagination to perceive what they must have thought of the other wonders from the white world: clothes, steel, guns, mirrors, jewelry, copper, brass kettles, nails, and thousands of other ordinary everyday things completely unknown to the native peoples of North America.

The white explorers were also to introduce yet another wonder to North America which would be seized upon and used to great effect by the Amerinds: horses. The first horses were introduced to the continent by the Spanish who established some of the earlier settlements in present-day Florida.

Some of these horses escaped and by natural breeding formed large packs of wild animals which roamed the plains of America for nearly two centuries, and which were later tamed and ridden by the Amerinds after they witnessed the whites using horses.

Finally, the new arrivals were not only light-complexioned, but many of them also had beards and they all grew facial hair. This was by itself a subject of wonder for the Amerinds, who in their pure racial form did not grow facial hair at all, like their Mongolian cousins across the Bering Straits in Asia.

In turn, the Amerinds presented the white world with tobacco, cocoa, and venereal disease. The rapid transmission of the latter disease back to Europe from South America serves as a graphic illustration of the levels of physical integration which took place on that continent, starting shortly after the Spanish and Portuguese first landed there.

Scalping and Cannibalism

However, the two traits for which the Amerinds became known—and for which they were also particularly disliked:

- The practice common among all the tribes of North America of cutting off the scalps of their vanquished foes to take as trophies for display in the tribal village. The scalps from white people, with their distinctive blond, red, brown, or dark brown hair, were particularly prized by the Amerinds who were more accustomed to taking scalps from each other; and,

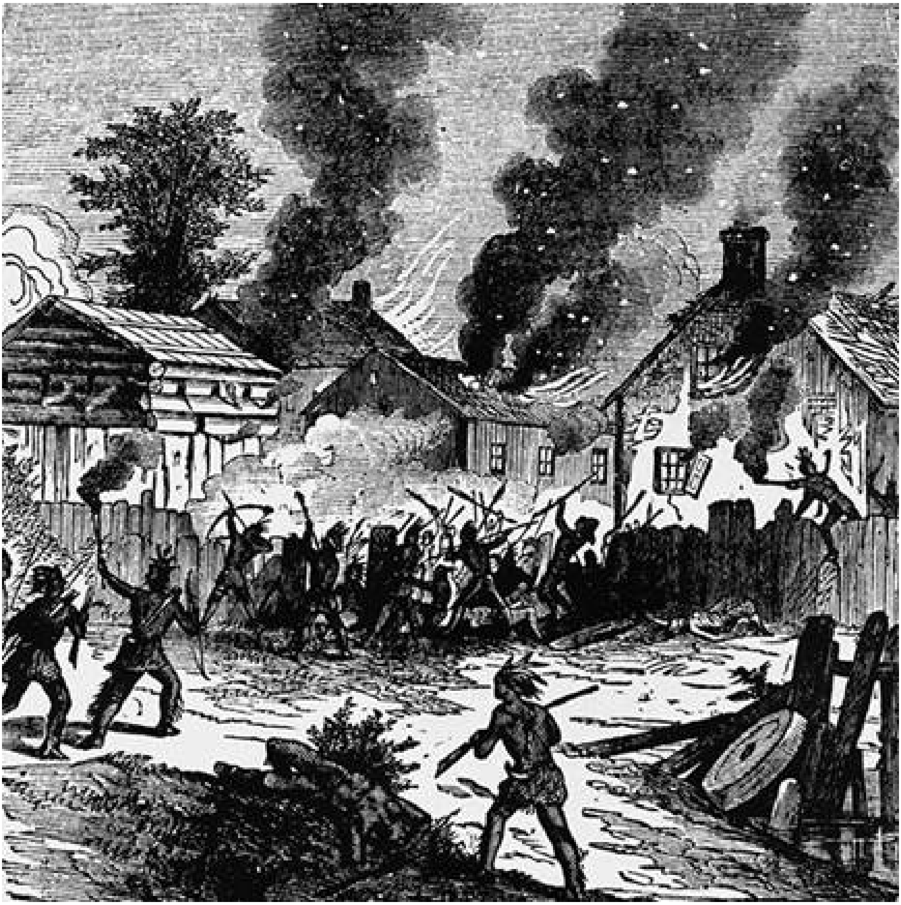
- Ritualistic cannibalism, a practice which the Amerinds shared with their racial cousins in Central and South America.

The full extent of Amerind cannibalism is glossed over by present-day historians, but was noted in detail by all early writers, with the most complete and detailed account appearing in *The Works of Francis Parkman* (Vol. III, Little Brown, Boston, 1892).

The term cannibalism is derived from *Canibales,* the Spanish name for the human flesh-eating Caribbean Amerinds who lived in the West Indies during the time of Christopher Columbus. Cannibalism had obviously come across the Bering Straits when the Mongolian ancestors of the Amerinds had crossed into the Americas. In medieval times, the Italian traveler Marco Polo reported that tribes from Tibet to Sumatra practiced cannibalism.

For the sake of political correctness, these disturbing traits are largely suppressed in present-day histories of the Amerinds. At the time, however, Amerind cannibalism was common, well-known, and feared by the white settlers. The twin practices of scalping and cannibalism go a long way to explain why the early white settlers looked down upon the Amerinds, and why the conflict between the two races became particularly ruthless. Eventually, some of the more extreme and isolated white frontiersmen retaliated against the Amerinds by engaging in scalping as well, but there are no recorded incidents of whites ever eating dead Indians.

WHITE SETTLERS ATTACKED BY AMERINDS



The town of Deerfield, Massachusetts, was attacked and burned to the ground by Indians in 1704. More than fifty of its inhabitants were killed, and one hundred led away into captivity, never to be seen again. Attacks of this nature were commonplace against early white settlements in North America. These events developed cumulatively into the Seventh Great Race War, between whites and the Amerinds, a conflict which ended in the total defeat of the Red Indians.

Powhatans Nearly Destroy White Settlement in Virginia

In Virginia, the first successful large-scale English colony, established in 1607, was subjected to repeated attacks by the Powhatan tribe. A ferocious attack in 1622 saw 350 whites killed—a devastating loss, as there were only just over 1000 Europeans in the colony at the time.

In April 1644, another Powhatan attack killed five hundred whites. This blow nearly utterly destroyed the colony. Incensed, the surviving whites set out to exact retribution. A short vicious campaign followed which forced the Amerind tribes to retreat inland.

Bacon's Rebellion

In 1676, a white farmer by the name of Nathaniel Bacon and a number of his fellow settlers came under renewed Amerind attack in Virginia. The British governor of the colony, Sir William Berkeley, refused to station troops in the outlying areas to protect the farmers, and as a result Bacon organized a substantial militia and led this private army against the Amerinds.

After Bacon's militia had inflicted some important defeats upon the Amerind forces, Berkeley proclaimed Bacon a traitor because the farmer had illegally raised a private army.

Bacon then marched on the capital, Jamestown, with his militia in tow and seized control of the colonial government. Berkeley gathered together a force of loyal colonists and started a mini-civil war in the colony. The uprising ended the same year it started, 1676, with Bacon's death.

Metacom Attacks Whites in New England

The creation of the colony of New England was also met with violent Amerind resistance. In 1675, the Wampanoag Indians, under their leader Metacom (who had adopted the European name Philip), launched a guerrilla war against the white settlers.

The conflict, which became known as King Philip's War, was particularly brutal and exacted a large toll in European lives. When it ended in defeat for Metacom, he was killed by one of his own people. As revenge, the Puritan settlers mounted Metacom's head on a pike at the entrance to Fort Plymouth, where it remained for twenty years as a warning to other Indians.

The first Dutch settlement in North America in the area now known as Manhattan Island was, according to the popular story, purchased from Amerinds for twenty-four dollars worth of goods in 1626. Despite whatever transaction may have taken place (the lack of understanding of the concept of private ownership of land by the Amerinds probably made any agreement meaningless to the natives), Amerind attacks on the whites in the area fast became the norm and never fully subsided until the continuing buildup of European settlers forced the surviving Amerinds back into the interior.

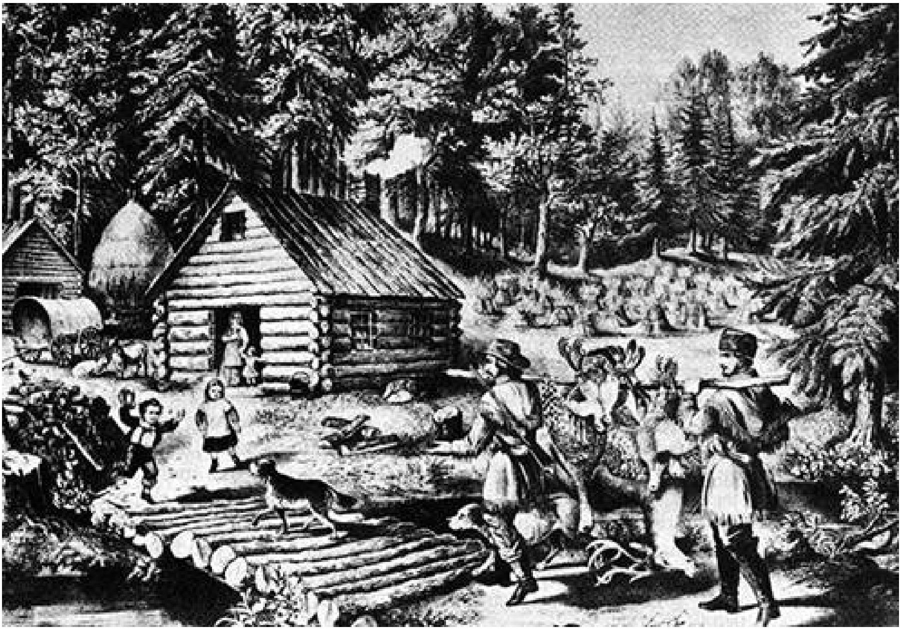
British Restrict White Settlement East of the Appalachians

As the number of whites increased on America's eastern seaboard, the Amerinds moved in ever greater numbers back into what is now known as the Midwest. Sometimes this occurred as part of a natural migration, while at other times it was the result of a retreat from avenging white militia. In 1763, the Ottowa Indian chief Pontiac led an attack on Fort Detroit and for three years thereafter led Amerind resistance around the Great Lakes and Illinois area.

The ongoing unrest west of the Appalachians caused the British authorities in the colonies to issue a proclamation which restricted white settlement to the area east of the Appalachian Mountains, an early attempt to prevent further race wars from breaking out.

By the time the thirteen colonies—which made up less than one third of the territory that the United States of America was eventually to encompass—had declared independence from Britain, the vast majority of Amerinds were on the western side of the Appalachian Mountains, away from the white settlers and their colonies.

MANIFEST DESTINY—THE FRONTIER SPIRIT



An accurate representation of a western frontier home. Such settlements were typical of those created by the ideal of "Manifest Destiny" which spurred on the westward drive to open up the Midwest and West Coast of *continental North America. These early settlers viewed it as their destiny to open up the virgin land for Western civilization, and an unwritten ethos pervaded the motivation of those who took part in the great drive westward.*

The Creation of the United States of America and the Amerinds

When the American War of Independence broke out, the vast majority of the Iroquois Amerinds actively sided with the British. In the south, the Cherokee, Choctaw, and Creek Amerinds seized the opportunity to launch a series of attacks on the white American colonists. Soon they became formally allied to the British as well.

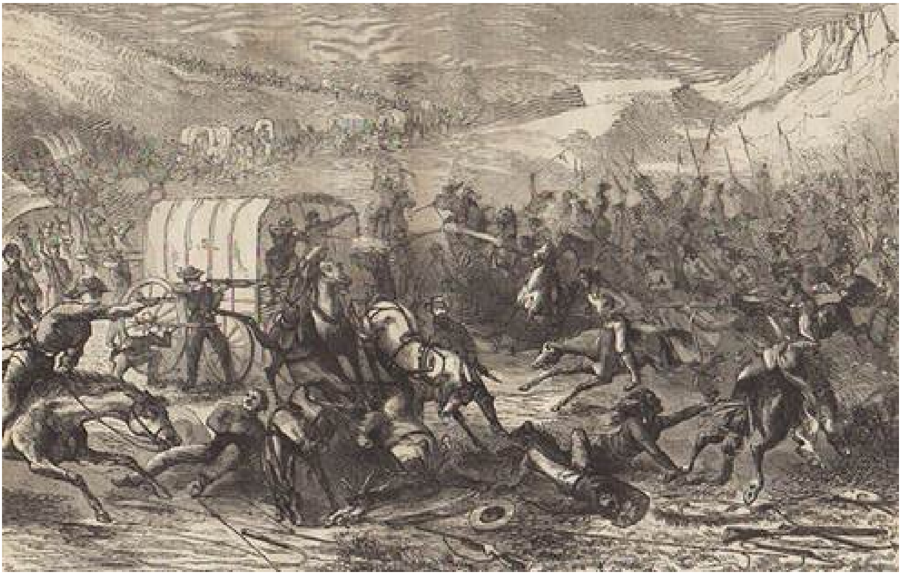
The American revolutionaries therefore had to put down all these Amerind uprisings and fight the British at the same time. Although this caused the American forces to be divided for a period, they were ultimately successful in suppressing the Indians and defeating the British.

When independence was finally won, the Amerind participation in the war on Britain's side served to confirm the opinion of the new nation that the Amerinds were irreparably hostile to their cause. Thus it was that the American constitution, accepted by the thirteen former colonies shortly after independence, included the regulation of relations with the Amerinds under the clause which dealt with the regulation of relations with "foreign" states.

Article I, Section 8 of the Constitution reads: "The Congress shall have Power . . . To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes."

The original Founding Fathers of the United States therefore had not the slightest intention of ever including the Amerinds into their republic and specifically classed them as aliens along with all other "foreign nations."

INDIANS ATTACK AS WHITES MOVE WEST ACROSS AMERICA



Indians attack a settler wagon during the Great Plains Wars. By this time, the Indians had horses and some firearms—things their forefathers did not have prior to the advent of the European settlements—and posed a far greater military threat than before.

The Battle of Fallen Timbers 1794

White numbers continued to grow exponentially after the successful outcome of the American Revolution. This in turn led to increased demands for new farming land, and white settlers started to drift out westward, moving into the present-day regions of the Ohio Valley, Kentucky, and Tennessee.

Large numbers of Amerinds lived in all of these regions, and some had been there since before the discovery of the continent by the Columbus-era explorers. Once again the scenario which had played itself out along the East Coast occurred: the initially small in number white settlements were ferociously attacked by Indians, and then, as the European numbers increased, the settlers' ability to ward off and defeat the natives increased proportionally.

This time however (and this would set the pattern right until the last great Amerind-white race war in the late nineteenth century), the Amerinds had by now obtained and mastered many of the white settlers' weapons and horses. Armed and mobile, the Amerinds of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee therefore proved far harder to beat, as evidenced by the utter defeat of a white army despatched to deal with an Indian war party near Fort Wayne in present-day Indiana.

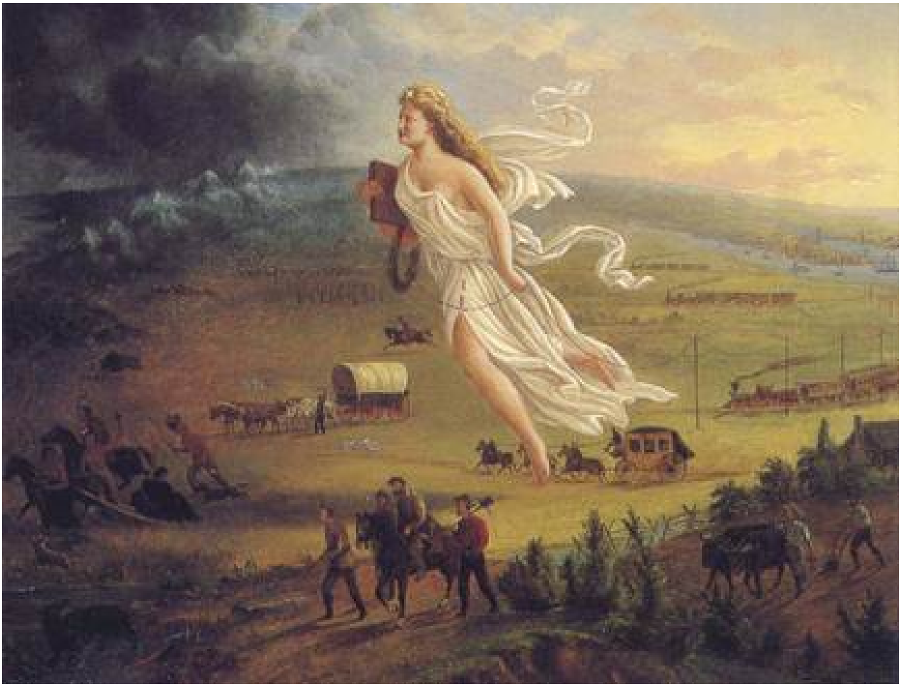
The ongoing conflict came to a head at the 1794 Battle of Fallen Timbers in northwestern Ohio, where a white punitive force, sent to avenge a particularly nasty series of Amerind attacks, decisively defeated the natives. An agreement between the races, known as the Treaty of Greenville, established a definite boundary between what was designated "Indian territory" and white settlement.

The Trade and Intercourse Acts

Despite the relatively hostile attitude toward the Indians which prevailed among most white Americans, there was a genuine desire to prevent unscrupulous traders and frontiersmen from ruthlessly exploiting their lack of sophistication.

As a result, the US Congress passed a series of laws known as the Trade and Intercourse Acts at the end of the eighteenth century which attempted to regulate trading practices with the Amerinds. Among the measures were provisions allowing for the punishment of traders found to be defrauding Indians, and a number of other punitive measures all designed to protect the tribes from economic exploitation.

***AMERICAN PROGRESS*—1872 PAINTING CAPTURES ESSENCE OF MANIFEST DESTINY**



This 1872 painting by John Gast, titled American Progress, *accurately sums up the ideology which underpinned the concept of Manifest Destiny. The feminine personification of America, Columbia, travels westward, sweeping away the natives and darkness before her. She holds a schoolbook, to symbolize learning, and simultaneously lays a telegraph wire. Below and behind her, white settlers bring the light of civilization, building farms, railroads, and technology.*

"Manifest Destiny" Drives Whites on to Further Conquest

The white frontiersmen in the Ohio River Valley experienced a similar terror and anxiety in their daily lives as was felt by the first European settlers on the Eastern Seaboard. They were subjected to intermittent and unexpected attacks and forced to be constantly on their guard. Their lives were divided between the rugged demands of life spent partly at war and partly at creating entire towns and farms. This state of affairs helped to create what later became known as the "manifest destiny" syndrome. The frontiersmen began to regard it as their sacred duty to wrest new land away from the Amerinds and open it to Western civilization. They viewed the Amerinds as a savage race under whom a rich and bountiful continent had lain idle for thousands of years.

It was up to these frontiersmen to settle the land, break the soil, and make the country productive, they argued. This belief in an ordained destiny which would bring civilization to the interior of the continent was fed by the ongoing conflicts with the Amerinds—on a daily basis, the frontiersmen had to deal with unspeakable nonwhite brutalities which reinforced their belief in their own superiority and destiny.

This attitude, however, was opposed by a small, but growing in number, party of whites on the relatively easy living Eastern Seaboard who were not exposed to the dangers, violence, and rigors of life on the frontier. This was the beginning of an ideological split in the white American population which would ultimately become associated with the issue of slavery and racial conflict.

The War of 1812–Amerinds Ally with British

During the American–British War of 1812, the Shawnee Amerinds sided with Britain, partly as a result of having suffered a defeat at the hands of an American force at the 1811 Battle of Tippecanoe in Indiana.

The Shawnee had long been receiving British aid from British

North America (Canada), and this alliance was one of the causes of the outbreak of the war between America and Britain. The Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, was killed when the Americans defeated a combined British and Shawnee force at the Battle of the Thames in October 1813.

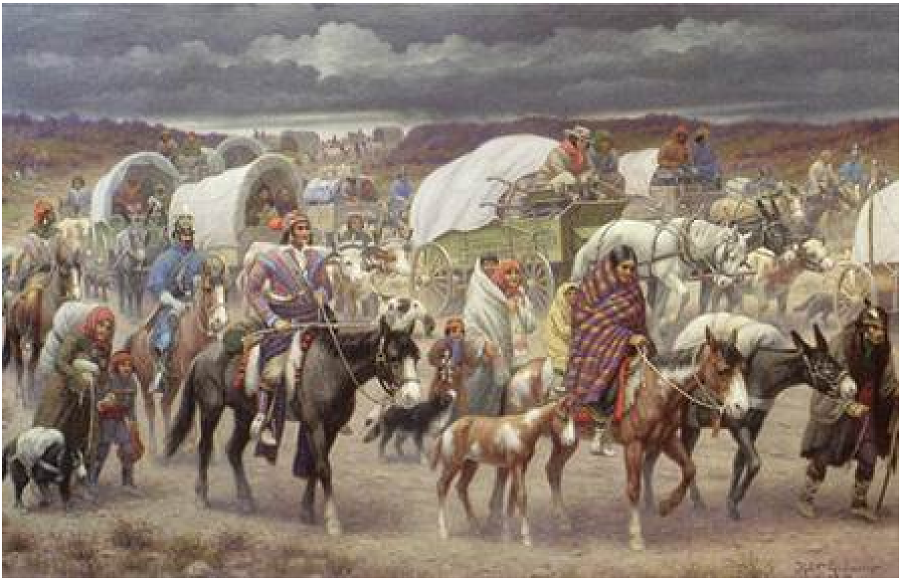
Whites Eaten by Amerinds at Fort Mims

In Alabama, the Creek Amerinds seized Fort Mims in 1812 and cruelly massacred all the white inhabitants: men, women, and children alike. Ironically, the Indians let the black slaves captured in the fort survive, only to enslave them in turn.

The Amerinds then engaged in a cannibalistic feast on the dead remains of all the whites they could find. An avenging army under General Andrew Jackson was sent south and after two years of conflict, the Creek were decisively defeated at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in March 1814.

Andrew Jackson went on to be elected president of the United States in 1828, and his firsthand experiences with the Amerinds made him turn a deaf ear to the liberals of the Eastern Seaboard with regard to racial matters. It was largely a result of Jackson's maneuvering that the next great event in American Amerind policy took place—the Removal Act.

INDIANS MOVED WEST OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER 1830



The 1830 Indian Removal Act was passed in an attempt to get Indians to *move voluntarily to land west of the Mississippi River. Most Indian tribes moved peacefully, but some refused and at least two major wars with the Sauk, Fox, and Seminole tribes erupted. By 1850, most of the land east of the Mississippi had been cleared of Indians.*

The Removal Act—Indians Moved West

By 1830, the numbers of whites in the region between the Mississippi River and the Appalachian Mountains had reached the point where it was no longer possible to efficiently regulate the very often violent interaction between the settlers and Amerinds.

As a result, in May of that year, the US Congress passed the Indian Removal Act, which empowered the president of the United States to move Amerinds west of the Mississippi to the what was officially declared "Indian Territory," centered in the American Midwest, particularly the state now known as Oklahoma.

White liberals on the Eastern Seaboard viewed the Removal Act as an outrage perpetuated by the same people who owned black slaves, and opposed it as best they could, although ultimately all their efforts were to be in vain.

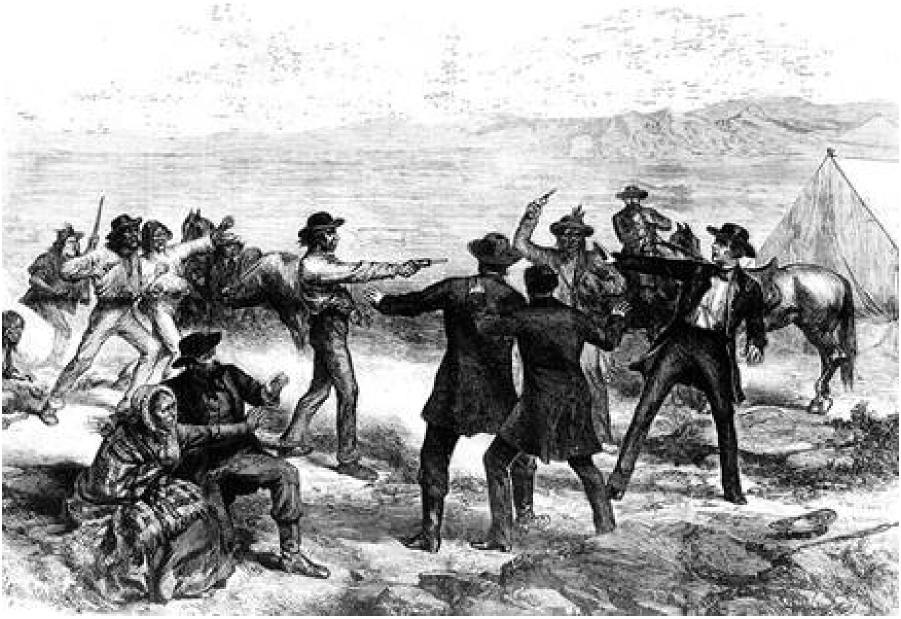
Amerind Resistance Flares Up

The Removal Act's intention was for the Amerinds to move west of the Mississippi voluntarily. While the vast majority of moves were indeed peaceful (the Amerinds were as keen to get away from the whites as the latter were to be rid of the former), a small number were not. These groups became the target for forced removals which later became icons of oppression for the Indians.

The Sauk and Fox tribes rebelled in 1832, an act which sparked off the Black Hawk War in Illinois and Wisconsin. This conflict ended in August the same year when the last major group of Sauk warriors were defeated by US Army troopers while trying to cross the Mississippi River into Iowa. The circumstances of this battle—in which the Indians were ambushed while halfway through the river—resulted in so many fatalities on the Amerind side that it became known as the Bad Axe Massacre.

The Seminole tribe in Florida was the next to rise in rebellion. The Seminole War followed from 1835 to 1842, which ended with this tribe being utterly defeated and rounded up into a reservation against their will. By the mid-1850s, almost all of the eastern half of America had been cleared of Amerinds, either through voluntary departure or forced removal.

MODOC INDIANS MURDER WHITE PEACE PARTY 1873



The Modoc leader Captain Jack Kientpoos murders General Edward Canby and the peace commission on April 11, 1873. This incident enraged American popular opinion against the Modoc. A renewed military campaign defeated the Indian tribe and they were moved to Oklahoma. Kientpoos and three of his henchmen were hanged.

Indian Reservations Established

The rate of white expansion into the Midwest and beyond right through to the Pacific Coast during the mid-nineteenth century made the concept of “Indian territory” west of the Mississippi unsustainable. In an effort to reach a compromise between the demands of the white settlers and the objections of the Amerinds, the concept of “Indian territories” was then changed into “Indian reservations.

It was decided that these “reservations” would be smaller in geographic size than the originally designated “Indian territories.” In exchange for accepting the smaller lands, the American government gave the ironclad guarantee that the reservations would be immutable and that whites would never be able to settle in or encroach upon them in any way. Furthermore, these reservations would be the inalienable property of the Indian tribes, whose numbers had by this stage dropped from an estimated 850,000 in 1550 to just under

400,000.

Given these sparse numbers, it was fairly reasonable to presume that the reservation system would protect the Amerinds while still opening up the western half of the continent to European settlement.

Gold Rush Sparks New White Settlement

The 1849 discovery of gold in the western territories caused a new wave of white settlers to pour across the Midwest to settle what would later become the American west coast. In Idaho and Oregon, a conflict between white settlers and the Bannock and Shoshone tribes was the first open war to break out.

Soon, this pattern was followed in Nevada and Utah, where the Ute tribe waged war against the white pioneers, while in the southwest, the Apache and Navajo put up the most organized resistance.

End of Indian Resistance in California

In northern California, the whites were set upon by the Modoc tribe, who were particularly vicious even by established Amerind standards. In 1852, a Modoc raiding party slaughtered sixty-five whites in a wagon train at Bloody Point, sparking off a series of tit-for-tat conflicts which lasted until 1864. That year, a peace treaty was signed in terms of which the Modocs agreed to move to a reservation in Oregon.

The Modoc sojourn on the reservation was short-lived as they came into conflict with a neighboring Indian tribe, the Klamaths, and left for California once again in 1870. An Indian witchdoctor emerged among the Modoc who claimed to be able to protect its warriors against the white man’s bullets by means of a ritual dance which became known as the “Ghost Dance.”

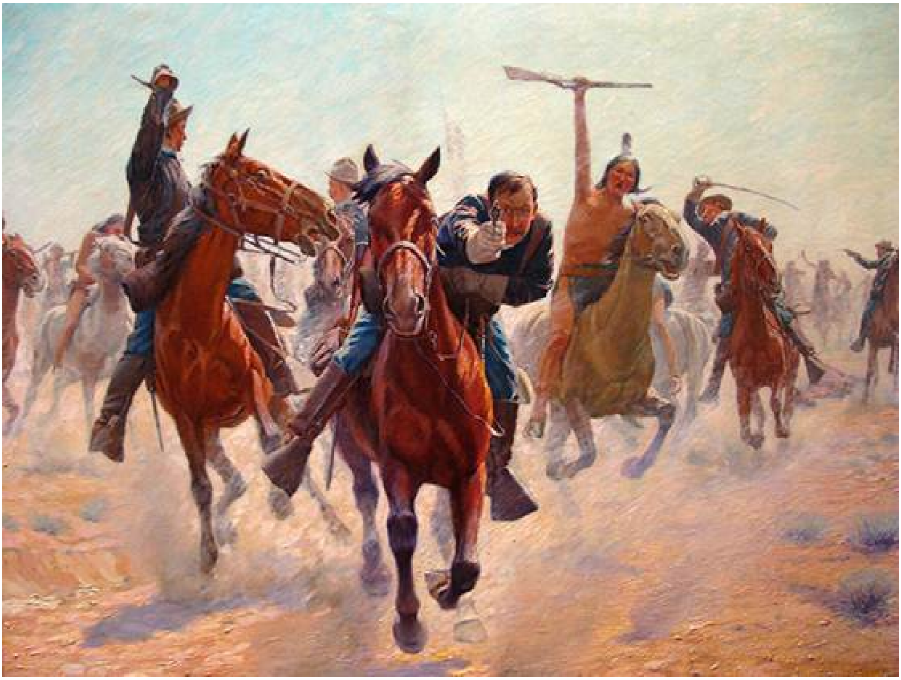
Armed with this belief in their own immortality, the Modocs soon came into conflict with the US Army. After a confrontation on the Lost River in 1872, a Modoc party murdered eighteen white settlers in the area and then fled to a vast lava bed honeycombed with outcroppings, caves, and caverns known as “The Stronghold.” The difficult terrain made it extremely difficult to dislodge the Modoc from this natural fortress, and after losing dozens of soldiers with no gains, US Army General Edward Richard Sprigg Canby opened negotiations with the Modoc leader, Captain Jack Kientpoos, in 1873.

This proved to be an error, for the unarmed General Canby and his staff were murdered by the Modocs while sitting with Kientpoos at a meeting on Good Friday, April 11, 1873. There could be no further negotiations after such treachery, and three days later the US Army laid siege to the Stronghold in even greater numbers than before.

The Modoc army, now reduced in numbers, was pursued by the enraged troopers and after a series of engagements, the last Modoc warriors, Kientpoos included, surrendered at the beginning of June.

Kientpoos and three others were hanged for the murder of General Canby, and the Modocs were permanently moved to reservations in Oklahoma.

US CAVALRY PURSUE AMERINDS DURING THE GREAT PLAINS WARS



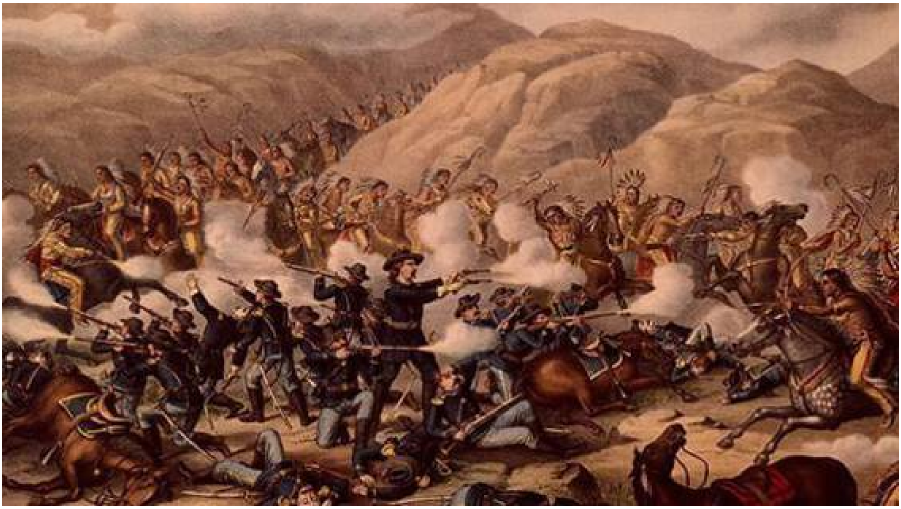
A skirmish during the Great Plains Wars between Indians and US cavalry. This conflict was the last stage of the race war with the Amerinds. The Indian defeat saw two billion acres of new land opened to white occupation.

The Plains Wars See Amerinds' Final Defeat

The flood of European settlers westward, and the creation of the reservations, together sparked off the last major series of conflicts with the Indians which were later collectively called the Plains Wars. Some Amerind tribes readily accepted the reservations plan, but many did not, choosing instead to violently resist. As a result, the white–Amerind race war, which had continued in fits and starts ever since the first Europeans arrived in North America, then entered its conclusive phase.

Clashes took place up and down the Midwest and on the West Coast as the Arapaho, Cheyenne, and Sioux tribes in particular fought ferociously against the US Army. The most famous of these engagements, which would also mark a turning point in the war, was the Battle of the Little Bighorn.

BATTLE OF THE LITTLE BIG HORN—LAST AMERIND VICTORY
1876



General George Custer (1839–1876), the American cavalry leader who was killed along with his entire command by Sioux and Cheyenne Indians on the Little Bighorn River. A Civil War veteran for the Unionists, Custer became lieutenant colonel of the 7th Cavalry and was assigned to protect the Northern Pacific Railway against attacks by the Indians. In 1876, Custer was pursuing an Indian group who were preparing a revolt when he and 260 of his men were trapped by a surprise Indian attack. None survived the battle, which was the last Amerind victory in their race war against the whites in North America.

Battle of the Little Bighorn 1876

Fought as part of the Great Sioux War, the 1876 Battle of the Little Bighorn was fought between the Northern Cheyenne and

Arapaho tribes, led by several Indian chiefs including Crazy Horse and Gall, and 655 US Army troopers led by George Armstrong Custer from the 7th Cavalry Regiment.

Gold had been discovered in nearby Black Hills, Montana, in 1874, and this had led to the inevitable influx of white prospectors into what was Amerind land. The Sioux and Cheyenne chiefs: Sitting Bull, Crazy Horse, and Gall, organized raiding parties against the white intruders in an attempt to drive them off.

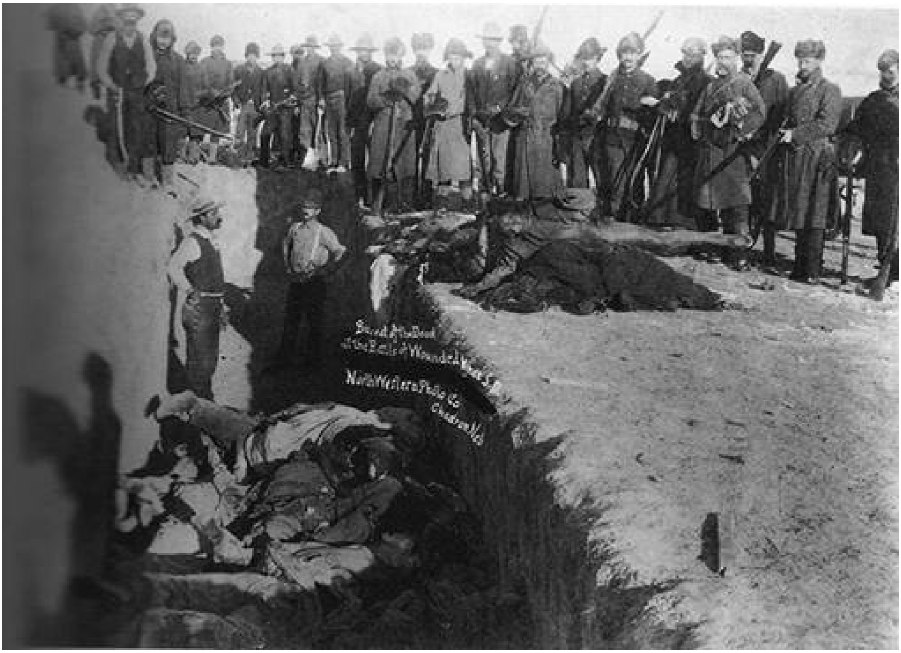
After two years of ongoing attacks, the US Army's 7th Cavalry was posted to the area to protect the white prospectors. In June 1876, Custer led an advance on a war party of Sioux at the junction of the Bighorn and the Little Bighorn rivers. Custer had no idea that the Indian party was as big as it was—some four thousand strong—and by the time he realized it, the die had been cast.

Faced with the huge Indian army, Custer had no alternative but to try and charge his way through, so he led a charge of 260 of his men into the waiting Amerinds in an attempt to disperse their lines.

The charge failed and Custer and his tiny force were surrounded. Standing back-to-back, Custer and his soldiers were slowly cut down one by one and all were killed. Within a year, follow-up operations by the US Army crushed the last of the Sioux and Cheyenne resistance.

The Amerinds were then moved into reservations where isolated clashes took place until the 1870s. By 1880 the conflict had all but petered out, but flared up again one last time ten years later.

WOUNDED KNEE—THE END OF INDIAN RESISTANCE 1890



An official US government archive photograph of a mass grave of Indians killed at the Battle of Wounded Knee, December 1890. This battle, which saw over two hundred Sioux Indians killed, was the last major conflict in the Seventh Great Race War.

The Battle of Wounded Knee 1890

The Plains Wars came to a final bloody end at the Battle of Wounded Knee in December 1890. A Sioux medicine man, Wovoka, started prophesying among his tribe in the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation in South Dakota that if they performed a version of the ritual “Ghost Dance” (first started by the Modocs), their dead ancestors would be resurrected and cause the death of all the whites.

The prophesy spread like wildfire among the Sioux. The Ghost Dance belief became common, as did more practical steps such as the stockpiling of guns and ammunition, ready for the rebellion when announced by the soon-to-be resurrected ancestors.

The American government soon became aware of the goings-on, and in December 1890, ordered a detachment of Indian Agency Police to arrest Sitting Bull. The Indian Agency Police were Indians appointed by the government to effect law and order among the tribes in the reservations, as they had no recognizable governments.

The Indian Agency Police were on the point of taking Sitting

Bull away when a crowd of angry tribesmen converged on them, and shot one of the police. A gunfight erupted, during which Sitting Bull was shot dead by of the Indian policemen. Seven tribesmen and six policemen were killed in the clash.

The Sioux warriors then fled to the camp of a neighboring chief, Big Foot, who was settled near Wounded Knee Creek. By this time, the US Army's 7th Cavalry was hot in pursuit. On December 29, 1890, the army troopers entered the Sioux camp at Wounded Knee where a scuffle and gunfight erupted.

It has never been precisely established who fired the first shot, as both sides claimed it was the other, but by the time that the shooting stopped, around two hundred Sioux and thirty-one whites had been killed. About half of the Sioux dead were women and children caught in the cross fire. This engagement, which although meant as a military operation, ended in a massacre, was the last of the major white–Amerind conflicts in North America. The Seventh Great Race War was over and had ended with the utter defeat of the Amerinds.

Racial Consequences

The Amerinds' loss of land was not caused primarily by their military defeat, but rather by the swamping of North America by European immigrants. As a result, the demographic shift saw the collapse of Amerind power on the continent.

There had been a small amount of admixture between the Amerinds, blacks, and whites. This created a certain number of people in present-day America who are of mixed ancestry, but because of racial attitudes in America, those of even slightly mixed ancestry were generally classed as belonging to their ancestral nonwhite group. This is the primary reason why there are so many phenotypes visible among those claiming to be Amerinds in present-day America. Some look considerably fairer and less Mongoloid than others, or, conversely darker and more Mongoloid-looking.

The Allotment Act Fails to Integrate Amerinds

By the end of the nineteenth century, successive wars, rampant alcoholism, and natural shrinkage had seen the Amerind population of America drop to an all-time low of 237,000. As this number consisted of over one hundred tribes, all speaking different languages, it was apparent that if something was not done, they would disappear completely. As a result, the US Congress decided in 1871 to abandon the system of treaties with the Amerind tribes and start making laws directly for their preservation. The idea of wardship was substituted for that of alien nationality, and a new law, the General Allotment Act of 1887, saw a determined effort by the American government to bring the Amerinds into the mainstream of white society.

The concept of communally owned tribal lands was abolished and replaced with individual land ownership, as was the norm in the rest of the country. This policy, intended to lift the Indian standard of living by allowing private ownership of the reservations and therefore, in theory, boosting individual enterprise among the Amerinds, was a total failure.

Vast numbers of Amerinds sold their land as soon as they were handed ownership. Often this land was sold to unscrupulous white land speculators at rock-bottom prices, and the Indian sellers then squandered their earnings. The end result was that the General Allotment Act actually impoverished huge numbers of Indians even further and dispossessed them of vast swathes of their land.

Citizenship Granted to Amerinds 145 Years after USA Founded

Increasing integration and the blurring of the color line between full-blooded Indians and mixed-race persons of Indian descent continued to cloud the issue of American citizenship restrictions on Indians until 1924, when the US Congress passed the Indian Citizenship Act.

This law granted full citizenship to Indians for the first time as they had been specifically excluded by the original constitution. Not even the famous 1868 “Fourteenth Amendment” to the constitution, which guaranteed citizenship to persons born in the US, applied to Indians, as they were not subject to American law because of their “foreign nation” status.

It was only in 1948 that Indians were granted full voting rights throughout all the US states, with Arizona and New Mexico being the last to extend this privilege to their Amerind populations.

The Indian Reorganization Act

The granting of citizenship did nothing to halt the social and economic failure of the Indian population, and the US Government was finally forced to acknowledge that the General Allotment Act policy was a disaster.

As a result, the US Congress passed the Indian Reorganization Act in 1934, which specifically abandoned the forced integration policy. Amerind tribal lands lost during the allotment era were repurchased by the American government and the tribes were encouraged to set up their own governments in the restored semi-independent regions. A credit program with very generous terms, backed by the government, was set up, to lend money to Amerinds to reestablish their communities.

The Termination Period Fails to End Preferential Federal Government Treatment

The Indian Reorganization Act continued in effect until after the end of the Second World War, when another change in policy occurred. Arguments were raised against the preferential treatment of Indians for jobs and federal government credit, with critics saying that Amerinds should be treated like any other people in America.

The US Government responded by slowly dismantling the large number of institutions devoted to dealing with Indians as a separate racial group. Despite this, the American government has to the present day maintained an army of civil servants in the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA), mostly Amerinds who are still hired on a preferential treatment basis.

According to the BIA, relations between the tribes and the United States are still recognized as “one between sovereigns, i.e., between a government and a government.” A “federally recognized tribe is officially defined as “an American Indian or Alaska Native tribal entity that is recognized as having a government-to-government relationship with the United States, with the responsibilities, powers, limitations, and obligations attached to that designation, and is eligible for funding and services from the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Furthermore, federally recognized tribes are recognized as possessing certain inherent rights of self-government (i.e., tribal sovereignty) and are entitled to receive certain federal benefits, services, and protections because of their special relationship with the United States.”

The Amerind population has, through a process of natural increase and absorption of a significant number of whites, gradually increased. By the end of the twentieth century, it stood at over two million, the highest number ever in that group’s existence. In spite of the gradual increase in the standard of living and education among the Amerinds, they still remain at the very bottom of the social scale in present-day America.

L. FRANK BAUM—*WIZARD OF OZ* CREATOR SUMMARIZES NINETEENTH CENTURY AMERICAN ATTITUDES TOWARD AMERINDS

L. Frank Baum, the famous American author of *The Wonderful Wizard of Oz*, was a newspaper publisher in South Dakota who in many ways summarized nineteenth century American attitudes toward the Indian population.

Like many of his compatriots, L. Frank Baum had personally lived through many of the Indian wars and atrocities firsthand, and his deeply-entrenched and strongly-held opinions were shared by many at the time.

Writing in his newspaper, the *Saturday Pioneer,* he said in an editorial following the death of Sitting Bull at Wounded Knee: “With his fall the nobility of the Redskin is extinguished, and what few are left are a pack of whining curs who lick the hand that smites them.

“The whites, by law of conquest, by justice of civilization, are masters of the American continent, and the best safety of the frontier settlements will be secured by the total annihilation of the few remaining Indians. Why not annihilation?

“Their glory has fled, their spirit broken, their manhood effaced; better that they die than live the miserable wretches that they are. History would forget these latter despicable beings, and speak, in later ages of the glory of these grand Kings of forest and plain that Cooper loved to heroism.

“We cannot honestly regret their extermination, but we at least do justice to the manly characteristics possessed, according to their lights and education, by the early Redskins of America.”—December 20, 1890.

In 1891, referring to the Battle of Wounded Knee, Baum added these words in his editorial comment: “The peculiar policy of the government in employing so weak and vacillating a person as General Miles to look after the uneasy Indians, has resulted in a terrible loss of blood to our soldiers, and a battle which, at its best, is a disgrace to the war department. There has been plenty of time for prompt and decisive measures, the employment of which would have prevented this disaster.

“The Pioneer has before declared that our only safety depends upon the total extermination of the Indians. Having wronged them for centuries we had better, in order to protect our civilization, follow it up by one more wrong and wipe these untamed and untameable creatures from the face of the earth. In this lies future safety for our settlers and the soldiers who are under incompetent commands. Otherwise, we may expect future years to be as full of trouble with the redskins as those have been in the past.”

“An eastern contemporary, with a grain of wisdom in its wit, says that ‘when the whites win a fight, it is a victory, and when the Indians win it, it is a massacre.’”—January 3, 1891.

CHAPTER 50: The Eighth Great Race War—Mexico

The Amerinds were not the only racial threat which early white Americans had to face. To the south lay a large, mixed-race population made up of a mix between the Spanish, the Amerinds, and black slaves who had in the interim formed the majority population of Mexico.

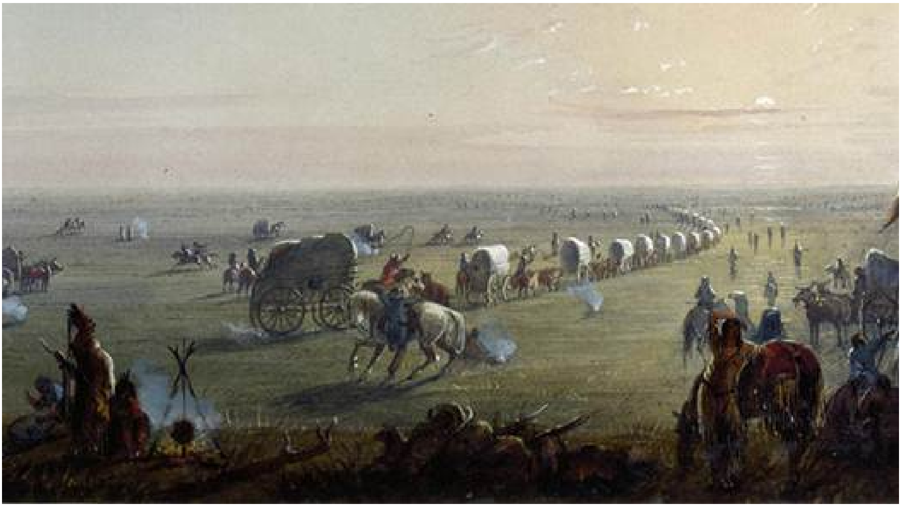
Although led by a white-looking elite, the vast majority of the population of Mexico was, and still is, of mixed-racial origin, and openly antagonistic to the white settlers to the north, referring to them disparagingly as “gringos,” a slang term which means “foreigner.”

That Mexicans and other Latin Americans refer to whites as “foreigners” reveals much about the racial attitudes which prevailed, and still prevail, in this part of the world.

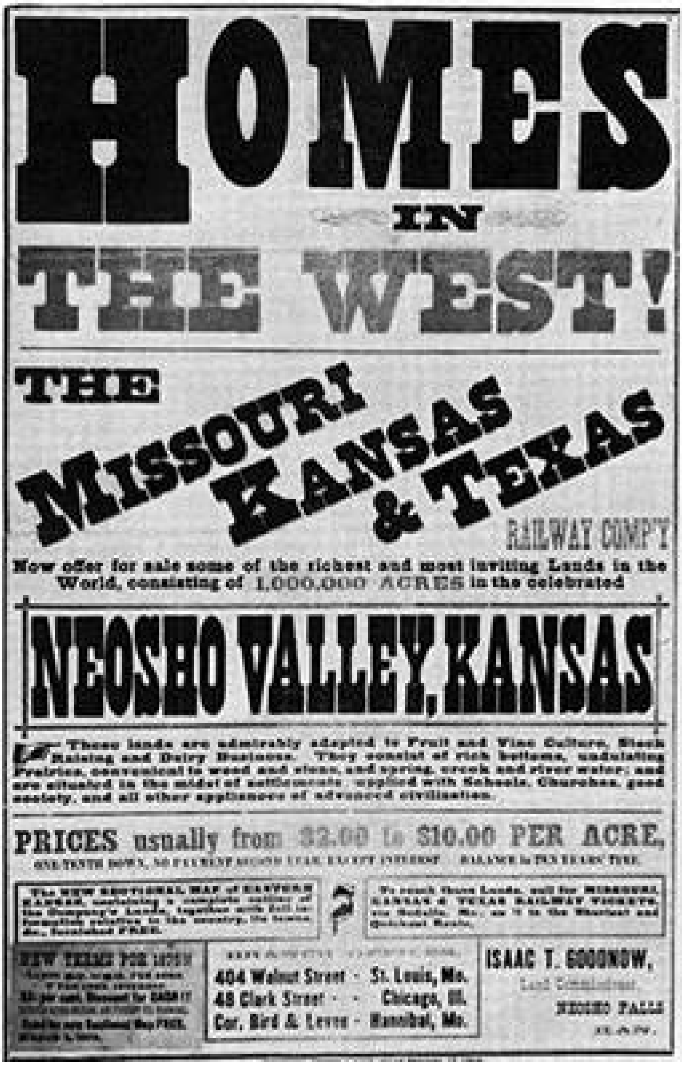
During the nineteenth century, both America and Mexico were interested in expanding their territorial claims over what was then still unclaimed parts of the continental United States. It was inevitable that these competing aims would lead to a clash.

This, combined with the underlying racial antagonism, set the scene for the Eighth Great Race War, the conflict between white America and Mexico. Although this war would first erupt in the mid-nineteenth century, an ongoing invasion of America by Mexico has continued into the twenty-first century and remains the single greatest threat to the First World status of the United States of America.

GREAT WESTWARD EXPANSION LEADS TO WAR WITH MEXICO



A trail of wagons containing settlers fans out on the open prairies of the American west. Pushing westward, waves of white settlers, imbued with the concept of "manifest destiny"—that they were ordained to settle the land and cultivate it—eventually created the states compromising the present-day American west coast. Below, a poster advertising "Homes in the West" with prices ranging from $2 to $10 per acre, "one tenth down, balance in ten years' time."



HOMES
IN
THE WEST!
THE
MISSOURI
KANSAS
& TEXAS
RAILWAY COMP'Y
Now offer for sale some of the richest and most inviting Lands in the World, consisting of 1,000,000 ACRES in the celebrated
NEOSHO VALLEY, KANSAS

These lands are admirably adapted to Fruit and Wine Culture, Stock Raising and Dairy Business. They consist of rich bottoms, undulating Prairies, convenient to wood and stone, and spring, creek and river water; and are situated in the midst of settlements, supplied with Schools, Churches, good society, and all other appliances of advanced civilization.

PRICES usually from $2.00 to $10.00 PER ACRE,

404 Walnut Street - St. Louis, Mo.
48 Clark Street - - Chicago, Ill.
Cor. Bird & Levee - Hannibal, Mo.

ISAAC T. GOODNOW,
Land Commissioner,
NEOSHO FALLS
KAN.

Dramatic Growth in White Numbers from Various European Nations

Between 1776 and 1865, the American confederation tripled in size. It grew from thirteen to thirty-six states. White immigration continued unabated from Europe, with Scandinavians and Germans settling in the Midwest; Italians and Irish congregating on the Eastern Seaboard, and the French in the north near the Francophone outposts of Quebec. In addition, Russians, Poles, and other Eastern Europeans also arrived and America became a melting pot of virtually every significant white nation.

Even though these groups were culturally and ethnically diverse, they all shared an essentially common gene pool and thus were able to mix with one another without the overall racial makeup of the white population changing to any significant degree.

Whites Enter Mexican Territory of Texas

The territory encompassing most of present-day Texas and most of California was originally incorporated into Mexico in terms of that country's 1824 constitution.

This agreement dated back to 1819, when that territory was handed over to Mexico in terms of an agreement between the Mexicans and the Americans after the territory of Florida was handed over to the United States. Mexico was, however, constantly racked by civil strife and anarchy and was never able to exert completely effective control over these northernmost regions. As a result, by the year 1825, the majority of inhabitants (around thirty thousand individuals) living in Texas were white immigrants who had entered from the United Sates.

The Short-Lived Republic of Fredonia

In 1825, a small group of whites obtained formal permission from the Mexican government to settle an area known as Nacogdoches (now in eastern Texas). The arrival of the whites was vehemently opposed by the already resident Mexican population in Nacogdoches.

After they submitted complaints to the Mexican government about the "gringos," their government revoked the residence permission it had given to the white settlers. Antagonized, a group of sixteen whites then proclaimed themselves independent in December 1826, establishing what they called the Independent Republic of Fredonia. In January 1827, a force of sixty Mexican soldiers was sent to squash the ridiculously small rebellion.

However, the sixteen white settlers soundly defeated the sixty Mexicans in the only gunfight of the Republic of Fredonia's existence. The Mexican soldiers fled south, having suffered several fatalities.

The Mexican army sent a several hundred-strong force to beat the sixteen whites into submission. The settlers had, in the meanwhile, packed their bags and left before the Mexicans arrived in Nacogdoches, and thus ended the first attempt to seize territory in Texas. It was, however, to be the precursor of far more dramatic developments.

The Great Western Trails

The Mexican-held territory of California was also the subject of white colonization. In 1840, a pioneer by the name of John Bidwell established the Western Emigration Society and, the next year, led the first group of settlers overland from the Midwest into California.

This bold gesture precipitated a series of similar migrations, with the wagon routes becoming known as the Great Western Trails. All of the territories in the west were targeted, and the three most famous routes became known as the Santa Fe Trail, the Oregon Trail, and the California Trail.

Thousands of pioneers, enthused with the zeal of manifest destiny, endured deserts, snow, plains, mountain passes and attacks by hostile Indians on the trek west. Many were killed or died of disease on the way—for example, only thirty-two of the original sixty-nine in Bidwell's first party reached their destination.

The Mexicans regarded the incoming white settlers with suspicion. They correctly presumed that mass white immigration would encourage the US government to annex the territory, but the Mexican authorities were too ineffectual to halt the seemingly endless waves of settler wagons arriving in the West.

Although the Fredonian rebellion in Texas had been unsuccessful, the Mexican government was acutely aware of the danger to its authority posed by the ever-increasing number of white Americans settling the region. By 1830, the Mexicans realized they had to act, and in that year passed a law specifically banning all further immigration from the United States. This was, of course, a specifically anti-white immigration law.

In addition, special taxes were placed upon recent immigrants and other measures taken to try and force the settlers to leave. Racial tensions increased and in 1836, a large number of white settlers refused to pay taxes to or otherwise acknowledge any Mexican authority. This was tantamount to a declaration of independence and the Mexican government decided to respond by sending in its military to suppress the incipient uprising.

182 WHITES FACE OFF 6,000-STRONG MEXICAN ARMY AT THE ALAMO 1836

The Alamo, San Antonio, Texas, as it can be seen today. This mission station, besieged by a numerically vastly superior Mexican force under General Santa Anna in 1836, fell after a battle which lasted nearly two weeks. It marked the formal opening of the hostilities in the Great Race War with Mexico.

The Battle of the Alamo

The Mexican president Santa Anna marched on the white rebel territory in Texas with a six thousand-strong army and confronted the gringos at a fortified mission station known as the Alamo in San Antonio on February 23, 1836.

Inside the Alamo were about 150 volunteers, including the folk hero Davy Crockett, an Indian fighter, frontiersman, former Tennessee legislator, and US Congressman, who at fifty was already a living legend; and James Bowie, another legendary pioneer, soldier, Indian fighter, and frontiersman. The group was under the command of twenty-eight-year old William Travis, a lieutenant colonel of the Legion of Cavalry in the Texan army.

Another famous participant in the events at the Alamo was Juan Seguin, a Spaniard who has incorrectly been portrayed as a Mexican who switched sides. Although he was present for the first few days, Travis sent him out to carry a message and get reinforcements, and thus he was not present when the Alamo finally fell.

These 150 men were later joined by a further 33 volunteers, but by then the Alamo had been under siege for three days by Santa Anna's vastly numerically superior army. After twelve days of siege, the 183 rebels had not suffered a single casualty, while hundreds of Mexican soldiers lay dead.

"Drawing the Line"

At the end of the twelfth day, Travis told his men that their situation was hopeless and that they faced certain death. He said that he was prepared to fight to the death, but that he did not expect any others to do so. Travis then drew a line in the earth with his sword, saying that anyone who wanted to fight with him could cross the line he had drawn and join him. Those who did not could try and escape before the fort was overrun by the Mexicans without losing any honor. It was from this incident that the saying "crossing the line" originated.

All but one of the soldiers crossed the line to join Travis. Only a veteran French Jewish adventurer named Moses Rose did not. He subsequently escaped from the Alamo under the cover of darkness and became the only source of information up till the end of the twelfth day.

The Alamo Stormed

On February 24, 1836, at the height of the siege, Travis wrote a letter which he addressed: "To the People of Texas and All Americans in the World."

In this moving letter, he called upon supporters to come to his aid and stated his intention to die for the cause of Texan liberty: *Fellow citizens and compatriots; I am besieged, by a thousand or more of the Mexicans under Santa Anna. I have sustained a continual bombardment and cannonade for twenty-four hours and have not lost a man. The enemy has demanded a surrender at discretion, otherwise, the garrison are to be put to the sword, if the fort is taken. I have answered the demand with a cannon shot, and our flag still waves proudly from the walls. I shall never surrender or retreat. Then, I call on you in the name of Liberty, of patriotism & everything dear to the American character, to come to our aid, with all dispatch. The enemy is receiving reinforcements daily and will no doubt increase to three or four thousand in four or five days. If this call is neglected, I am determined to sustain myself as long as possible and die like a soldier who never forgets what is due to his own honor & that of his country. Victory or Death. William Barret Travis, Lt. Col. Comdt.*

Travis gave this letter to another of the Alamo's defenders, Albert Martin, with instructions to deliver it through the besieging Mexican lines. The envelope that contained the letter was labeled

"Victory or Death."

On March 6, the Mexican army finally stormed the walls of the Alamo. The defenders drove off two assaults, but were unable to prevent a third from taking the walls. The defenders withdrew into the internal buildings where they were cut down one-by-one as the mission station was overrun. Legend has it that David Bowie was bayoneted in his sickbed after shooting several Mexican soldiers who entered his bedroom.

Those whites not killed in action were bayoneted to death after surrendering. The victory was dearly bought: for the 182 white men who died at the Alamo, almost 1,600 Mexicans died. The heroic defense of the Alamo is still celebrated in American folklore, although the racial implications are deliberately underplayed or even deliberately misrepresented, as is the case with Juan Seguin.

GOLIAD MASSACRE MEMORIAL

The 1936 memorial to Texas militia colonel, James Fannin, and his four hundred men, massacred by the Mexican army in 1836. Following a one-sided battle on the prairie near Coleto Creek, 250 prisoners were marched back to the presidio at Goliad where they were joined by more than 200 others. On orders from Mexican President Santa Anna, they were all shot on March 27, 1836. The memorial is on the site where their bodies were *heaped and burned.*

The Massacre of the Whites at Goliad

The fall of the Alamo and the subsequent murder of the survivors sent a shockwave through the rest of the white inhabitants of Texas. In March 1836, Santa Anna marched on the small town of Goliad and, after a two-day battle, forced its garrison of four hundred men to surrender. As part of the surrender terms, the white defenders were to be released. After keeping them for eight days, the Mexicans marched their white prisoners out of the town, telling them they were to be freed and sent to New Orleans.

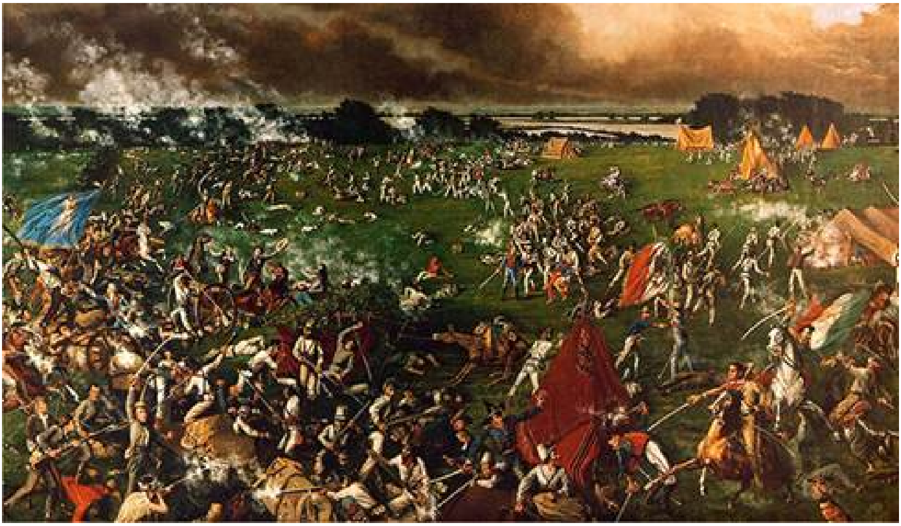
Suddenly, near the San Antonio River, the Mexicans turned on the prisoners and shot them down. Only sixty of the original four hundred prisoners escaped the massacre.

Confirmation of the news of Santa Anna's open war of extermination against white Americans caused large numbers of settlers to leave the more isolated parts of the country and congregate in urban centers for protection.

White Revenge at San Jacinto

The Texans then gathered together their scarce resources and, with a force of around six hundred men, attacked Santa Anna's army at San Jacinto in April 1836. With the rallying cry of, "Remember the Alamo" (another phrase which passed into American folklore), the small Texan army tore into the Mexicans, who were completed defeated in a battle which lasted only twenty minutes. During this process, Santa Anna was taken prisoner.

BATTLE OF SAN JACINTO CLINCHES TEXAN INDEPENDENCE



The Battle of San Jacinto, fought on April 21, 1836, clinched the independence of Texas. The Texan army, led by General Sam Houston, defeated the Mexican army under Santa Anna in a battle which only lasted eighteen minutes. Hundreds of Mexicans died and Santa Anna was captured in this rout which entered Texan folklore. Three weeks later, Santa Anna signed a peace treaty and left Texas, from which time the state declared itself independent.

The Republic of Texas Established in 1836

The victorious Texans struck a deal with Santa Anna: he and what was left of his army would be freed to return to Mexico if he repudiated the Mexican claim to Texas. Santa Anna agreed. He and his army were set free and promptly returned to Mexico. The independent Republic of Texas was declared the same year.

The Lone Star Republic, as it was known, remained independent from 1836 to 1845, when it applied to the US Congress for inclusion into the United States. The application provoked a debate as the issue of slavery had become a burning political point. Texas was a slave-owning state, and its application to join the Union was opposed by those northern states where slavery had been abolished. Finally, a compromise was reached whereby the antislavery state of Oregon was admitted to the Union simultaneously with Texas. Texas formally became part of the Union in 1845 and Oregon was admitted in 1846.

Standoff at the Rio Grande

The annexation of Texas provoked the second phase of the war with Mexico. Santa Anna had been deposed and went into exile in Cuba, and his successors in Mexico then repudiated the concession he had made regarding the inclusion of Texas into the United States of America.

Tensions rose and by March 1846, a Mexican army and an American army had been raised and stood facing each other across the border at the Rio Grande River border. The American army, led by General Zachary Taylor, crossed into Mexican territory, and encountering no resistance, marched to the entrance of the Mexican city of Matamoros.

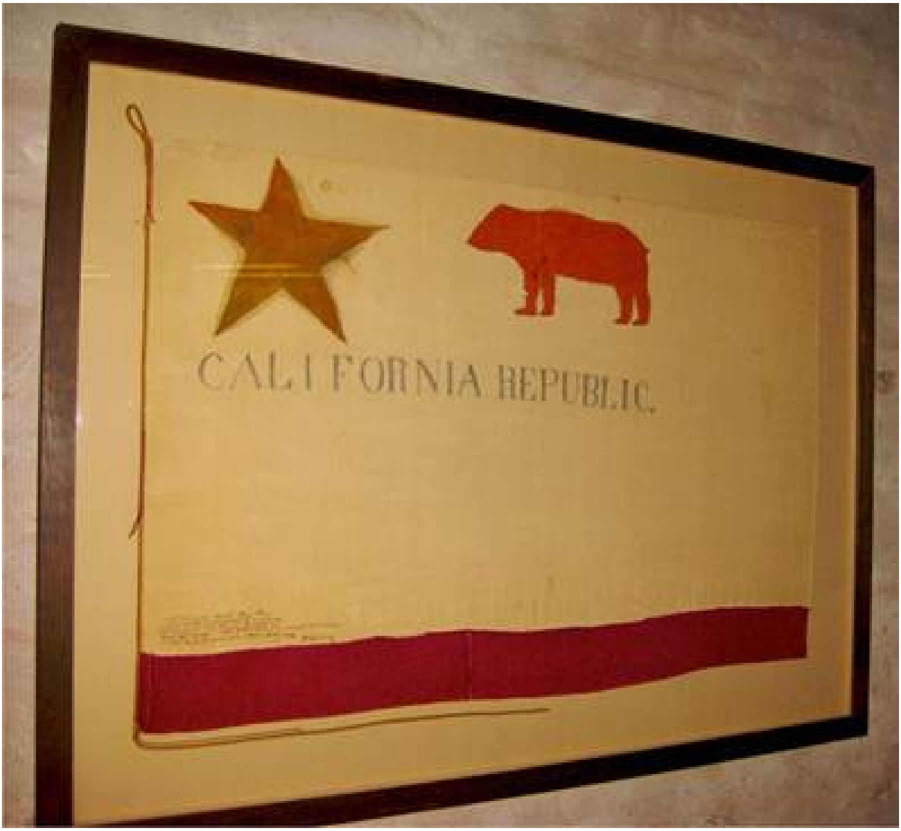
The American government, however, faced opposition to the war at home, and the campaign was put on hold, awaiting further orders. Disease and desertions took their toll on Taylor's army, and to add to his concerns, the Mexican army was busy assembling nearby, in preparation for an attack. Finally, a clash between the two sides took place and a number of American soldiers were killed. The spilling of American blood spurred the US Congress on to officially acknowledge a state of war with Mexico, and on May 11, 1846, the conflict was formally declared.

American Army Goes onto Offensive

The American army then went onto the offensive. Although Taylor's force had by this stage reduced in numbers from 5,400 to just over 3,000, he still engineered a victory over numerically superior Mexican armies at two important engagements, Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, and occupied the city of Matamoros.

News of the victories spread throughout the United States and volunteers rushed to join. At last Taylor was given a truly powerful army of over 14,400 men, and planned his next move accordingly.

THE BEAR FLAG REPUBLIC



The "Bear Flag Republic" was declared by thirty-two white settlers in Sonoma, California on June 14, 1846. The republic only lasted twenty-six days, and was symbolic in nature, representing the desire of many European colonists to be free of Mexican rule. After a short while, the US Army took control of California and drove the Mexicans out. The original Bear Flag was destroyed in a fire which followed the 1906 earthquake in San Francisco, and the replica on display (above) in Sonoma is an 1896 copy.

The Bear Flag Republic in California

The outbreak of hostilities provoked a rebellion against Mexican rule in California as well. By mid-1846, rebels under the leadership of Colonel John Fremont captured the Mexican fort at Sonoma, north of San Francisco, and proclaimed an independent state called the Bear Flag Republic.

The Bear Flag Republic lasted only one month. On July 7, 1846, a US naval unit landed to the south of San Francisco at the settlement of Monterey and claimed the entire region of California for the United States. A few days later American forces occupied the settlement of San Francisco, meeting almost no opposition from the Mexicans and being welcomed by the white settlers as liberators.

The Battles of Los Angeles 1846–1847

By December 1846, American forces had occupied the center of Los Angeles. The Mexicans had in the interim recovered from the initial blows and counterattacked. In the first bloody Battle of Los Angeles, the Mexicans drove the gringos out of the town and almost completely annihilated the entire white army in the process.

In January 1847, the Americans launched a counterattack and defeated the Mexicans. The second Battle of Los Angeles marked the end of Mexican control in California. Mexicans did not regain a dominating role in the state's political process until the end of the twentieth century.

The Battle of Monterey—Prelude to Mexican Defeat

In Mexico, the American army had meanwhile continued its push south. General Taylor, commanding a specially-assigned force of six thousand men, advanced on the fortress city of Monterey which was defended by fifteen thousand Mexican soldiers. After three days of heavy fighting and large numbers of casualties on both sides, the city surrendered to the Americans.

Although this was an important victory, the losses sustained by the American army during the capture of Monterey had dampened domestic enthusiasm for the war. The US government was looking for a way out of the war when one appeared as if sent by divine providence: the exiled Santa Anna sent a note to the American president, James Polk, in which he offered to end the war if Polk facilitated his return to Mexico. There, Santa Anna said, he would be able to seize power and end the conflict, but he had to be allowed through the American naval blockade of the Mexican coast first. Polk gave his permission to the plan, and Santa Anna was able to slip through the American blockade, make his way to Mexico City, and there seize power once again.

Santa Anna's Treachery

However, Santa Anna had other plans. Once firmly in power again, he announced his intention to drive the white invaders out of Mexico and reoccupy Texas. He raised an army of twenty-five thousand men and marched north to meet the Americans in battle.

Unfortunately for Santa Anna, only some fifteen thousand Mexican soldiers completed the march as the rest deserted along the way. Even so, the Mexican army had a three-to-one superiority over the American army of 4,500 men. The two sides clashed at the Battle of Buena Vista on February 23, 1847. A day of heavy fighting ensued which ended in the Mexican attack being defeated. Santa Anna and his shattered army disengaged and retreated south.

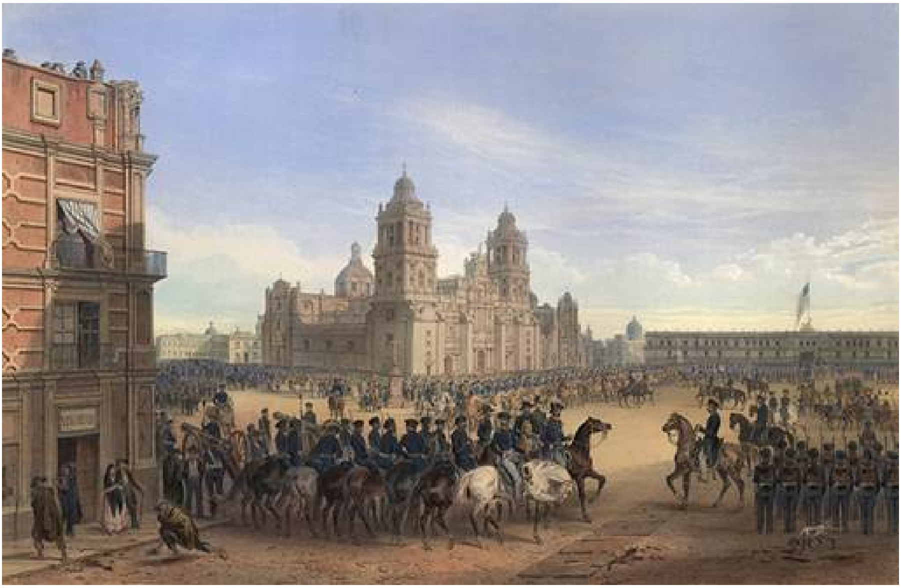
American Sea Invasion

The victory at Buena Vista prompted a renewed American offensive. Reinforce-ments were sent in and, its strength boosted to eleven thousand men, the Americans set off in pursuit of the retreating Mexicans. The American navy then landed a military detachment on the coast south of Vera Cruz on March 9, 1847. This bold move outflanked the main Mexican force. After a six-day siege and bombardment, Vera Cruz fell on March 28, 1847. At least two thousand Mexicans were killed in the fighting, which included a large number of civilians. The unevenness of the clash was further illustrated by the fact that only sixty-seven American soldiers were killed in the encounter. The stage was now set for an attack on the Mexican capital, Mexico City. Santa Anna attempted to halt the American advance with a counterattack at the small town of Cerro Gordo on April 18, 1847, but after losing a further 1,200 men, he withdrew his forces to defend Mexico City.

American Dissension

The anti-war party back in Washington DC had, in the meanwhile, been growing in strength. The war had now been successfully linked to the issue of slavery and liberal sentiment severely hindered efforts to get the army properly resupplied. Despite these difficulties, many volunteered in a new recruiting drive and, by August 1847, the American army consisted of some thirteen thousand men. About half of the original volunteers had been killed, injured, or returned home upon the expiration of their one-year contract period.

WHITE ARMY ENTERS MEXICO CITY, SEPTEMBER 1847



The end of the Eighth Great Race War—the American army enters Mexico City in 1847. By the end of the twentieth century, Mexico, due to its citizens' illegal immigration into America, was well on its way to recapturing all the territory lost in this war.

Mexico City Captured

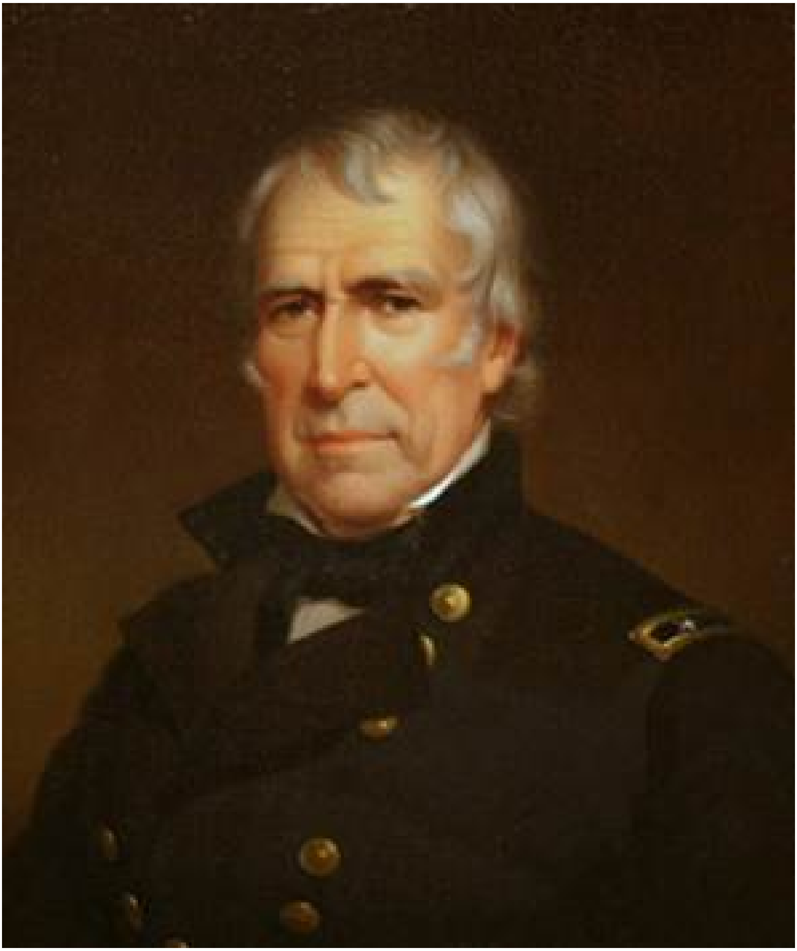
The reinforced American army started its advance to Mexico City on August 20, 1847. The Mexican defenders, some thirty thousand strong, were defeated in a series of initial battles outside Mexico City. Santa Anna retreated into the city and sent a message to the Americans asking for a truce of one year to discuss what he called the "preliminaries of peace."

Despite his earlier perfidy, the Americans believed Santa Anna once again and agreed to the armistice, although the one-year truce period was substantially reduced.

The Mexican leader had no intention of discussing anything with the gringos and instead used the break in hostilities to build up reserves and install new cannons and fortifications around Mexico City. The Americans became aware of the building plans and realized that time was against them. The number of fit men in the American force had dwindled to around eight thousand and the Mexican army now numbered some eighteen thousand and was growing daily. After two weeks of "truce" the Americans determined that Santa Anna had deceived them once again and launched a new attack on Mexico City.

By September 8, the Americans had fought their way into the city center and their flag flew over the capital of Mexico. The Mexicans surrendered and Santa Anna fled once again. Some 130 Americans were killed in the taking of Mexico City, the third time in that city's history it had been invaded by a white army. The Mexicans were too disorganized to keep a record of their losses, but contemporary American estimates put the number of Mexican fatalities at around three thousand.

ZACHARY TAYLOR— MEXICAN WAR HERO



Zachary Taylor (1784–1850), the twelfth president of the USA and hero of the Mexican War. His military career started with service in the 1812 war with Britain, followed by a number of campaigns against the Amerinds, including the Black Hawk War of 1832 and various other insurrections in Florida from 1837 to 1840. It was in the Great Race War against Mexico that he won national renown. Ordered by President James

Polk to advance to Rio Grande in July 1846, Taylor met and defeated the Mexicans at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, and led his forces to victory against the vastly more numerous Mexican army at the Battle of Buena Vista in February 1847. Elected president in 1848, the slave-owning Taylor attempted to reach a compromise between the slave-owning and abolitionist states in the Union, but his efforts were terminated by his early death in 1850.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

The peace treaty which formally ended the American–Mexican War was signed in February 1848 and called the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. In terms of the settlement, the United States gave Mexico $15 million and agreed to pay out the claims for damages instituted by American citizens against Mexico, which amounted to a further $3.2 million.

In return, Mexico agreed to give up half of the disputed territory which had been the cause of the conflict. This land formed the future US states of Arizona, California, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah, as well as portions of the states of Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Wyoming.

The 1849 discovery of gold in California sparked off a renewed wave of white immigration and the population doubled in less than three years, rising from 90,000 in 1840 to 220,000 by 1852. By 1850, the state of California had officially been admitted as the thirty-first state of the United States of America. This acquisition, together with the state of Oregon, saw the United States double in size in less than two years. Apart from one further purchase of territory from Mexico in 1854, this expansion marked the end of the creation of the continental United States of America.

DISCOVERY OF GOLD IN CALIFORNIA SEES RENEWED WHITE INFLUX

Gold prospectors in California search for alluvial gold. The discovery of gold in California greatly boosted the number of whites in the region, which in turn made it increasingly impossible for Mexico to hold on to the territory. Ironically, Mexican immigration, mostly illegal, has reversed the situation in the late twentieth century, and whites are now once again a minority in that state.

The Mexican Repatriation 1929–1939

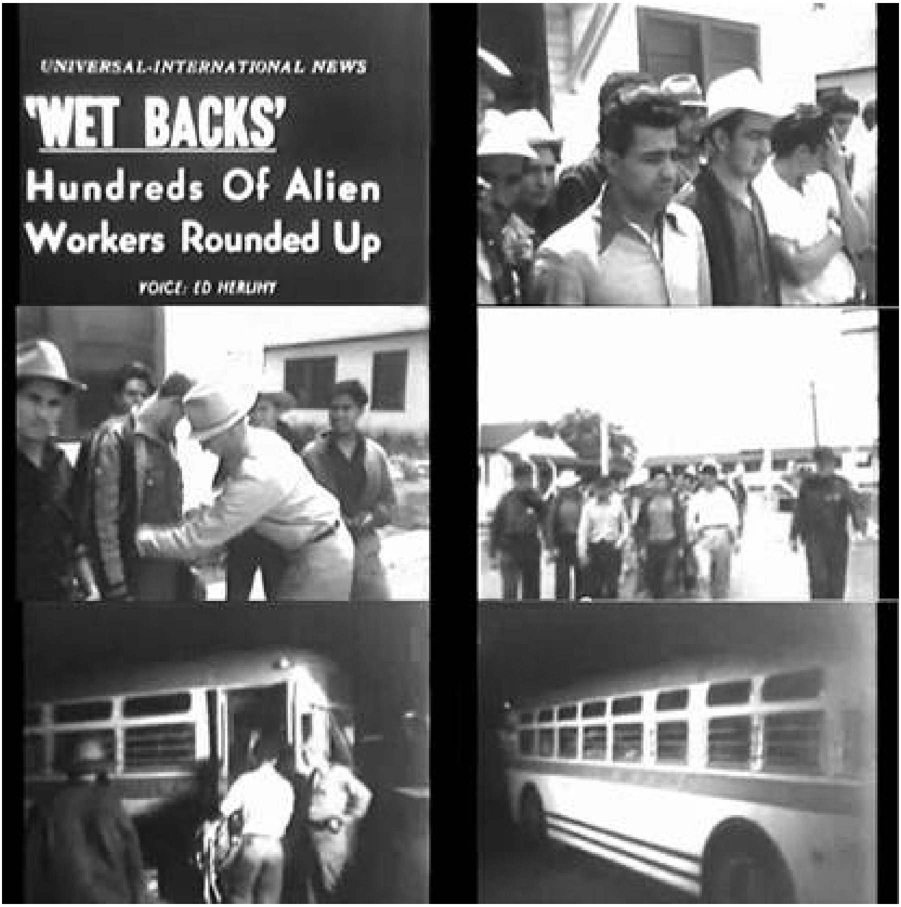
The military defeat of Mexico did not permanently halt the racial conflict between the United States and Mexico. The Second World status of much of Mexico combined with the lure of available work and easy crime pickings across the border in America has always proved to be an attractive lure, and within a few decades of the end of the Mexican–American War, enough Mexicans had illegally entered the southwestern states to provoke a formal response.

In 1929, a campaign which became known as the Mexican Repatriation was launched by the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service. During this program, one million Mexicans living illegally in California, Texas, Colorado, Illinois, and Michigan were rounded up and deported. The campaign, which ended in 1939, specifically targeted people who the INS documentation of the time said were “Mexicans” because of “the physical distinctiveness of mestizos, and easily identifiable barrios.”

“Operation Wetback” and the Ongoing Immigration War

In 1954, the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service was once again forced to act over the Mexican illegal immigration wave which had renewed immediately after the end of the Second World War. Backed personally by President Dwight Eisenhower, the program was called “Operation Wetback” because of the water of the Rio Grande River through which the illegal immigrants had to swim. It is estimated that Operation Wetback succeeded in removing over a million illegal immigrants, either through arrest and physical deportation, or by voluntary repatriation.

OPERATION WETBACK—ONE MILLION ILLEGAL IMMIGRANTS RETURNED TO MEXICO 1954


UNIVERSAL-INTERNATIONAL NEWS
'WET BACKS'
Hundreds Of Alien Workers Rounded Up
VOICE: ED HERLIHY

Five stills from a newsreel from 1954 illustrate the anti-illegal immigration program, officially called "Operation Wetback" which saw around one million Mexicans illegally living in the US sent back home. This was the last time that the American government made any serious attempt to halt the invasion by Mexicans, with the result that by 2010, there were some 45 million "Latinos" living in the United States of America.

Since then, the dominant liberal ideology which took hold of American politics has prevented any serious attempt to halt the ongoing Mexican and Hispanic invasion of America, with the result that the 2010 US Census shows that there were around 45 million "Latinos" in America, all due to immigration and resultant natural reproduction. They formed a majority in many of the southwestern states and dominated politics in some, leading to a process of demographic racial change which is discussed in the last section of this work.

Given racial demographic projections, the American war with Mexico may yet end in a Mexican victory.

CHAPTER 51: Three Fifths of a Person—the History of Slaves

Throughout history, the institution of slavery has proven to be one of the most significant factors behind racial demographic change. From ancient times through to the late eighteenth century, civilization after civilization has used slaves to provide labor, while either ignoring or not understanding the long-term implications of this practice.

It is this use of "cheap" labor (either as slaves or as freemen) which has always provided the primary source of nonwhite populations in majority white countries. These populations have then grown to the point where they played a significant role in altering the face of that society's culture and nature.

It is, however, a common misconception that only nonwhites were ever used as slaves. In fact, the slave traders of classical and Christian Rome; the Moors, the Mongols, the Khazars, the Ottomans, and many others actively traded in white slaves. In fact, the English word "slave" derives from the word "Slav" because they were the primary victims of the Khazar slave-trading empire.

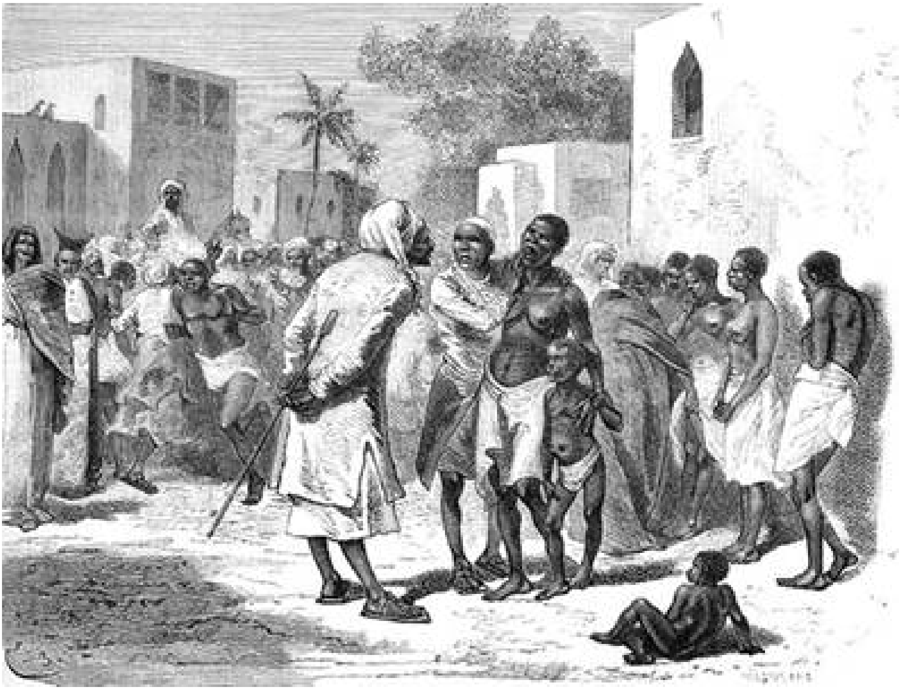
It is a little known fact that a large trade in white slaves existed in England in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. During that time, gangs of slave catchers seized white children from the lowest social classes for use as slaves, with the full approval of the ruling upper classes. This practice was known as "kid nabbing," which is the origin of the word "kidnapping." The most common destination for the victims of these gangs was the British colony of Virginia in America, where they became indentured laborers on the tobacco farms.

Slavery in Ancient Societies

The ancient Mesopotamians, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Germanics all used slaves, either domestically or for large-scale construction or agriculture. Slavery was in fact crucial to the economy and social system of classical Rome and Greece, where slave masters had the power of life and death over their servants.

The primary way of acquiring slaves was through war, and tens of thousands of captured prisoners of war were brought to Rome and Athens as slaves. Ultimately, this dependence on slaves was to lead to the growth of a nonwhite and mixed-race underclass which submerged the ruling elite. This process repeated itself again and again throughout the ancient world, from Mesopotamia to Egypt to the classical civilizations, all with the same consequence: the destruction of the original cultures.

ARAB SLAVE TRADE FAR BIGGER THAN TRANS-ATLANTIC TRADE



Arab slave traders rounding up black slaves in Central Africa. The Arab slave trade, which concentrated on sending negroes to the Middle and Far East, was far bigger than the European slave trade and lasted much longer. It could very possibly account for the Negroid presence which is today found in India and some of the South Asian islands.

The Arab Slave Trade

Although the activities of the Arab slave traders in Africa is outside the scope of this book, it is worth mentioning in order to put the European trans-Atlantic slave trade into perspective. This is not to justify in any way the trans-Atlantic slave trade, but merely to point out that for the sake of political correctness, almost nothing is said of the Arab slave trade, in marked contrast to the European slave trade, which is constantly blamed for all manner of modern racial ills.

The Arab slave trade started around 650 AD and was only finally brought to an end around 1900, by which time it is estimated that around twenty million Africans had been captured and sold into slavery in the Middle East and parts of Asia. It is even suspected that some of the individuals with African ancestry found in present-day India might be descendants of this slave trade.

The New World Slave Trade

The exploration of Africa, Asia, and the Americas created the background for the trans-Atlantic slave trade which began around 1530. The majority of black slaves purchased by the slave traders were sold into bondage by fellow Africans, as slavery was also common in Africa.

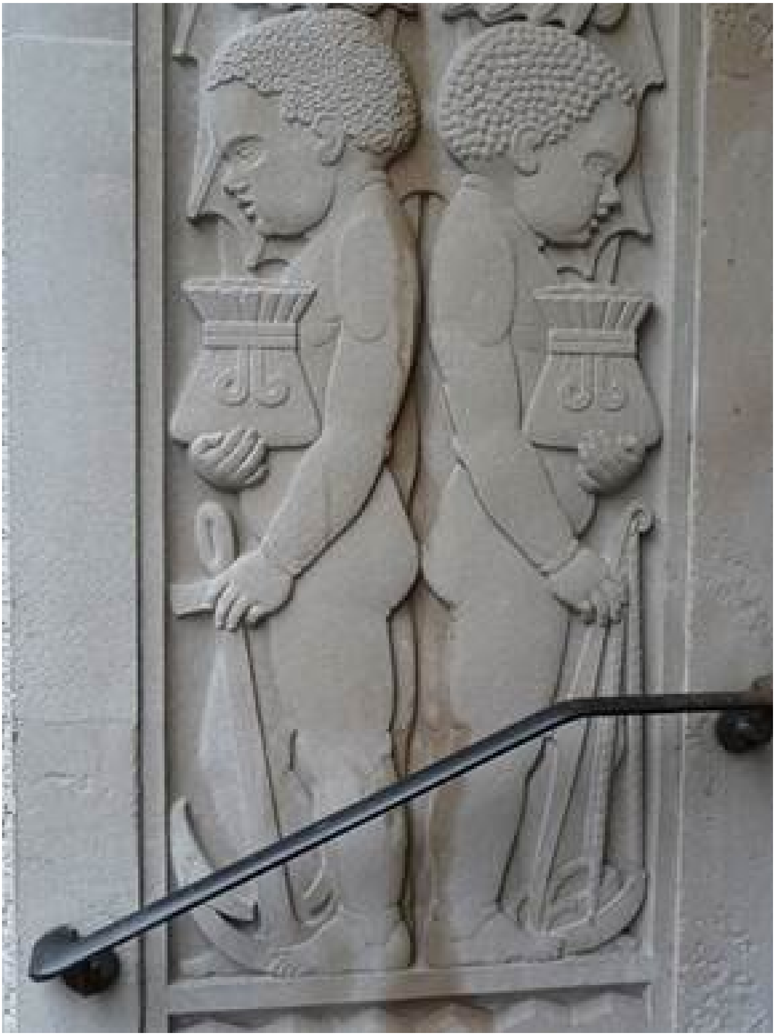
At least ten million blacks were forcibly brought to the Americas, with about 47 percent of them going to the Caribbean islands and the Guianas, while 38 percent went to Brazil and about 6 percent to mainland Spanish America. Slavery and the slave trade were only outlawed in the early nineteenth century by the British, and in the late nineteenth century by the Americans.

Iberia and the Slave Trade

The Portuguese were among the first to start importing large numbers of blacks from their colonies in Africa, starting around the year 1444. These slaves were imported primarily to work on agricultural plantations in rural Portugal. Within a few years, the number of Africans being imported into Portugal had risen to over one thousand every year. This resulted in some astonishing demographic changes. Census figures in Lisbon at the end of the nineteenth century showed that around 12 percent of that city's population was black. A significant number of these slaves intermarried or interbred with some Portuguese people, which, together with the influx of Moorish blood, created the racially-mixed appearance of a number of present-day inhabitants of Portugal.

Spain also imported black slaves into Iberia, but in far fewer numbers than neighboring Portugal. Instead, Spain concentrated on sending Africans to work in the New World, particularly in the Caribbean and South America. To this end they even put the slave trade to their colonies to tender under the system known as the "Asiento." This involved eliciting competing bids from foreign slave-trading companies who could win the right to supply black laborers to Spain's colonies in the New World.

LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND—BRITAIN'S FOREMOST SLAVE TRADING CITY



Liverpool, in northern England, was the central hub for the British slave trading industry, and at its height was the headquarters for private companies which controlled up to 70 percent of Britain's slave trade. Most of these companies sent their ships to Africa to collect slaves and then transport them to the New World. Company records show that Liverpool merchants were responsible for shipping over 1.3 million Africans to the New World. The wealth which some Liverpool companies accumulated as a result is reflected in this iconic relief at the door of a well-known bank building in Liverpool's city center, which shows two black slaves holding bags of money, a ship's anchor, and a sextant (Martins Bank, Water Street, Liverpool).

Britain and the Slave Trade

The English also became involved in the slave trade and the ports of Bristol and Liverpool became the main holding points in the trans-Atlantic market.

A significant number of Africans were also imported as slaves into Britain, but this process was effectively halted and reversed by the general expulsion of all “blackamoors” from Britain by Queen Elizabeth I in 1601.

By 1655, Britain had also occupied the island of Jamaica, and turned it into a major slave depot to supply the New World with labor. In 1672, the Royal African Company was founded to formally monopolize the slave trade with British colonies.

In 1713, British slavers, using the company name the “British South Sea Company,” won the asiento Spanish slave-trading contract. In terms of that agreement, they were to transport at least 144,000 blacks to the Spanish colonies over a thirty year period.

France and the Slave Trade

The French, who occupied large parts of Northern and western Africa, also engaged in large-scale slave trading. Their most notable transports were to the island of San Domingue (now called Haiti) where the slave population reached nearly half a million, a development which would eventually have dramatic consequences, as outlined later in this chapter.

The practice of slavery was only abolished by France in 1848, more than fifty years after the French Revolution which had proclaimed the brotherhood of man and liberty for all.

Holland and the Slave Trade

The Dutch West India Company was the largest slave-trading organization in Holland, and had a monopoly on the exportation of black slaves “from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope,” a rule it enforced with military backing from the Dutch government. The Dutch waited until 1863 before they abolished slavery in all their colonies. By this time, a small number of Malays had been imported into the Netherlands to work as domestic slaves.

Black Slaves Imported into South America

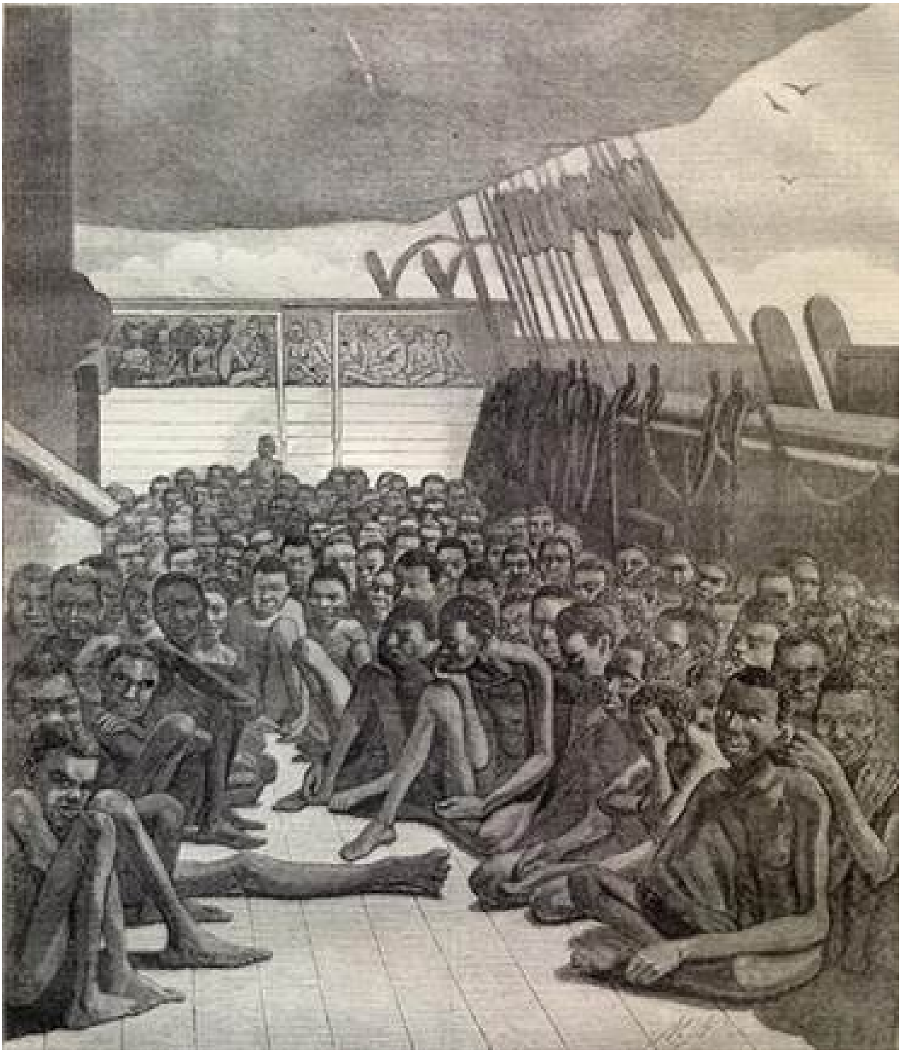
The Spanish were the first to try and put the Amerinds to work as laborers in mines and agricultural holdings, but the natives were unsuited to the harsh life of continuous manual labor. As a result, large numbers died, the victims of a combination of ill-treatment, execution, disease, and exhaustion.

To meet their labor needs in the new colonies, Spain turned to the traditional source of slaves: Africa. Although always at the bottom of the social ladder, these black slaves and their descendants physically mixed with the remnants of the South American Indians and some Spanish colonists, creating the mixed-race population which is still evident throughout South and Latin America.

Slavery Abolished in Brazil 1888

Most South American nations abolished slavery once they had obtained independence from Spain. The only exception to this was the Portuguese colony of Brazil, which only formally abolished slavery in 1888.

BLACK SLAVES MAKE UP 20 PERCENT OF 1776 AMERICAN POPULATION



The deck of the ship Wildfire, *loaded with negro slaves, lands at Key West, Florida, in 1860. The massive importation of blacks into North America resulted in their numbers rising to the point where they comprised 20 percent of the population at the time of the Revolutionary War.*

North American Slave Trade

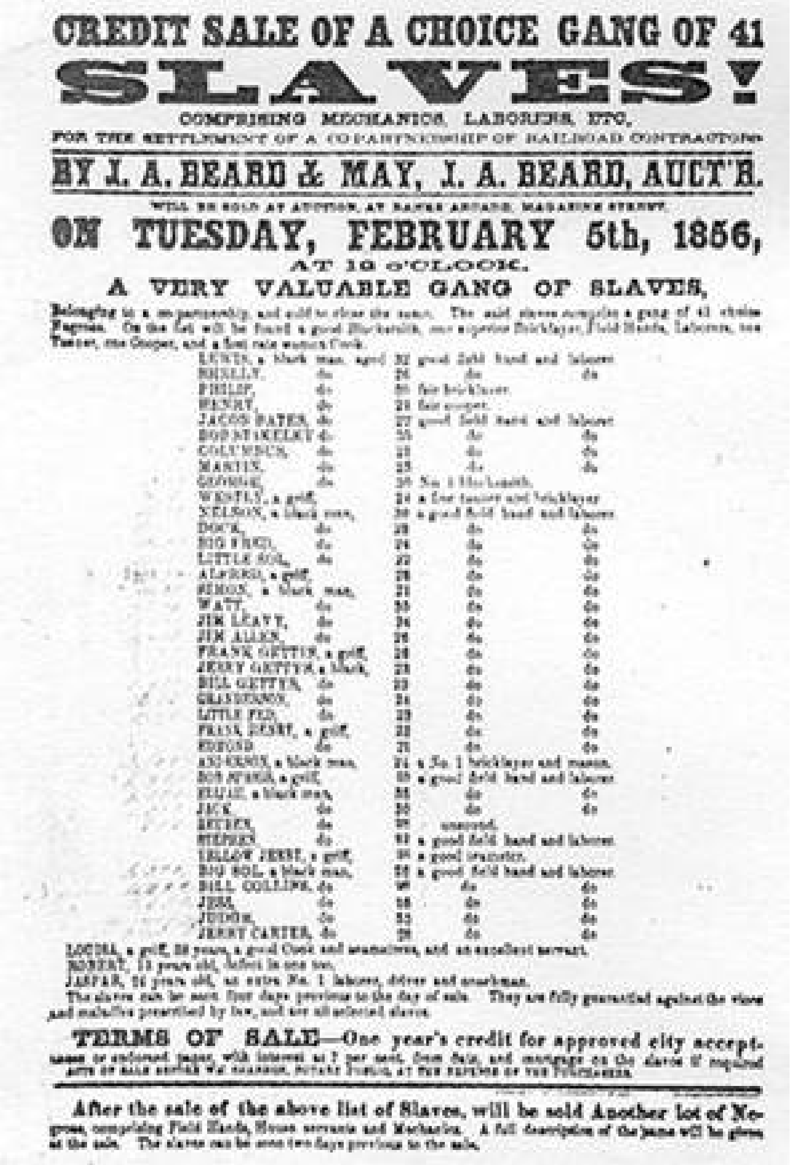
The first black slaves to land in North America were brought ashore at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1619. They were kept under strict control, and laws were passed in Massachusetts in 1641, Connecticut in 1650, and Virginia in 1661, which specified the legally acceptable punishments for slaves of any race who escaped.

The demand for slaves grew exponentially as more agricultural land was opened up in the southernmost parts of the original thirteen colonies. As a result, the decision was taken to start importing female black slaves as well. This caused a dramatic increase in black numbers beyond what the slave owners could have foreseen. The Africans retained their naturally high fertility rates, but now benefitted from white medical care. As a result, their infant mortality rates were considerably lower than in Africa, and large numbers of American-born Africans began to make their appearance.

Official population counts serve as a sobering reminder of the fecundity of the black slave population. According to the 1800 census, there were 893,602 blacks in America. By 1860, just prior to the American Civil War which was fought primarily over the issue of slaves, the black population in America was counted at 3,953,760.

Bearing in mind that the importation of black slaves had been forbidden after 1808, the quadrupling of the black population in just sixty years was almost exclusively attributable to their natural population growth rate. Whatever else slavery did to the blacks, it did not kill them. By 1960—only one hundred years later—the black population in America had jumped to over 20 million. This amounts to a staggering 2300 percent increase in just 160 years.

POSTERS PROVIDE INSIGHTS INTO THE SLAVE-TRADING MINDSET



CREDIT SALE OF A CHOICE GANG OF 41

SLAVES!

COMPRISING MECHANICS, LABORERS, ETC.,
FOR THE SETTLEMENT OF A COPARTNERSHIP OF RAILROAD CONTRACTORS

BY J. A. BEARD & MAY, J. A. BEARD, AUCT'R.

WILL BE SOLD AT AUCTION, AT BANKS ARCADE, MAGAZINE STREET

ON TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 5th, 1856,

AT 10 O'CLOCK.

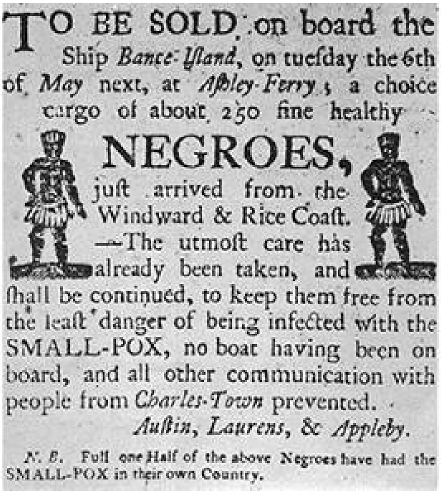
A VERY VALUABLE GANG OF SLAVES,

TERMS OF SALE—One year's credit for approved city accept-

After the sale of the above list of Slaves, will be sold Another lot of Negroes, comprising Field Hands, House servants and Mechanics. A full description of the same will be given at the sale. The slaves can be seen two days previous to the sale.

An insight into the attitude of slave owners toward negroes can be ascertained from these posters. The first (above) announces a slave auction to be held on board the slave-trading ship Island, *moored off Charleston. The poster assures would-be purchasers that the negroes are all in excellent health and that at least half of them have had the smallpox "in their own countries." The second poster (below) provides the Western names which have been given to the slaves, and offers, presumably at a cheaper rate, a "13-year old with a defect in one toe." The third (below) is a reward poster about a runaway slave in Maryland, 1855. The runaway negro is described as "very black, and has a remarkably thick upper lip and neck;*

looks as if his eyes are half closed; walks slow, and talks and laughs loud."



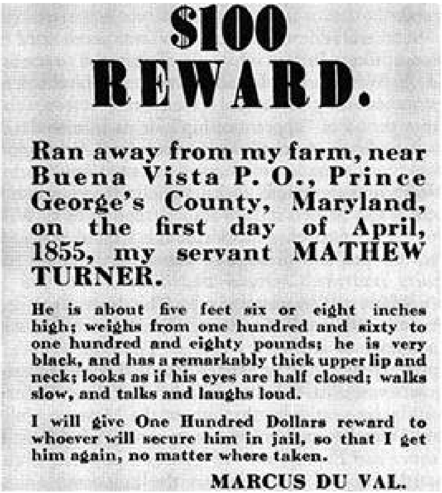
TO BE SOLD on board the Ship *Bance-Iſland*, on tueſday the 6th of *May* next, at *Aſhley-Ferry*; a choice cargo of about 250 fine healthy

NEGROES,

juſt arrived from the Windward & Rice Coaſt. —The utmoſt care has already been taken, and ſhall be continued, to keep them free from the leaſt danger of being infected with the SMALL-POX, no boat having been on board, and all other communication with people from *Charles-Town* prevented.

Auſtin, Laurens, & Appleby.

N. B. Full one Half of the above Negroes have had the SMALL-POX in their own Country.



$100 REWARD.

Ran away from my farm, near Buena Vista P. O., Prince George's County, Maryland, on the first day of April, 1855, my servant MATHEW TURNER.

He is about five feet six or eight inches high; weighs from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and eighty pounds; he is very black, and has a remarkably thick upper lip and neck; looks as if his eyes are half closed; walks slow, and talks and laughs loud.

I will give One Hundred Dollars reward to whoever will secure him in jail, so that I get him again, no matter where taken.

MARCUS DU VAL.

Slaves in America Had Legal Rights

Black slaves did have legal rights in early America. These included legislated support in age or sickness, a right to religious instruction, and the right to bring lawsuits and appear in court in certain cases. Violent behavior on the part of slave owners toward slaves was prohibited by law, but this did not stop individual instances of great cruelty.

American Revolution—Blacks Offered Freedom in Exchange for Allegiance

The outbreak of the American Revolution saw most of the black slave's population siding with the British against the colonists, particularly when the British offered emancipation in return for service against the rebels. An armed black unit, known as the Ethiopian Regiment, was raised by the British to fight the Americans.

Thousands of slaves sought freedom by taking refuge behind British lines, and when the cities of Charleston and Savannah were evacuated by the Royal forces, more than ten thousand former slaves went with them. Later, some of the emancipated blacks settled in Nova Scotia while others moved to Sierra Leone in West Africa.

The offer of freedom was quickly duplicated by the colonial rebels and, between 1782 and 1790, American Virginia plantation owners freed almost ten thousand slaves as a result of such deals.

The American Constitution Denies Blacks Citizenship and

Counts Them as Three Fifths of a Person

Most of the originators of the American Constitution were slave owners and certainly none believed in racial equality, despite all the subsequent propaganda to the contrary. As with the Amerinds—who were regarded as a completely separate alien nation—the writers of the American Constitution prepared specific provisions dealing with the status of blacks.

This status specifically excluded blacks from citizenship or voting rights in the newly-founded republic. The Constitutional Convention, held from May 25 to September 17, 1787, agreed that the US Congress should be elected on the basis of the size of the population in each member state. This meant that those states with larger populations would have more seats in congress than those with smaller populations.

Even though the majority of blacks were located in the Southern states, the Northern states argued that the African population should not be counted for purposes of calculating the number of seats in Congress. This meant, of course, that the Northern states would have more seats in Congress in terms of a calculation based purely on the white population, who were the only group accorded voting rights.

The leaders of the Southern states argued that this method of apportioning seats did not recognize the wealth and importance of their states and they wanted the black slaves to be counted equally with whites, who they called "free persons."

Finally a compromise was reached and written into the Constitution. Blacks would not have the vote, but each one would be counted as three fifths of a person for purposes of calculating the entire population.

Thus it was written into Article 1, Section 2 of the American Constitution that:

"The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States . . . Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons."

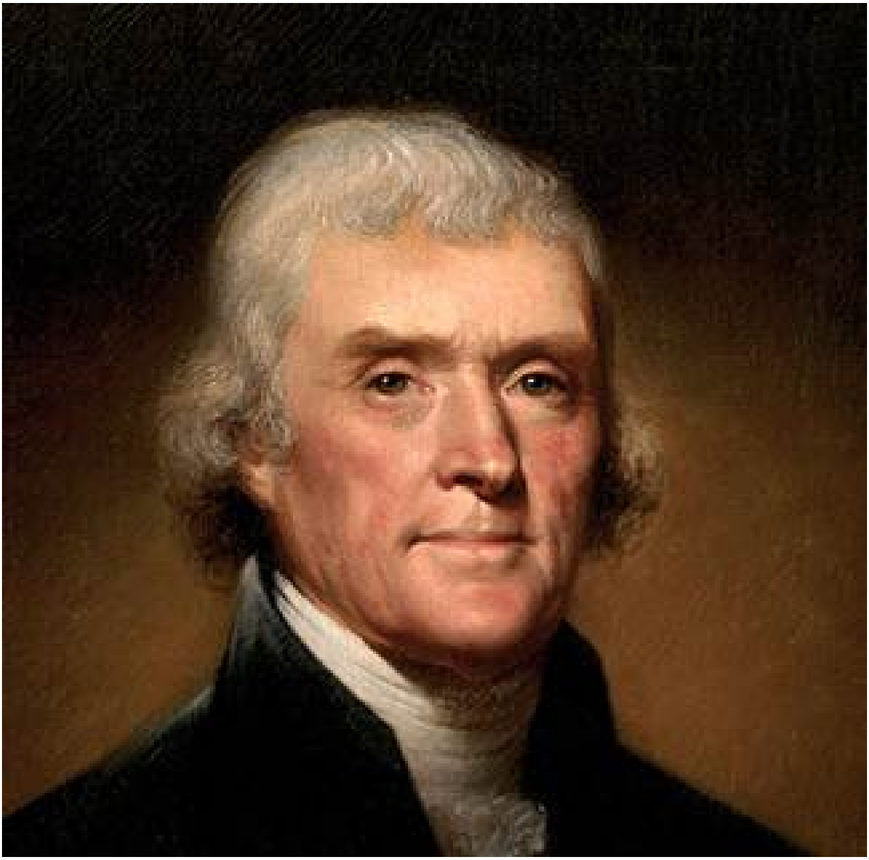
The founders of what was to become the most powerful and influential nation in modern history, therefore not only refused to grant black slaves citizenship of their new state, but then went on to only count them as part people. America was founded on the principle of racial inequality.

Blacks Taxed at Ten Dollars a Head

The American Constitution permitted the importation of slaves until 1808, but specifically forbade the trade after that date. It also gave the US Congress the power to ban the slave trade after that year. In another move obviously designed to slow down the black influx, the Constitution imposed a special tax of ten dollars per head on all blacks imported into the US until 1808.

Article 1, section 9 of the Constitution reads as follows: "The Migration of Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person."

THOMAS JEFFERSON SUPPORTED REPATRIATION



Thomas Jefferson, slave-owning president. The author of the American Declaration of Independence also advocated the repatriation of blacks from America. Jefferson declared that "Blacks . . . are inferior to Whites in the endowments of both body and mind" and, "(W)hen freed, the Black is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture." His most famous quote, engraved in the Jefferson memorial in Washington DC, has been deliberately distorted from its original to imply that he was in favor of equality with negroes. The engraving reads, "Nothing is more certainly written in the book of fate than that these people are to be free," but the full quote from Jefferson continues and says, "nor is it less certain that the two races, equally free, cannot live under the same government." In recent times it has been alleged that he fathered children with one of his black female slaves. This allegation has been conclusively disproven by DNA tests on those making the claims.

Thomas Jefferson—Proponent of Black Repatriation

Thomas Jefferson, the major author of the American Declaration of Independence, declared that "Blacks . . . are inferior to whites in the endowments of both body and mind" (*The Life and*

Selected Writings of Thomas Jefferson, Modern Library, New York, 1944, page 262).

Jefferson was a slave owner, and at one stage had around 212 Africans on his property. Although he owned slaves, he was not averse to emancipation, with the stipulation that "(W)hen freed, the Black is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture" (ibid.).

Jefferson's true views on the racial future of America have been deliberately downplayed due to pressures of political correctness. The famous Jefferson memorial in Washington DC, for example, which has served as a rallying point for American black rights' activists for decades, contains an inscription which quotes Jefferson as saying "Nothing is more certainly written in the book of fate than that these people are to be free."

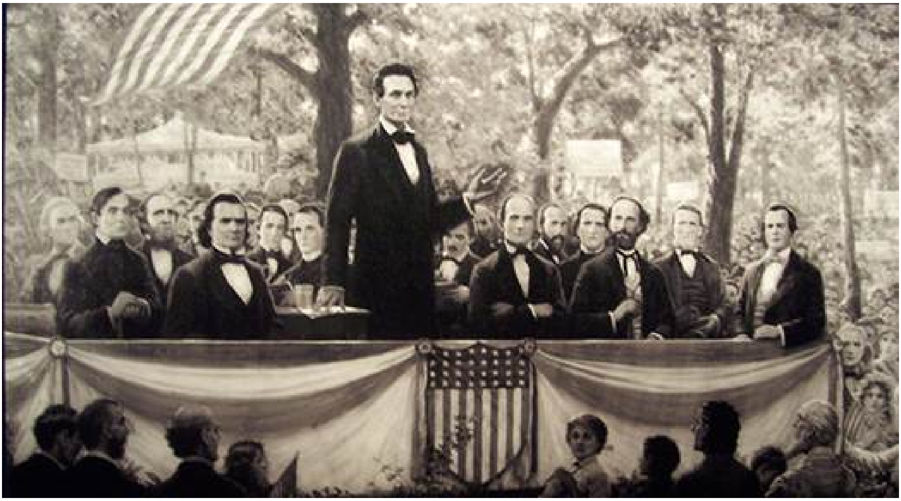
However, these are not Jefferson's complete words. The sentence from which this phrase is taken does not end with the word "free" and a period. Rather, it continues after a semicolon and reads as follows: "nor is it less certain that the two races, equally free, cannot live under the same government" (ibid.).

Abraham Lincoln—Also Proposed Sending Blacks Back to Africa

Abraham Lincoln, the American president who issued the proclamation which formally abolished slavery in America is known as the "Great Emancipator." However, Lincoln, like Jefferson and many others, never believed in racial equality. On the contrary, Lincoln was firmly committed to racial separation and the complete repatriation of all blacks back to Africa.

His support for segregation and opposition to racial mixing is illustrated by the fact that he was one of the public supporters of a law in his home state of Illinois which made marriage between blacks and whites a criminal offence (*Lincoln and the Negro,* Benjamin Quarles, Oxford University Press, New York, 1962, pages 36–37).

ABRAHAM LINCOLN CALLS FOR RACIAL SEPARATION



A scene from the famous Stephen Douglas–Abraham Lincoln debates in the race for the US Senate in 1858. It was during these debates that Lincoln made public his support for a law that made marriage between black and white a criminal offence.

Lincoln made his views known on the repatriation of blacks as early as 1862. During a meeting with a black group called the “Deputation of Free Negroes” who had come to plead for full emancipation, Lincoln told the Africans that their best option was to return to Africa and start a free black colony there. Speaking to the group, he said:

You and I are different races. We have between us a broader difference than exists between almost any other races. Whether it be right or wrong, I need not discuss; but this physical difference is a great disadvantage to us both, as I think. Your race suffer very greatly, many of them by living amongst us, while ours suffer from your presence. In a word, we suffer on each side. If this is admitted, it affords a reason at least why we should be separated. “Your race are suffering, in my judgment, the greatest wrong inflicted on any people. But even when you cease to be slaves, you are yet far removed from being placed on equality with the White race. On this broad continent, not a single man of your race is made the equal of a single man of ours. Go where you are treated the best, and the ban is still upon you. I cannot alter it if I would.

I need not recount to you the effects upon White men, growing out of the institution of slavery. See our present condition—the country engaged in war!—our White men cutting one another’s throats, none knowing how far it will extend; and then consider what we know to be the truth. But for your race among us there would be no war, although many *men engaged on either side do not care for you one way or the other. It is better for us both, therefore, to be separated* (*The Collected Works of Abraham Lincoln,* edited by Roy P. Baler, Rutgers University Press, 1953, Vol. V, pages 371–375).

“No Greater Calamity”—Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation Opposed Black Presence in America

When Lincoln signed the Emancipation Proclamation, he again called for black “colonization” (the creation of a separate black state removed from America) during his speech after the signing ceremony: “I have urged the colonization of the Negroes, and shall continue. My Emancipation Proclamation was linked with this plan. There is no room for two distinct races of white men in America, much less for two distinct races of whites and blacks.

I can conceive of no greater calamity than the assimilation of the Negro into our social and political life as our equal. Within twenty years we can peacefully colonize the Negro and give him our language, literature, religion, and system of government under conditions in which he can rise to the full measure of manhood. This he can never do here. We can never attain the ideal union our fathers dreamed, with millions of an alien, inferior race among us, whose assimilation is neither possible nor desirable (ibid.).

This attitude proved to be the major point of difference between Lincoln and the slave-owning Southern states. Lincoln wanted the slaves freed and deported, while the Southerners wanted black enslavement to continue and for that racial group to remain present in America.

“Dred Scott” Ruling Confirms Blacks Not US Citizens 1857

The noncitizen status of blacks in America was confirmed with the famous *Dred Scott v. Sandford*, US Supreme Court ruling of 1857 which held that Africans imported into the United States as slaves (and their descendants) were not protected by the Constitution and could never be American citizens.

The ruling, which came about after hearing an application by a runaway slave, Dred Scott, against his extradition across state boundaries, also ruled that the US Congress had no authority to prohibit slavery in federal territories and, that as slaves were not citizens, they could not sue in court. Furthermore, the Court ruled that slaves, as chattels or private property, could not be taken away from their owners without due process. This ruling was regarded as controversial, but was fully in line with the original Constitution's stipulations regarding the status of blacks in America.

Blacks Granted Citizenship in 1869

The 1865 assassination of Abraham Lincoln was a turning point in the "colonization" policy. Deprived of its major proponent, the movement to forcibly repatriate all blacks back to Africa withered on the political vine as other issues came to dominate domestic politics in America.

As a result, the US Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1866, which declared that people born in the United States and not subject to any foreign power were entitled to be citizens, without regard to race, color, or previous condition of slavery or involuntary servitude. This Act placed Congress in conflict with the Dred Scott decision, which was based on the US Constitution.

As a result, it was determined that the Constitution would have to be changed. The Fourteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution was adopted on July 9, 1868, and contained a Citizenship Clause specifically worded to overrule the Dred Scott decision. It was a move which certainly would have been opposed by the Founding Fathers and Lincoln.

The Free Blacks Also Owned Slaves

Not all blacks entered the early Americas as slaves, and many came during the nineteenth century as part of a British abolitionist effort to provide an alternative for slave labor. All told, some fifty thousand "free blacks" settled in the British and French West Indies, their numbers being swelled by an ever increasing amount of freed slaves.

However, even earlier than this, a resident "free black" population was a feature of every slave-owning society in the Americas. For example, the records show that in 1789 there were 420,000 "free blacks" in the provinces of the "New Kingdom of Granada," which today makes up the present-day states of Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador. In those regions, the number of black slaves numbered some 20,000.

"Free blacks" also outnumbered African slaves in Peru, Argentina, and Brazil. In Puerto Rico, "free blacks" numbered nearly half the total population in 1812, while in Cuba, "free blacks" made up 15 percent of the African population by 1827. In San Domingue, “free blacks” made up 5 percent of the African population, and in Jamaica around 3 percent fell into this category.

Contrary to the popular image portrayed of the American South as a place of medieval serfdom, it was in the South that the free blacks prospered most: they had greater opportunities than Northern blacks to work as artisans and even to acquire property. In New Orleans, Louisiana, for example, 753 blacks owned slaves, according to the 1830 census.

The growing number of “free blacks” was met with hostility in America. For the most part these people were illiterate and unable to settle as farmers or tradesmen, instead often turning to crime. The exceedingly high rate of “free black” criminality resulted in several anti-negro riots across the United States, with the most serious outbreak occurring in Cincinnati in 1829. The growing problem led a number of states to either restrict or prohibit completely the entry of “free blacks” into their areas. An Ohio law, for example, required “free blacks” to post $500 bonds before they were allowed to live there.

Haiti—the Massacre of the Whites

The Caribbean state of Haiti serves as a striking reminder of just how deadly the practice of slavery could be. By 1804, the combined effect of thirteen years of uprisings, murder, and terrorism had destroyed the white population of Haiti, along with all agricultural production and the economy of what was formerly the most prosperous colony in the Western Hemisphere.

The island, originally named San Domingo, had become a center of Spanish activity during the time of the conquistador Hernando Cortes. The Spanish retained a small presence on the eastern side of the island, which is today known as the Dominican Republic. The western part of the island was settled by French traders in 1697 and renamed Saint-Domingue, and it was here that the ferocious race war took place.

The local Amerinds, called *Canibales* by the Spanish on account of their cannibalistic habits, had been reduced to insignificance by a combination of Spanish force of arms, slavery, and European diseases to which they had no immunity. As a result, the French started importing African slaves to work in the colony.

“The Jewel in the Crown”—Supplies Half of Europe’s Sugar Needs

By 1789, San Domingue was the jewel in the French colonial crown. Its ideal climate and naturally rich soil produced more sugar, coffee, and cotton than all of the then existing colonies in North America put together. San Domingue's sugar output supplied not only all of France's requirements, but half of the European continent's needs as well.

San Domingue's wealth was legendary, and by the time of the French Revolution, some 40,000 whites had settled in the colony. However, by this stage there were at least 450,000 black slaves toiling in the fields to maintain the island's prodigious agricultural output, and in addition there were approximately 27,000 mulattoes. This huge nonwhite population, mostly kept under conditions of slavery, provided the demographic time bomb which utterly destroyed the white colony.

French Revolution—Move to Give Nonwhites the Franchise

The French Revolution of 1789 served as a spark which ignited the long-simmering racial pressures in San Domingue. A decree by the French national assembly of May 15, 1791, gave the white and mixed-race population on the island the right to vote.

The white settlers on the island immediately protested. The aptly-named governor general of the island, Blanchelande, sent a message to Paris warning that the implementation of such a form of government would result in "a frightful civil war" and the loss of the colony for France.

The French National Assembly then rescinded the earlier decree and issued a new one saying that the colonists themselves could decide on what form of government was best for their own particular circumstances. When this news was made known in San Domingue, it heightened tensions. The mixed-race population in particular were in an uproar after being informed that they had the vote and then only a few months later told the opposite.

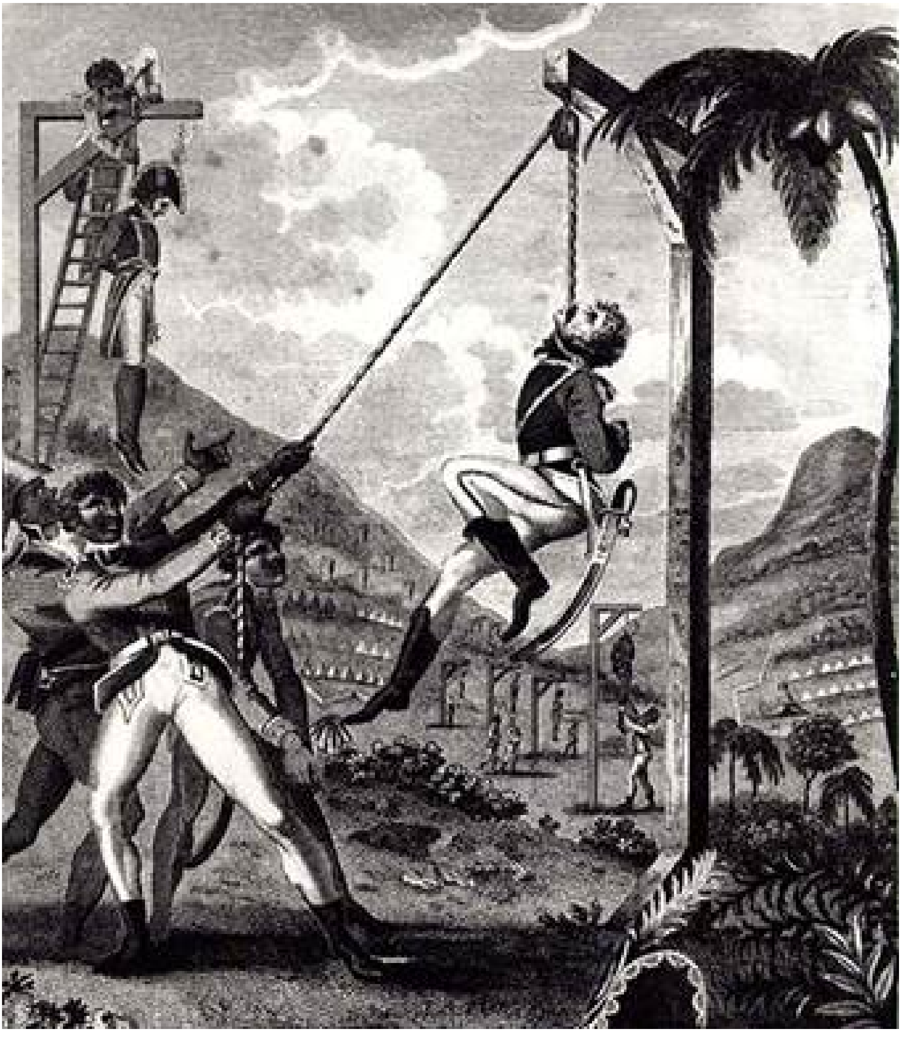
"Amis des Noirs"—French Revolutionaries

A strong anti-slavery lobby, *Amis des Noirs* ("friends of the blacks"), developed in France, and grew increasingly powerful over the course of the revolution. This abolitionist group agitated constantly for emancipation and full political rights for both mulattoes and blacks in San Domingue, and reacted with outrage to the second decree which took away the right to vote for the mixed-race element.

As a result of the Amis des Noir's efforts, the French national assembly issued a third decree which gave voting rights back to mulattoes and "free blacks," that is, those blacks not under any form of indentured labor.

When this news was received in San Domingue, the now-armed black population launched a violent rebellion. Whites were attacked at random, plantations burned, and the island plunged into chaos. The mixed-race population initially sided with the whites but then switched allegiance to the blacks.

BLACKS EXTERMINATE ALL WHITES IN HAITI



By the end of the uprising in Haiti, every white man, woman, and child had been murdered. Once the whites had been exterminated, the black *population then turned on the mixed-race population and wiped them out as well.*

Chaos Reigns for Ten Years

The chaos continued until 1802 when a detachment of twenty thousand French troops was sent by Napoleon Bonaparte to restore order to the island. The French forces, under the command of Napoleon's brother-in-law, General Leclerc, crushed the rebellion. The insurgents were ruthlessly hunted down and the main rebel leaders forced to pledge allegiance to the new French government.

Just when the situation seemed to have stabilized, two disastrous events occurred. The first was the news that the Napoleonic government had given permission for the reinstitution of slavery, and the second was an outbreak of yellow fever on San Domingue. The possibility that the institution of slavery could return reignited black unrest on the island. Meanwhile, the already thinly stretched French forces were decimated by disease, which killed as many as 160 soldiers per day. By August 1802, four fifths of the French troops who had arrived earlier in the year were dead.

Napoleon sent ten thousand fresh troops to bolster the beleaguered French garrison. The new troops were also laid low by yellow fever, and the rebellious blacks, largely immune to the disease, stepped up their attacks. The security situation on the island deteriorated once again.

The conflict then took an even nastier turn. The French authorities decided that the only way to bring the twelve-year-old race war to an end was to kill all black inhabitants over the age of twelve years. The reasoning for this was that any adult black who had, for the previous decade at least, waged a racial war against whites, would never meekly go back to working in the fields. The same applied to black women, the French decided, as the females of that race had proven themselves to be even more vicious and cruel to captured whites than their menfolk. With ruthless energy, the surviving French troops pursued their new orders, and many blacks were killed in this arbitrary fashion. Both sides were plunged into a spiral of tit-for-tat atrocities which seemed to have no end.

French Withdraw and Blacks Rule

The outbreak of the Napoleonic Wars intervened in developments on the island. France became embroiled in a war with Britain at sea, and the French colonial possession of San Domingue came under attack. The British navy blockaded the island, cut off supplies to the French garrison, and supplied the black rebels with guns and ammunition.

The most prominent of the black rebel leaders, Dessalines, launched a number of attacks on the increasingly isolated French garrisons in the coastal towns. Dessalines took town after town from the weakened French forces, and systematically exterminated all the whites taken prisoner. By November 10, 1803, the French could no longer hold out and surrendered to the British fleet off the coast. Of the fifty thousand French troops sent to the island, only a few thousand ever made it back to France.

The Massacre of the Last Whites

With the French gone, the black leader Dessalines had a free hand in instituting his own reign of terror against any whites still unfortunate enough to be on the island state. San Domingue was renamed Haiti in December 1803 and declared independent.

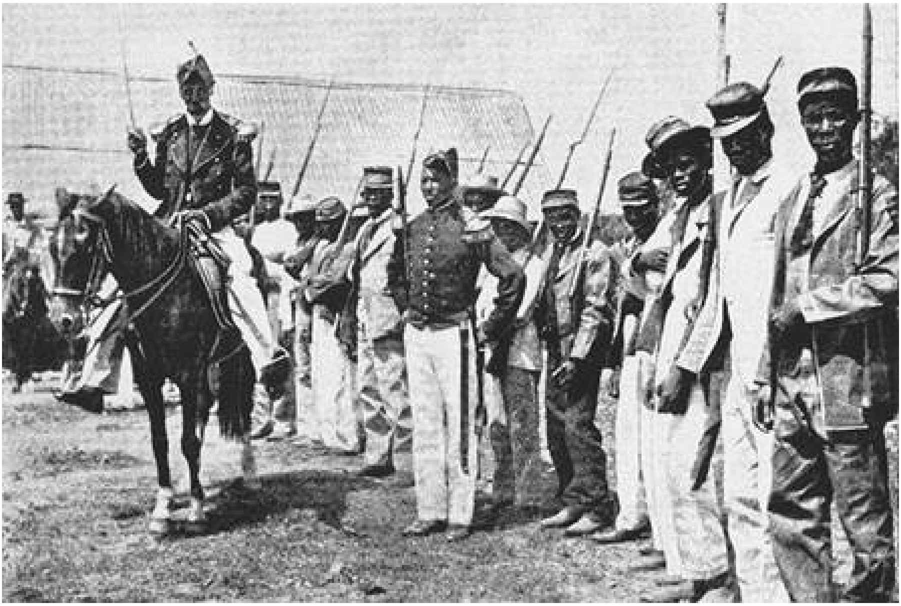
The country because the second independent nation in the Western Hemisphere (after the United States of America) and the first independent black-ruled nation in the Caribbean.

Having disposed of the whites, the blacks and the mixed-race population turned on each other in yet another race war. This ended with the almost complete annihilation of the mulatto population, and in October 1804, Dessalines declared his people to be the winners. To mark the occasion, he declared himself “emperor for life” of Haiti.

The same year, Dessalines asked those whites who had fled, to return and help rebuild the economy. A surprisingly large number of colonists took up his offer, but soon discovered the nature of their error.

Early in 1805 the black population once again rose up against the returned white settlers. Dessalines was powerless to control the mobs, despite the white colonists’ pleas. The Europeans were hunted down and, on March 18, 1805, the very last white person in Haiti was killed.

COMICAL HAITIAN “ARMY” 1899



The Haitian army on parade in 1899: a comical collection of "generals" with almost no soldiers, as vividly captured in the book Where Black Rules White *(H. H. Prichard, Ostara Publications, reprinted 2011).*

The history of Haiti after 1805 is not the subject of this book. Suffice to say that San Domingue, which under French rule was once the richest land in all the Caribbean, is today a Third World shambles of poverty, anarchy, and chaos. This state of affairs is even more meaningful when it is considered that the independent state of Haiti is only thirty-five years younger than the United States of America.

It is a devastating counterargument to the "environmental" theory of development—because if time and environment were the only factors influencing civilization, Haiti, in theory, should be as advanced as America.

HAITI—A THIRD WORLD NATION

A street scene in Haiti, 2009. Despite being only a few years younger than the US, Haiti is a Third World nation. This is because its population is of Third World-origin.

Blacks Repatriated from England

Britain had imported around fifteen thousand black slaves by the time that its Parliament formally abolished slavery in 1772. In 1787, a society for the abolition of the slave trade was formed with William Wilberforce as its parliamentary spokesman.

A policy of repatriation became part and parcel of the abolitionist crusade, with proponents seeking the repatriation of all black slaves back to Africa. As a result, the first such move took place in 1787 when several hundred freed slaves were landed on the coast of present-day Sierra Leone in West Africa. There, they were provided with a basic infrastructure in a town called Saint George’s Bay. The emancipated slaves, however, were unable to sustain the town and it had collapsed by 1790.

Undeterred, the British abolitionists launched another repatriation attempt and founded the aptly named town of Freetown in 1792. This time, however, a number of whites moved to the town with the former black slaves to help build it up. The town has survived to the present day, and is the capital and largest city of Sierra

Leone. In 1815, a small group of free blacks from North America were transported to Sierra Leone, where they supplemented the British Sierra Leone settlement. This was the forerunner of a larger repatriation movement from the Americas.

The American Colonization Society Founds Liberia for Former Slaves

An alliance of abolitionists and freed black slaves, called the American Colonization Society (ACS), took up the role of actively promoting black repatriation to Africa from America. It was supported by a large number of notable people, including American president James Monroe.

By 1822, the ACS was powerful enough to establish a former slave settlement in West Africa called Liberia, to which blacks were repatriated until well after the American Civil War. Liberia's capital city was named Monrovia in honor of James Monroe, and the new country was provided with support and a constitution, based on the principles contained in the US Constitution.

Liberia was declared independent in 1847, and is thus one of the oldest black-ruled states in Africa (the other being Ethiopia). Yet, despite massive US aid, Liberia is yet another failed African state, and is one of the world's poorest countries, with a formal employment rate of only around 15 percent, according to 2011 US State Department figures.

The 2010 Transparency International report called Liberia the world's most corrupt country, and the World Bank revealed that in 2009, the average Liberian was living on $1.25 per day.

Liberia and the other repatriated slave settlements are, therefore, excellent examples of the validity of the dictum that a society's level is determined by the majority population, and not the environmental factors.

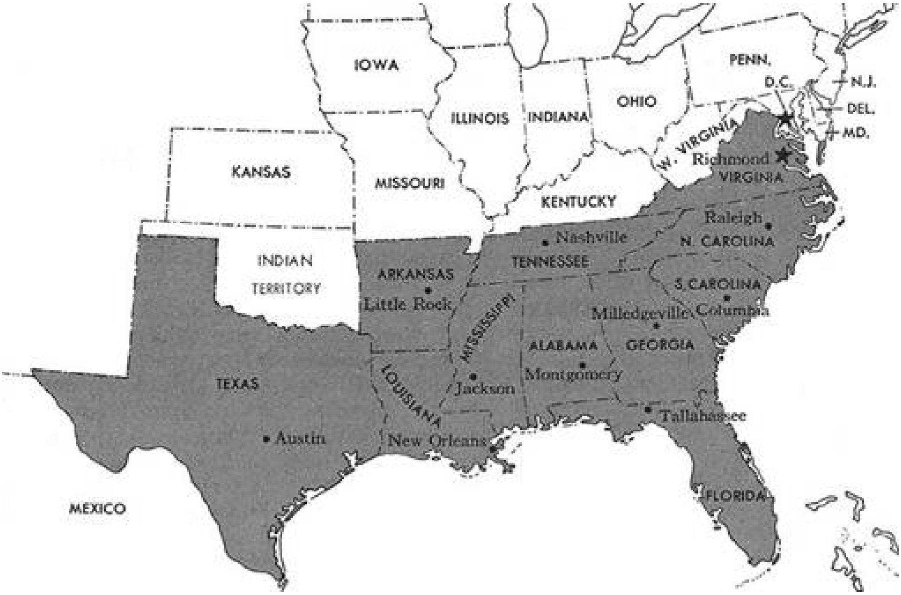
CHAPTER 52: White Men Cutting One Another's Throats—the American Civil War

When Abraham Lincoln told a "free black" delegation in 1862 that the American Civil War was "white men . . . cutting one another's throats" for the benefit of Negroes, it is unlikely that even he could foresee the awful slaughter which would transpire over the next three years of warfare. More Americans were killed in the Civil War than in any other conflict which that nation has since fought.

The causes of the war have often been debated. Some have said that it was economic in origin; others have said that the burning issue was "state's rights," or the right of individual states to make their own laws independent of the federal authority.

While these factors may have played a minor role, the reality is that the core *casus belli* was the issue of slavery. As Lincoln said, the fight was over the future of the black race in America, and ultimately that was the reason so many whites died.

THE UNITED STATES VERSUS THE CONFEDERATE STATES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MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
Raleigh
N. CAROLINA
Nashville
TENNESSEE
INDIAN TERRITORY
ARKANSAS
Little Rock
MISSISSIPPI
S. CAROLINA
Milledgeville
Columbia
ALABAMA
GEORGIA
Montgomery
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
Jackson
Tallahassee
Austin
New Orleans
FLORIDA
MEXICO

The split between the North and South is illustrated by this map. Although geographically larger, the Confederation had a smaller population than the north. There were some 5.5 million whites in the south as opposed to 22 million in the north. The black population was concentrated in the south, *where they numbered some 3.5 million.*

USA's Territorial Growth

The expansion of the United States of America after the War of Independence saw the original thirteen colonies grow to nearly half the size of present-day America by the time of the Civil War. In 1791, Vermont, a frontier region, became a state. This was followed by Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, and Ohio in 1803.

One of the largest single additions to the United States took place in 1803 when Napoleon Bonaparte sold the French-controlled territory in North America to President Thomas Jefferson. This area, known as the Louisiana Territory, was a vast tract of land which stretched from east to west between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, and from north to south from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico. The American government purchased this land for $15 million: a bargain when it is considered that this territory eventually made up all or part of fourteen current US states.

In 1810, the United States forcibly annexed the territory called "West Mexico" from Spain. This was a strip of land along the Gulf of Mexico which extended west from Florida to the mouth of the Mississippi River. Spain also ceded the last of her North American possessions, called "East Mexico," to the United States in 1819. East Mexico is today known as the state of Florida.

Waves of westward migrations helped establish the state of Louisiana in 1812, Indiana in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, and Alabama in 1819.

Cotton Industry Spurs Demand for Labor

The climate in the southern states lent itself to the cultivation of cotton. This in turn spurred the demand for manual laborers, which then meant black slaves. Hundreds of thousands were imported and the South grew wealthy on this cotton-based economy. Great towns were built which rivaled those in the Northeast, and many wealthy Southern plantation owners lived lives of near aristocratic opulence.

But underneath the façade, political and demographic time bombs ticked. The twin issues of slavery and the right of the central government to regulate this practice came to dominate the political debate.

In contrast to the agriculturally-based south, the North was marked by rapid industrialization and had a larger population. This was a factor which caused Congress to institute protective tariffs for northern industry. These tariffs were opposed by the South for a number of reasons:

- Firstly, they highlighted the centrally-controlled powers of federalism to which the more independence-minded southerners objected;

- Secondly, because the South had no major industrial capacity which could compete with the North, the tariffs meant that Southerners were forced to pay higher prices for northern industrial goods.

SLAVES, THEIR MASTER, AND THE COTTON FIELDS

A photograph of a southern cotton plantation, showing the owner weighing picked cotton in the presence of some of his slaves. The practice of slavery was the real casus belli *of the Civil War— all other issues hinged directly on the continued existence of slavery.*

Ambivalent Government Approach to Slavery

By the end of the eighteenth century, all the states north of Maryland (except New Jersey) had passed laws which abolished slavery. The US Constitution, however, specifically recognized slavery, and as a result, Congress did nothing to either end or encourage the practice of slavery. This ambiguous state of affairs resulted in the legal loophole which allowed some states to keep slaves and others to declare the practice illegal.

Congress was thus caught in a web of indecision. Sometimes it acted in favor of slave-owning states, other times against slavery. An ordinance passed in 1787, for example, prohibited slavery in the northwest territory, but in 1793, Congress passed the Fugitive Slave Law, which permitted a slave owner to reclaim escaped slaves from anywhere in the United States upon production of “proof of ownership.”

To add to the confusion, the “new” states which were added to the Union from 1791 onward were allowed to choose for themselves if they supported the practice of slavery or not. In this way, slavery-supporting states such as Kentucky, Tennessee, and Louisiana were admitted to the Union along with states such as Vermont, Ohio, and Maine, all of which opposed slavery.

The Missouri Compromise—States Divided on Slavery

By 1818, the issue of slavery could no longer be sidestepped. When the state of Missouri applied for membership of the Union in that year, representatives from the non-slave-owning states objected vehemently, arguing that it would create a precedent for the future admission of slave-owning states from the Western Territories into the Union.

After much debate, it was agreed that Missouri would be admitted to the Union, but in terms of a law which became known as the Missouri Compromise, no other states from the Western Territories would be admitted if they practiced slavery.

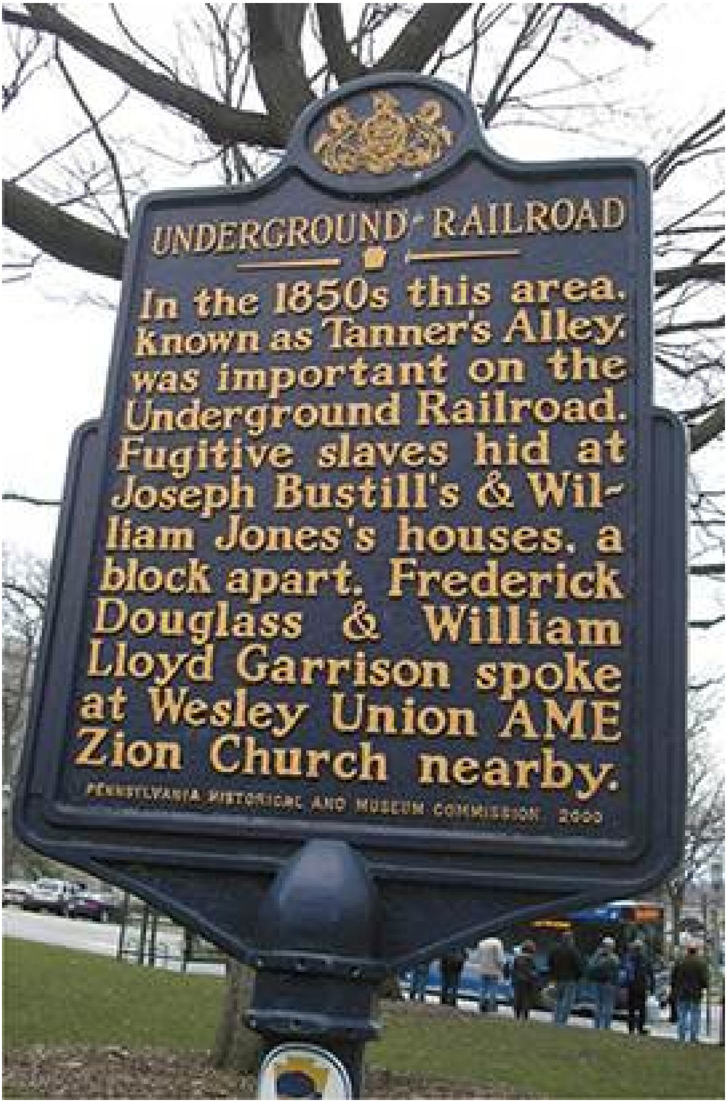
After the Missouri Compromise was passed, abolitionists from the North stepped up the pressure in the US Congress for the complete repeal of slavery, only to be answered by representatives from the South who argued that the practice was the key to the cotton industry. After much debate, the Southerners achieved another congressional victory, when the 1840 “Gag Resolution” was passed. This effectively prevented Congress from considering any further petition presented to it on the subject of slavery.

The political struggle did not die down, and the outbreak of the Mexican War only added fuel to the fire. The successful conclusion of the war with Mexico resulted in the addition of Texas, Arizona, California, New Mexico, and Oregon to the Union.

It was obvious that some of these new states would be slave-owning territories and some would not. The fact that the states were outside the jurisdiction of the Missouri Compromise (which only applied to the Louisiana Purchase territories) further complicated the matter.

In yet another compromise measure, the US Congress decided not to rule on the issue. California and Oregon were admitted as non-slave-owning states while Texas was admitted as a slave-owning state. Arizona and New Mexico were to be left to decide on their own on the issue.

UNDERGROUND RAILROAD—GREATLY EXAGGERATED


UNDERGROUND RAILROAD
In the 1850s this area, known as Tanner's Alley, was important on the Underground Railroad. Fugitive slaves hid at Joseph Bustill's & William Jones's houses, a block apart. Frederick Douglass & William Lloyd Garrison spoke at Wesley Union AME Zion Church nearby.
PENNSYLVANIA HISTORICAL AND MUSEUM COMMISSION

A sign commemorating the Underground Railroad in Pennsylvania. The Underground Railroad was an informal escape route for former slaves fleeing the south. Official records show that only six thousand blacks actually used this escape route. Given the fact that there were more than 3.5 million slaves in the south, the low figures show that the importance of the Underground Railroad has been greatly exaggerated.

The Underground Railroad

Despite allowing some states to decide for themselves on the slavery issue, the US Congress passed a fugitive slave law in 1850 which tightened up the measures a slave owner could make to reclaim escaped slaves who had sought refuge in non-slavery states. The contradictory nature of these decisions became known as the "Compromise Measures" and did nothing to prevent heightening tensions over the slavery issue between abolitionist states and their opponents.

Many abolitionists in the North refused to obey the 1850 fugitive slave law and organized a series of secret routes and safe houses across America which were used by blacks to escape to free states and to Canada. This practice became known as the "Underground Railroad" and has entered civil-rights' legend, with claims that as many as thirty thousand slaves escaped the South in this manner. However, official US Census figures say that only six thousand slaves ever actually used the Underground Railroad.

Nonetheless, the Compromise Measures continued to be implemented. In 1854, the US Congress repealed parts of the Missouri Compromise and allowed the new states of Nebraska and Kansas to decide for themselves over the issue of slavery. This law correctly interpreted this decision as a way for the Southerners to extend the practice of slavery north, and resulted in the first violent confrontation between abolitionists and slave owners in Kansas.

In preparation for a vote on the matter, abolitionist settlers moved to the new state from New England with the intention of making Kansas a non-slave-owning state, while groups of pro-slavery settlers moved there from Missouri in order to boost their side's chances.

The pro-slavery forces sacked and burned the antislavery town of Lawrence in May 1856, and in retaliation, John Brown, a fanatical abolitionist, led a group which killed five pro-slavery adherents at Pottawatomie Creek. The increasing tensions were aggravated by the 1857 US Supreme Court's Dred Scott judgment, which effectively sanctioned the practice of slavery. It was against this backdrop of conflicting laws, compromises, disputes over the right of the central government to interfere in states' laws, along with openly hostile and antagonistic elements on both sides, that set the scene for a devastating civil war.

Dispute over Presidential Election Leads to Secession and War

Abraham Lincoln's presidential election victory in 1859 proved for many Southerners that the commanding position in national affairs now belonged to the North. The Union, it was deemed, was dominated by the North simply because of the larger voting population. As a result, the Southerners correctly decided, it was inevitable that all major decisions regarding social and economic matters would be taken by the North and imposed across the entire Union.

As a result, South Carolina became the first state to take the momentous decision to leave the Union. It is still hotly debated if the Southern states had the right to secede or not. The US Constitution had no clause dealing with the dissolution of the Union, and was no help in the matter. Hence legal arguments have swung either way ever since.

The practical effect, however, was not in dispute. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina formally announced its secession from the Union and a few days later, state troopers laid siege to the federal garrison at Fort Sumter in Charleston. Within a month, the states of Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, and Georgia also withdrew from the Union, to be followed a short while later by Louisiana, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee.

The Confederate States of America

On February 4, 1861, delegates from six of the rebel states met at Montgomery in Alabama and formed a provisional government. They named their new union the Confederate States of America, and the constitution they adopted provided the final proof—if any more was needed—that the real cause of the conflict was slavery.

The delegates in Montgomery adopted a constitution which in most respects repeated the US Constitution verbatim, but added a number of detailed clauses protecting the institution of slavery. In addition, the new constitution denied states the power to bar slave owners from bringing their slaves into other states or to interfere with the property rights of slave owners traveling between different parts of the Confederacy.

The amended constitution was adopted on February 8. The next day, the delegates elected a provisional president and vice president: Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens. These two men were elected unopposed in the only formal confederate election held in 1862.

Lincoln, meanwhile, attempted to prevent the Union from falling apart. In his presidential inaugural address delivered on March 4, 1861, he said that he had no intention to interfere with slavery in the states where it existed, but, he added, no state had the right to unilaterally leave the Union.

SITE OF INAUGURATION OF CONFEDERATE PRESIDENT

The state capitol of Alabama was the scene of the inauguration of Jefferson Davis as president of the Confederate States of America, February 18, 1861. Along with many other Southern states, the Confederate flag flew on the building well into the 1990s, until political pressures resulting from racial population changes caused its removal.

First Shots Fired at Fort Sumter

Lincoln's efforts to preserve the Union were in vain and events quickly overtook him. On April 12, the South Carolina troopers, who had until then peacefully besieged the garrison of Fort Sumter, started a cannon bombardment of the fortification. The Union troops surrendered two days later. Lincoln's hand was forced by this armed action. On April 15, he called upon all the states to raise an army of seventy-five thousand to "defend the Union." This served as a signal to those Southern states that had not yet decided either way, that war was coming. As a result, they threw their lot in with the Confederacy. This did not make the conflict any more even: The North was always the overwhelming power, possessing all the major industrial complexes and a population of over twenty-two million against the South's total of less than nine million.

FORT SUMTER—HOSTILITIES OPEN MARCH 1861

The Confederate flag flies inside the ruins of Fort Sumter, April 1861. Situated on an island in the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, the fort was occupied by troops loyal to the Union government and refused to surrender to the Confederacy. The fort was bombarded for thirty-four hours before it surrendered.

Black Troops Employed by the North

Prior to the outbreak of the Civil War, blacks were not allowed to join state militias or the US Army or Navy. This restriction was initially kept by the Union government, and it was only in 1862 that blacks were allowed to enlist in racially-segregated units, led by white officers. By the end of the war, more than 200,000 blacks had served in the Union Army and Navy in combat roles. This was in marked contrast to the South, which strictly kept to the rule of not enlisting blacks, even though many Confederates took their slaves with them to war to work as cooks, cleaners, or servants.

The First Battle of Bull Run—Confederate Victory Stuns Union

The first major engagement of the war occurred on July 21, 1861, when a Union army moved south against a Confederate army which had taken up position about twenty-five miles southwest of Washington DC.

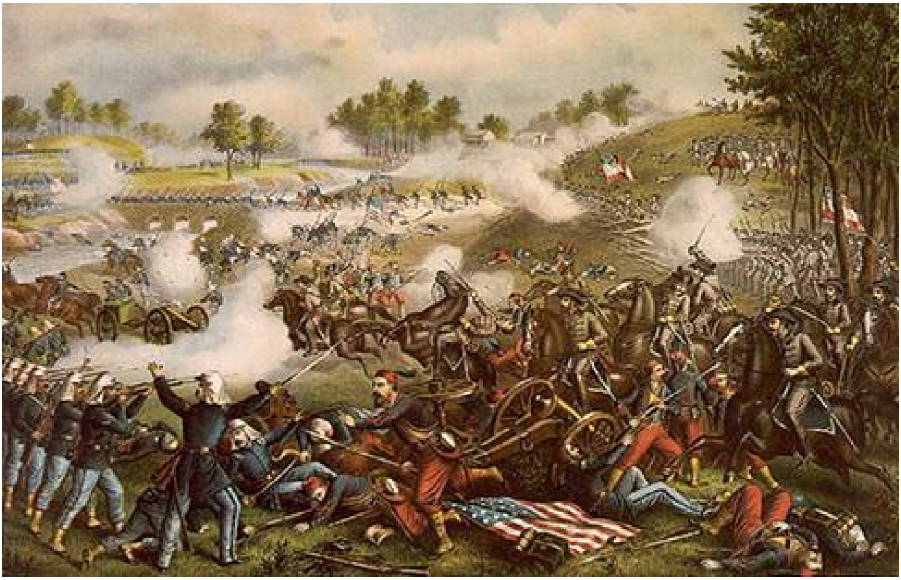
The opening stage of the battle appeared to go well for the Union forces. The Confederate army was surrounded and only rallied to their posts through the example of personal heroism set by their commanding officer, General Thomas Jackson, who won the name “Stonewall” for his refusal to give way or surrender.

However, Confederate reinforcements arrived and inflicted a major defeat on the Union forces who fled in disarray toward Washington DC. The defeat stunned the North as many had presumed that the conflict would be a short affair.

Mini Civil War Erupts in Missouri

In May 1861, a mini-civil war broke out in Missouri. Pro-Confederate and pro-Union militia clashed repeatedly, but were unable to inflict a major defeat on each other until August, when a large pro-Union army invaded. The Confederate forces were defeated at the Battle of Wilson’s Creek in southwestern Missouri, although bands of pro-Confederate guerrillas continued to operate until the end of the war in the state. One of the more notable of these Confederate guerrillas was Jesse James, who won infamy as a train and bank robber after the war.

BATTLE OF BULL RUN, 1861—PROVED THAT THE WAR WOULD NOT BE OVER SOON



The Battle of Bull Run was an early defeat for the Union, which at first believed it would easily be able to crush the Confederates by launching an attack into northeastern Virginia. Repulsed by the Confederates, the Union army fled in disarray to Washington DC. The Confederates pursued the Union army, and seemed to threaten the Northern capital. The battle exhausted both sides, with the Union suffering 14,500 casualties and the South 9,100 in the seventeen-day-long engagement.

Kentucky—Battle of Belmont Ends Indecisively

Kentucky attempted to remain neutral in the conflict, but in September 1861, Confederate forces occupied the city of Columbus. Kentucky's state legislature responded by asking the Union government for help. An army under Brigadier General Ulysses S. Grant was sent from Illinois and crossed the Mississippi River and marched to the town of Belmont. There, the Union forces overran the Confederate garrison, but a strong counterattack by Confederate reinforcements from Columbus forced Grant to withdraw. The engagement ended inconclusively, and the Confederates remained entrenched in Columbus.

A localized conflict between Confederate and Union militia raged on until October 1862, when a new attempt to dislodge the Southerners was made at the Battle of Perryville. This engagement was only a Union victory in so far that the Confederate forces withdrew south afterwards, but this retreat was not followed up by a Union advance, and the uncertain status quo in Kentucky was resumed.

Union's Blockade and Seaborne Invasion of South Carolina

As part of the Union's plan to economically strangle the South, a naval blockade of all the major southern ports was put into effect. Union navy units laid siege to most of the major Confederate ports and succeeded in halting almost all cotton exports. This strategy became known as the "Anaconda Plan" because of its representation in popular leaflets of the time as a snake curling round the South.

In November 1861, a major Union victory was achieved when General Thomas W. Sherman's troops seized the Port Royal Sound in South Carolina. This thorn in the South's side would continue to the war's end, and played a major role in the siege of Charleston.

British Sympathies with Confederacy

In the interim, the Confederacy sent two "commissioners," or ambassadors, James Mason and John Slidell, to Britain in an attempt to drum up support against the Union. The two men bypassed the Union's blockade and reached Cuba, where they boarded the British mail ship, the *Trent,* which set sail for Europe in November 1861.

The *Trent,* however, was intercepted by a Union ship, the *San Jacinto,* and the two Confederate diplomats were arrested and taken to Fort Warren in Boston. The Union forces had violated all principles of international law relating to neutrality, and the British government correctly pointed out that the US Congress had declared war on Britain 1812, when British ships had seized American vessels en route to France. For a while it seemed as if Britain might enter the war against the Union. Only an apology by Lincoln's government and the release of the Confederate commissioners served to avoid the direct involvement of Britain in the war.

Britain's Tacit Support for Confederacy

From then on, Britain openly favored the Confederates and even allowed Confederate warships to be built in British shipyards. The links between Britain and the Confederacy were cemented by the personal friendship of the British Jewish prime minister of the time, Benjamin Disraeli, and the Confederate Jewish Secretary of State, Benjamin Judah.

Disraeli's views on race (discussed in an earlier section on Britain) made him personally sympathetic to the Confederate cause, and when Judah fled the South at the end of the war, he stayed as Disraeli's personal guest at the latter's private house in England.

The Union Strikes South

In January 1862, the Union launched its first major invasion of the South. An army under Ulysses Grant advanced on western Tennessee and attacked the Confederate Fort Henry on the Tennessee River. Grant then marched on to Fort Donelson, which surrendered after a five-day siege.

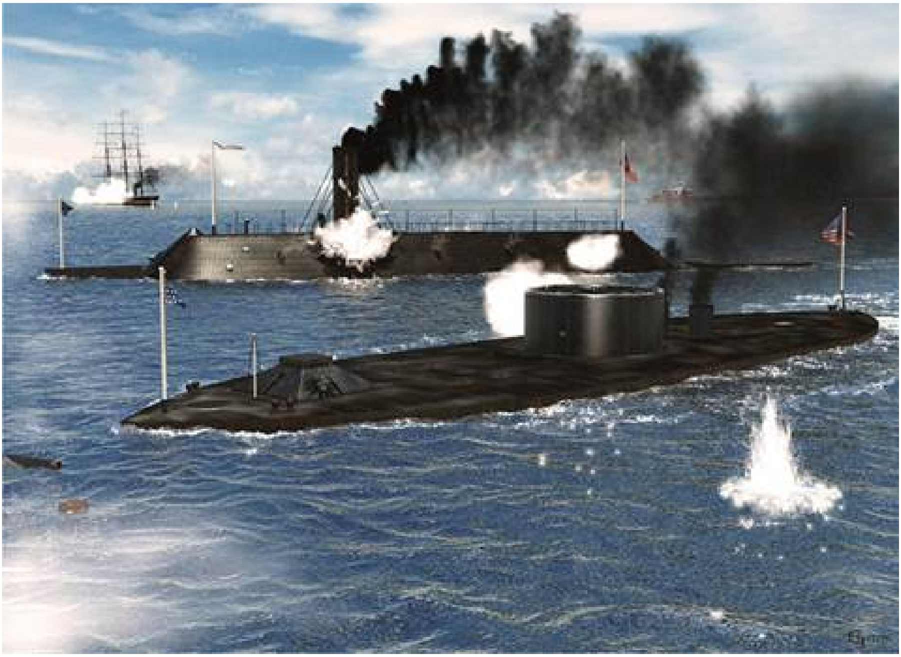
The seizure of both these forts opened up a sea route into Tennessee, and enabled the Union to build up a considerable force behind Confederate lines. Eventually this force would become known as the Army of the Tennessee and would play a major role in the final defeat of the Confederacy.

The Union victories were followed by further successes against the Confederates at the Battle of Pea Ridge, also known as the Battle of Elkhorn Tavern, Arkansas, in early March 1862. The course of the war seemed to be back on track for the Union forces after their unexpected defeat at the First Battle of Bull Run.

Battle of Shiloh 1862

On April 6, 1862, a Confederate army, which had crept undetected on Grant’s forces, launched a surprise attack on the Union camp at Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River. The engagement, which became known as the Battle of Shiloh, saw the Confederates repulsed after two days of savage fighting. The losses inflicted in this battle gave both sides cause for concern. The Union forces suffered some 13,000 casualties and the Confederates around 10,700. Around 3,400 of these were killed outright, a record which was soon surpassed in later battles of the war.

WORLD’S FIRST IRONCLAD BATTLE ENDS IN EXHAUSTED DRAW



The Confederate ironclad, the CSS Virginia, *dueled the Union's ironclad, the* USS Monitor, *in the world's first sea battle between two metal ships. The famous engagement at Hampton Roads saw the two ships bombard each other relentlessly for hours, before both gave up and returned to base.*

Merrimack *versus the* Monitor*—World's First Ironclad Naval Battle*

The Union navy possessed a powerful new weapon, an ironclad ship named the *USS Monitor.* The steel plates on the ship made it, in theory at least, impervious to canon fire. Alarmed at the prospect of an unbeatable weapon in the sole possession of the North, the Confederates converted a seized Union frigate called the *USS Merrimack* into an ironclad, which they named the *CSS Virginia.*

In March 1862, the *CSS Virginia* entered the mouth of the James River in Virginia and attacked a number of wooden Union ships which were enforcing a blockade of the port.

Four of the wooden ships were put out of action in short order. The next day, the *USS Monitor* arrived and engaged the *CSS Virginia* in what became the world's first ironclad naval clash. The two ships fired broadside after broadside at each other for hours, often scoring direct hits but never inflicting serious damage. Finally, with the crews exhausted, the ironclads disengaged and went their separate ways. The battle showed, however, that the day of wooden warships was at an end.

Shenandoah Campaign Stalls Union Advance

Flushed with the initial successes on land, the Union army set as its next objective the capture of Richmond, Virginia, the capital city of the Confederacy. A Confederate army of some sixteen thousand men, under the command of General "Stonewall" Jackson, was the only thing standing in the Union army's way.

Although strategically unimportant, Richmond was as symbolic as Washington DC. The cities were only one hundred miles apart, and the Confederates were as determined to keep control of their capital as the Union was to keep Washington DC.

As a result, when the Northern advance on Richmond was launched in April 1862, Jackson was ordered to halt the attack by any means possible. The Confederate general ran a remarkable campaign and succeeded in deceiving the Union forces into believing that they faced a huge army in the Shenandoah Valley. Jackson's tactics succeeded: to oppose him and the sixteen thousand men who fought with him for most of the campaign, the North deployed an army of fifty-five thousand men who were much needed on other fronts.

Jackson achieved important victories in the campaigns in the Shenandoah Valley at the battles of McDowell, Front Royal, Winchester, Cross Keys, and Port Republic. He then withdrew to help bolster the defense of Richmond. The Union forces took Yorktown after a month-long siege and then advanced on Richmond. They were met in battle just a few miles from Richmond at Fair Oaks Station. The Battle of Seven Pines followed, and although it ended inconclusively, the Union push toward Richmond was halted.

Seven Days' Battles Sees Union Attack on Richmond Defeated

From June 25 to July 1, the Union forces launched what they hoped was the final advance which would take Richmond. A series of running battles took place over that week, which became known as the "Seven Days' Battles." The Union army came to within a few miles of Richmond, but repeated counterattacks by Confederate forces forced them to withdraw. After an engagement at Gaines' Mill, the Confederates seized the initiative and forced the Union army to withdraw. Richmond was saved, but at a terrible price. The Union suffered some sixteen thousand casualties and the Confederates some twenty thousand—fully a fifth of the defender's forces.

After this victory, the Confederate General Robert E. Lee was appointed commander of the Army of Northern Virginia and became an idolized figure in the South. His outstanding ability as a military commander and strategist, combined with his personality, served as an inspiration to the South and was often cited as the only reason why the South did not crumble at critical stages in the war.

The North Captures New Orleans

The Union made good its defeat outside Richmond by launching a successful attack on targets along the Mississippi River in April 1862. The Confederates launched a series of desperate counterattacks which included laying chain cables across the river and setting burning rafts adrift into the Union fleet. They were, however, steadily driven back by the Union's combined naval and infantry Union force of around eighteen thousand men.

Finally, the Union army reached the outskirts of New Orleans. The outnumbered Confederate defenders, some three thousand men, fled before the overwhelming Union army, leaving the city to be occupied on April 25, 1862. For the rest of the war, New Orleans, the biggest Confederate city and the key to the Mississippi, remained in Union hands. Its loss was a disaster for the Confederacy.

Cedar Mountain and Manassas—Confederate Victory in the North

The loss of New Orleans did not affect the run of Confederate victories in Virginia. On August 9, 1862, Lee crushed a Union army at the Battle of Cedar Mountain, near Culpeper, Virginia. The Confederates swooped on a Unionist army base at Manassas Junction, where they captured a significant quantity of much needed supplies.

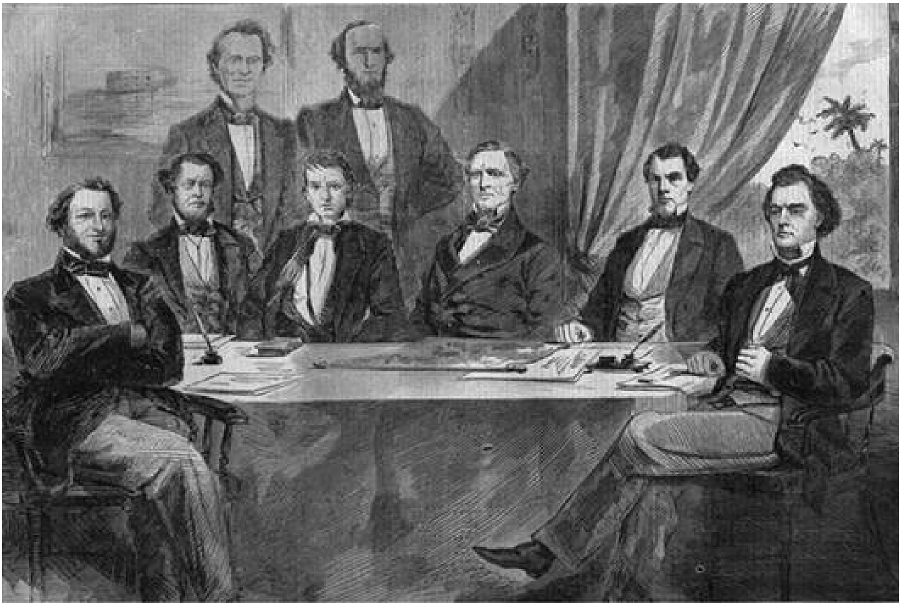
Fortified, Lee and Jackson then drew up a defense line in anticipation of a Union counterattack. They did not have long to wait. On August 29, a Union army of some sixty-two thousand men attacked the Confederate forces, which by now only numbered around twenty-three thousand. Jackson had not earned his Stonewall nickname for nothing, and through a clever defensive strategy, withstood the overwhelming assault. In the process, such confusion was created in Union ranks that their commander thought the battle had been won, and he sent a telegram to Washington DC to that effect.

The telegram was premature. A Confederate artillery unit reinforced Lee and the resultant bombardment decimated the Union force. The Northerners fled in defeat, pursued by the victorious

Confederate troops.

The Confederate victory had been dearly bought. The Union forces suffered 14,500 casualties to the Confederate’s 9,200, but the South, unlike the North, could not replace losses on this scale.

JEFFERSON DAVIS AND THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA



The Confederate cabinet in session at Richmond, Virginia, under the presidency of Jefferson Davis (1808–1889). Of Welsh and Scottish forebears, Davis served in the First Mississippi volunteers in the 1846 Mexican War, where he fought under his father-in-law, Zachary Taylor. He was wounded and returned home on crutches to a hero’s welcome. He easily won election to the US Senate in 1847, and was reelected in 1850. Appointed US Secretary of War in 1853, Davis avoided a second conflict with Mexico by coordinating a diplomatic solution to a renewed conflict though the “Gadsden Purchase.” The territory acquired in this manner became southern New Mexico and Arizona, for which the US Government paid $10 million to Mexico. In 1857, he was reelected to the US senate, and in 1860 was nominated by the Democratic Convention for president. He declined the offer in view of the growing tensions between North and South over slavery, and when the state of Mississippi seceded from the Union in January 1861, he resigned all offices and left for home. Unanimously elected president by the Confederate Convention, Davis’s first act was to send a peace delegation to Washington DC to try to resolve the crisis through negotiation. Lincoln however refused to meet with the emissaries. At the end of the war, Davis was arrested and imprisoned for *two years under charges of treason. The charges were never brought to court and he was released on $100,000 bail, paid by sympathetic Northerners. He lived out his life in semi-retirement in the south.*

The South Overreaches—the Battle of Antietam

Flushed with the impressive victory in northern Virginia, the Confederates decided to go over to the offensive and move the war into Union territory. As part of the drive north, Jackson was ordered to take the town of Harper’s Ferry, which had been held by a Union garrison from the war’s start.

The capture of this historic town—scene of an attempted armed uprising against slavery in 1859 led by the abolitionist John Brown—was the only success of the campaign.

The Confederate army of thirty-five thousand men was attacked by a Union army some seventy-five thousand strong in Antietam in September 1862. The outnumbered Confederates barely held off the Union attack and were forced to retreat back into Virginia. The invasion of Maryland was a military defeat for the Confederates and the Battle of Antietam became the bloodiest one day battle of the Civil War, with the Confederacy suffering just over ten thousand casualties and the Union forces over twelve thousand.

Fredericksburg—Union Attempts New Invasion of Virginia

The Union army attempted to exploit the Confederate retreat from Maryland by invading northern Virginia once again. The Southerners, however, expecting such a move, had dug well-planned defensive positions around the hills near Fredericksburg.

On December 13, 1862, a Union army numbering over 114,000 men stormed the Confederate lines, held by just over 70,000 men. Even though the Union forces outnumbered the Confederates, the decision to attack the heavily fortified defenses at Fredericksburg turned the battle into one of the most one-sided engagements of the war.

The Union army was broken on the defensive lines and forced back with heavy losses. Union casualties amounted to around 12,600 killed, wounded, or missing, as opposed to the Confederate’s losses of 5,300.

Murfreesboro—North and South Stalemate

The Union forces in Tennessee launched a renewed assault on their main Confederate opposing force on December 31, 1962, in what became known in the North as the Battle of Stones River, or in the South as the Battle of Murfreesboro.

The engagement swung to-and-fro for two days until Union artillery reinforcements inflicted such heavy casualties on the Confederates that they were forced to withdraw. The battle ended inconclusively, although the Confederates lost an opportunity to dislodge the invading Union forces.

Although both sides suffered casualties of around twelve thousand each, this conflict marked a turning point for the Confederacy. From then on, the Confederacy would fight a desperate rearguard action in the South, attempting in vain to avoid a total collapse behind the front line in Virginia.

The First Union Attempt to Split the Confederacy Fails at Battle of Chickasaw Bluffs

The Union decided that a strike south down the Mississippi River would split the Confederacy into two geographic parts and thereby hasten its defeat. For this purpose two large army groups were assembled and given the first objective of capturing the important Confederate town fortress of Vicksburg in Mississippi.

On December 26, 1862, the Union forces under Major General Will Sherman attacked the strongly fortified outer defences of Vicksburg at Walnut Hills. The engagement, which came to be known as the Battle of Chickasaw Bluffs, saw the Union forces repulsed with heavy casualties. The first Union attempt to cut the South in two failed dismally.

200,000 BLACKS FIGHT FOR NORTH AGAINST SOUTH

By the end of the war, more than 200,000 blacks had enlisted in the northern Union army against the South. They were organized under the aegis of the racially-segregated Bureau of Colored Troops which was established by General Order No. 143 on May 22, 1863. Approximately ninety-four thousand men were ex-slaves from states that had seceded from the Union, while approximately forty-four thousand were ex-slaves or freemen from the border states. The remainder were recruited from the northern states and the Colorado Territory. Although fighting for their freedom, the North still kept the blacks segregated from whites.

Grierson Raid Sweeps South

In April 1863, a Union cavalry detachment under the command of Benjamin H. Grierson launched one of the most audacious engagements of the entire war. Leading a force of 1,700 men, Grierson left La Grange, Tennessee, and in sixteen days covered the six hundred miles to Baton Rouge, Louisiana. On the way, they destroyed miles of railroad, took five hundred prisoners, eluded thousands of Confederate troops, and lost only twenty-four men.

Union Launches Second Drive on Richmond

Having recovered from their defeat at Fredericksburg, the Union army in the north launched a second drive on the Confederate capital of Richmond. A well-equipped army of 134,000 men set out for what the Union hoped would be a knockout blow of the Confederate forces in Virginia.

The Union forces crossed into Virginia on April 27, 1863, and engaged the outnumbered Confederate army outside Chancellorsville. A combination of daring tactics on the part of the Confederate commanders, Lee and Jackson, and the cautious leadership of Union General Joseph, allowed the Southerners to soundly defeat the invasion. After several days of bloody battle, the Union forces retreated north once again.

The Confederate victory was only tempered by the tremendous losses involved, which included the accidental shooting of Jackson by his own troops. The Confederate leader died later of his wounds, and was counted among the 12,750 casualties suffered by his side. Although the Union army had casualties of 17,300, the Confederacy did not have sufficient reserves to make up such losses. The victory at Chancellorsville could not hide the fact that the tide of war had started to turn against the South.

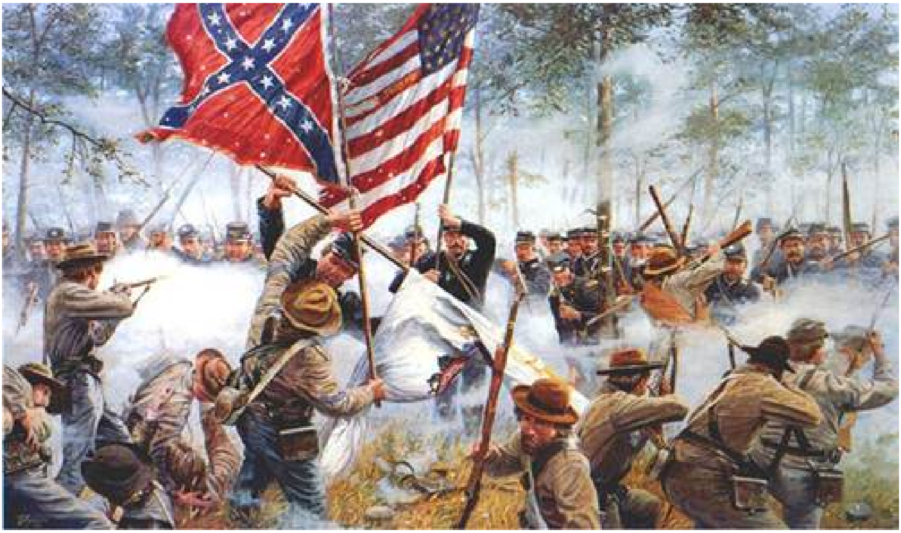
Fall of Vicksburg Cuts Confederacy in Half

In April 1863, the Union launched a new attempt to take the Mississippi River Valley. Despite suffering heavy losses, the Union forces under General Ulysses Grant pushed south to Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. There, the Union army of forty-four thousand men overwhelmed the six thousand Confederate defenders in a short battle on May 12, 1863.

Grant then advanced on Vicksburg and defeated two counterattacks launched by the city's defenders. The Union forces launched two frontal attacks on the city, both of which were repulsed with heavy losses. Grant then ordered the fortified city to be besieged rather than wear his troops out in endless assaults.

The Confederate defenders held out for six weeks, but were forced to surrender on July 4, 1863. The fall of Vicksburg cut the South into two and the Confederacy was struck a fatal blow. Few believed that the South could win the war after a defeat of this magnitude.

PICKETT'S CHARGE ENDS BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG 1863



The Battle of Gettysburg, fought over three days from July 1–3, 1863, was the single largest land battle of the Civil War and in American history. The climax came with a 15,000-strong Confederate charge, under the command of General George E. Pickett, across a one mile-long open field toward a Union position on Cemetery Ridge. Despite being bombarded with artillery and rifle fire, Pickett's men reached the Union lines, but failed to break them. In fifty minutes of battle, two thirds of Pickett's men became casualties, and the attack, known as Pickett's Charge, marked the defeat of the Confederate attempt to invade Union territory. The Confederate army withdrew the next day, leaving a battlefield strewn with over 48,000 casualties from both sides. Over 172,000 men and 634 cannon had taken part in the battle and an estimated 569 tons of ammunition had been expended.

Gettysburg—48,000 Casualties in One Battle

The Confederate leaders were well aware of the worsening military situation and decided to take an all-or-nothing gamble. Lee was ordered to invade Pennsylvania and inflict a decisive defeat on Union forces in their own territory.

By the beginning of July, Lee's army of around seventy-two thousand men had reached the town of Gettysburg in Pennsylvania, where it was met in battle by General George Meade's ninety-three thousand-strong Union army. Initially the Union troops warded off a determined Confederate assault which lasted two days. By the third day, the increasingly desperate Confederate army launched one final attack on the Union lines. This involved an almost suicidal assault by a Confederate force under the command of Major General George

Pickett which became infamous as “Pickett’s Charge.” The attack failed with over half of the Confederate attackers falling in the attempt.

The defeat was overwhelming and Lee was forced to retreat back to Virginia with the remains of his shattered army. For its part, the Union army was equally exhausted, and did not have the energy to pursue the retreating Confederates.

Gettysburg was a decisive Union victory and definitively turned the war in favor of the North. It had been wrought at an astonishing cost. A quarter of all the men who took part in the battle fell, with the Union suffering around twenty-three thousand casualties to the Confederate’s twenty-five thousand.

In November 1863, Lincoln dedicated a national cemetery to those who had died in the Battle of Gettysburg. His speech, known as the Gettysburg Address, reaffirmed his determination to see the country reunited and became famous as an expression of the principles for which the North fought.

Lincoln Suspends Democracy

Even though the Union had won two of the most important engagements of the conflict, anti-war sentiment had grown to the point where open rebellion broke out in the North. A large number of northerners, as had correctly predicted, did not care one way or the other on the issue of slavery and many became weary of war which seemed to drag on without end.

Lincoln also suspended a number of democratic institutions under the rigors of war, including the right to freedom of speech and protection from detention without trial. These measures angered a great many northerners who questioned the president’s behavior in light of the democratic principles for which he was supposed to be fighting.

The anger over Lincoln’s increasingly authoritarian behavior reached a high point with the arrest and deportation to the Confederacy of an Ohio congressman, Clement L. Vallandigham in May 1863. The congressman had merely made a speech condemning the war.

In addition, Lincoln banned the *Chicago Times* newspaper in June 1863 after it had also become increasingly anti-war in sentiment. This step provoked uproar across the North, and Lincoln was forced to back down.

Anti-Black Riot in New York City

Up until 1863, the Union had relied on volunteers for its army, but in that year instituted conscription to make up the numbers necessary to decisively defeat the South. The Union's institution of conscription in 1863 proved to be highly controversial. White mobs gathered in New York City and attacked and burned government offices in a riot which lasted four days. In addition to anti-government sentiment, blacks were targeted by the rioters as being the primary cause of the war.

The New York City police and militia were incapable of controlling the unrest and the Union government was forced to divert a part of the army in Virginia back to New York City to restore order. Similar disturbances took place in other parts of the Union, although not on the same scale as in New York City. The riots were evidence of the accuracy of Lincoln's prediction that the white people of the north cared little for the predicament of the black slaves in the south.

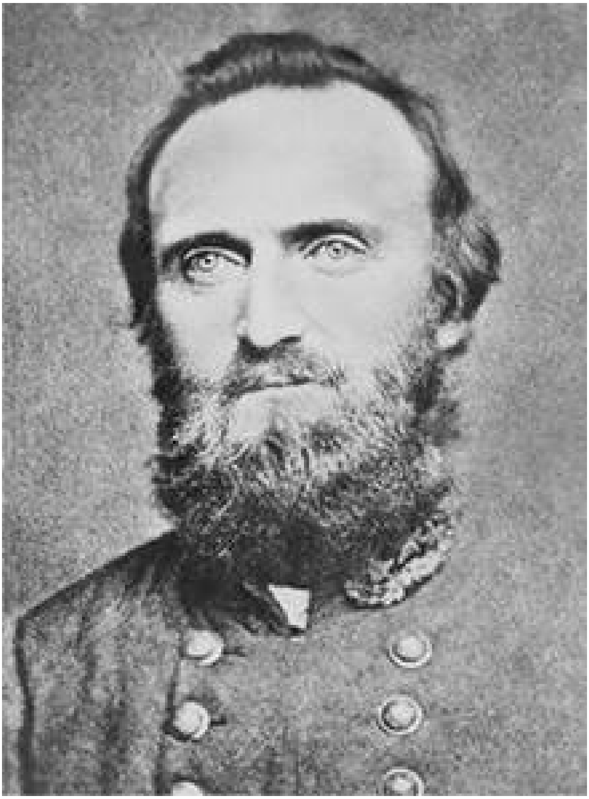
Battle of Chickamauga—Initial Confederate Victory

The Union army in Tennessee had in the interim fought a low-intensity campaign against the Confederate forces in the South. In September 1863, however, a major offensive was launched which was aimed at capturing the important Confederate railway center of Chattanooga in Tennessee.

The Confederates withdrew from the city, preferring instead to make their stand at nearby Chickamauga. A solid Confederate defense derailed the Union attack, and a strategic error by the Northerners opened an unintended gap in their lines.

This was exploited by the Confederates to drive a third of the Union army, and its commander, General William Rosecrans, from the field. Defeated, the Union forces then retreated to Chattanooga where they took over the partially completed Confederate defenses and awaited the inevitable attack.

"STONEWALL" JACKSON—SOUTHERN HERO



Thomas Jonathan "Stonewall" Jackson, (1824–1863), one of the Confederate army's most able commanders, whose military exploits have become legendary. A veteran of the Mexican War, Jackson also commanded the troops who supervised the hanging of militant abolitionist John Brown. It was in the Civil War, however, that he achieved his greatest fame. He repeatedly held onto positions in the face of overwhelming odds, a trait which earned him the nickname of "Stonewall," a phrase that entered English lexicon meaning to "hold fast." Jackson was wounded by friendly fire in 1863, and died of pneumonia while attempting to recuperate.

Confederates Defeated and Tennessee Seized by the Union

The Confederate forces laid siege to Chattanooga but were repulsed at the Battle of Wauhatchie, fought on October 28. The next month, the Union forces moved onto the offensive once again, and seized the nearby high ground of Orchard Knob from the Confederates. Other Union forces under General Sherman attacked the Confederates at the Battle of Missionary Ridge.

By the end of November, the Union army had beaten the Confederates at the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary

Ridge. The Confederates fled, and by the end of the year, most of Tennessee had fallen under Union control. All informed Confederates knew that this development marked the beginning of the end for the South.

The Wilderness Battles—the South Bleeds Dry

By May 1864, battle had once again been joined by the Southern and Northern armies in the thick woods of Wilderness, Virginia, close to the old battlefields of Chancellorsville and Fredericksburg. In fierce fighting which was marked by great confusion, neither side inflicted a decisive military defeat upon the other, but the casualties were in the tens of thousands on both sides.

The Confederacy was bleeding dry and did not have the population reserves of the North to continually resupply its armed forces. As a result, when the Union launched its final campaign of 1864, it was able to field some 235,000 men against the Confederacy's total army of 135,000 undersupplied and underfed soldiers.

Third Attempt to Take Richmond Fails

General Ulysses Grant had been appointed commander in chief of the Northern forces following the inconclusive Battle of the Wilderness in Virginia. In a change of tactics, Grant ordered the Union army to go on the offensive, the first time in the war such a command had been given to a Northern army.

As a result, the Union forces pushed south, and in May a ten day battle erupted in the small town of Spotsylvania Court House, Virginia. Despite suffering enormous casualties of seventeen thousand in that battle, Grant ordered the army on once again in an attempt to seize Richmond.

The Confederate defenders drew together their reserves and met the Union charge head on at Cold Harbor, Virginia, within sight of Richmond. The Battle of Cold Harbor followed and was the last major defeat suffered by the Union armies in the war. The Union army suffered more than 7,000 casualties against the Confederate's losses of less than 1,500.

Richmond Placed under Siege

The Union forces then attacked the Confederate capital from the south through an encircling movement which involved striking deep into Virginia before swinging north once again. The plan nearly worked and the Confederate defenders were barely able to bring their army into position in time. The Union advance was halted south of Richmond at the town of Petersburg by a desperate rearguard Confederate action. Richmond was under siege and effectively cut off.

Union forces also attempted to seize the city of Petersburg in Virginia, but a strong Confederate defense warded off the attack. Undeterred, the Union forces dug trenches which eventually extended over thirty miles around Petersburg, and laid siege to the city.

The Sinking of the CSS Alabama

The Confederate warship, the *CSS Alabama,* had been built secretly for the South in a British shipyard in 1862, and had played havoc on the Union's trade and supply routes to Europe from its launch until 1864. During that time her crew boarded 450 Union ships, seized or burned 65 Union merchant ships, and took more than two thousand prisoners. In June 1864, the *CSS Alabama,* which had never docked at any Confederate port, landed at Cherbourg in France for repairs and to offload prisoners. News of the famous Confederate raider's docking soon spread and before long the Union's *USS Kersarge* appeared outside Cherboug. The *CSS Alabam*a left port on June 19, 1864, and engaged the *USS Kersarge*. The battle was short and sharp and the *CSS Alabama* was sunk in less than two hours.

Another famous Confederate raider, the *CSS Florida,* was captured in violation of international law in the harbor at Bahia (now Salvador), Brazil, in October 1864.

The crew of the third famous Confederate raider, the *CSS Shenandoah,* which had operated in the Pacific Ocean, did not learn that the war was over until August 2, 1865. It made its way to Liverpool in England by November that year, where its captain turned the ship over to the authorities.

The First Assault on Atlanta

In June 1864, Union forces launched a major invasion of the state of Georgia and advanced eighty miles in one month, forcing the Confederate defenders to fall back without a major engagement taking place. The next month, the Union forces stormed a Confederate defensive line on Kennesaw Mountain near Atlanta, but were pushed back with two thousand casualties. The Union forces, however, were by this time confident of victory, and soon reached the outskirts of Atlanta.

The Confederates put up a desperate resistance with their massively outnumbered army and by the end of July the Union had suffered nine thousand casualties to the Confederates' ten thousand. At that rate of attrition, a Confederate collapse was only a matter of time.

The Confederate's Last Throw

With both Atlanta and Petersburg under siege, the Confederate leadership knew that time was not on their side. A decision was made to take the war directly to Washington DC in the hope that it could be diplomatically ended. At the very least, it would force the Union army threatening Richmond to be diverted back to the defense of Washington DC.

A Confederate force under the command of General Jubal A. Early was tasked with the mission, and after marching north, crossed in Maryland and reached the perimeter of Washington DC on July 11, 1864. The presence of the Confederate army within sight of the capital caused great panic, and the Union rushed reinforcements to Fort Stevens, located in northwest Washington DC.

There, with President Abraham Lincoln personally in attendance as an observer, the Union forces repulsed Early's skirmishes. After having had sight of the Union defenses, the Confederate leader realized his forces were too weak to take the city, and withdrew back to Virginia. It would be the last major offensive by the South in the war. They were now short on supplies, manpower, and most importantly of all, the will to resist.

UNION ARMY OF 100,000 TAKES AND BURNS ATLANTA 1864

The ardors of the month-long siege of Atlanta, from July 20, to September 2, 1864, are accurately depicted in this photograph of what was the principle railway center in Georgia. On July 17, the 100,000-strong Union army under General Sherman took position north of the city against the 50,000-strong Confederate defenders. The outnumbered Confederates were driven back and the shattered city fell. Sherman deported the civilian population and ordered the city burned to the ground. It was an immense psychological blow to the South.

The Fall of Atlanta

The city of Atlanta, the last major metropolitan center still in Confederate hands, was surrounded and besieged by Union forces in June 1864 following the fall of Chattanooga. The Confederates resisted for four months, and a number of battles took place on the outskirts of the city, including at Kennesaw Mountain, Peachtree Creek, and Jonesborough. Finally, following another major clash known as the Battle of Atlanta, the Confederates were forced to withdraw on September 1, 1864.

The city was surrendered the next day to the attacking Union army under the leadership of General William Sherman. The Union general ordered the city to be destroyed and the civilian population deported. The entire city was then burned to the ground, with only churches and hospitals being spared.

In the interim, a Union navy unit seized control of Mobile Bay in Alabama in August, which cut off the South's last major seaport.

Confederates Lose Shenandoah Valley

The collapse of Atlanta was the precursor to a series of Confederate defeats. A large Union army from Washington DC set off in pursuit of the retreating Confederate General Early and his forces, chasing them into the Shenandoah Valley. There the vastly outnumbered and undersupplied Confederate army was defeated in quick succession at three important battles—Winchester and Fishers Hill in September, and Cedar Creek in October.

The series of victories allowed Lincoln to easily win the presidential election which followed, despite the earlier dissension over his method of government. The election was, of course, only held in the Northern states.

Slave Uprising and Sherman's March to the Sea

After the destruction of Atlanta, Sherman and the Union army set out in the closing months of 1864 to march east across Georgia to the sea and thereby destroy what was left of the Confederate's southern armies. The Union forces marched out along a sixty mile front toward the port of Savannah, a target which was reached by December 21.

Sherman's forces applied a deliberate scorched earth policy on this march, a tactic designed to demoralize the Southerners and cut off supplies to the Confederate armies. According to Sherman's Special Field Order No. 120, issued on November 9, 1864, in preparation for the expedition, army corps commanders were specifically authorized to "destroy mills, houses, cotton-gins, etc., and for them this general principle is laid down: In districts and neighborhoods where the army is unmolested no destruction of such property should be permitted;

but should guerrillas or bushwhackers molest our march, or should the inhabitants burn bridges, obstruct roads, or otherwise manifest local hostility, then army commanders should order and enforce a devastation more or less relentless according to the measure of such hostility."

In addition, the black slaves freed as a result of the Confederate collapse rose up and took revenge upon their former white masters. Rape, pillage, and looting became the order of the day. Thousands of blacks joined up with the Union forces along the way, an eventuality which was also seen in Sherman's Special Field Order No. 120, which said in paragraph 7: "Negroes who are able-bodied and can be of service to the several columns may be taken along, but each army commander will bear in mind that the question of supplies is a very important one and that his first duty is to see to them who bear arms."

The March to the Sea, as it became known, indelibly created Sherman as a figure of hate in the South. By the Union general's own estimations, the campaign caused about $100 million in damages, a massive amount by the standards of the time. Bridges, telegraph lines, hundreds of factories and mills, and more than three hundred miles of railroad were destroyed.

Battle of Franklin—Confederate Army Buckles

The last gasp of the Confederate Army of Tennessee came with the Battle of Franklin on November 30, 1864. This important engagement was without doubt the single worst defeat suffered by the Confederate forces in the entire war, and saw more than half of the twenty thousand Southern combatants fall. In mid-December, the Union army launched a final assault on the last Confederate forces in Tennessee at the Battle of Nashville. The Confederates broke up in confusion and disillusionment, and many drifted back to their devastated farms, the war over as far as they were concerned.

In many Confederate areas, food shortages began to take on serious proportions, and enthusiasm for the pursuit of the war waned. Large-scale desertions became increasingly common and the Confederacy government became more and more an authority in name only. In early January 1865, the Union army took the last coastal harbor of any significance, Fort Fisher on the North Carolina coast. The Union blockade on what remained of the South was now total.

Bentonville–Union Army Marches North to Face Last Confederate Stronghold

Having routed the Confederate armies in the south, the Union forces marched north to attack the last significant Confederate army which was encamped around Richmond in Virginia. On the way, the Union forces were attacked by a Confederate force one-third of their number at the Battle of Bentonville in mid-March 1865.

Outnumbered and outgunned, the Confederate attack stood no chance of success and was forced to retreat after two days. The Confederate commander, General Joseph E. Johnston, kept the remainder of his shattered army in the wilderness until the next month, when he surrendered to Sherman at Bennett Place.

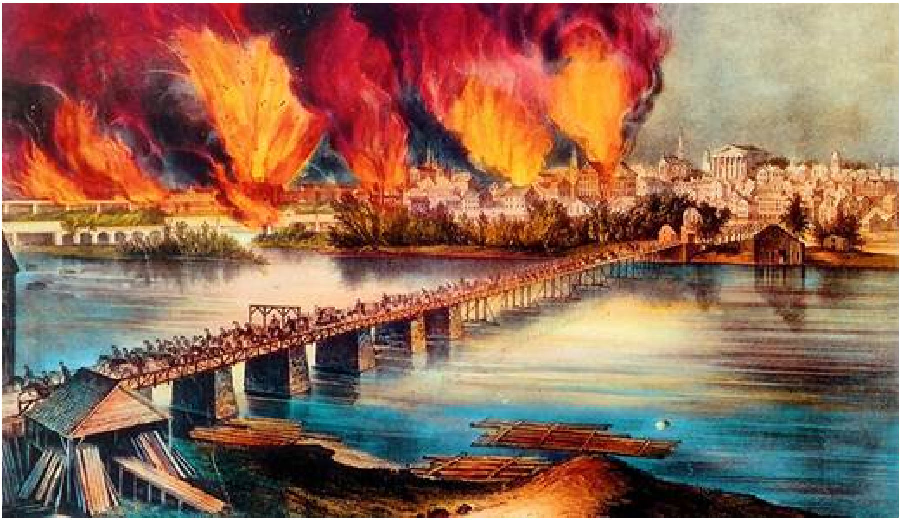
Sherman Burns Columbia, South Carolina

The Union army continued in its march north and, like the March to the Sea, left a path of destruction in its wake. Farms and settlements were burned once the troops had seized supplies, and the white inhabitants were often turned over to be victimized by freed black slaves.

Sherman's forces reached Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, on February 17, 1865. The city was surrendered without a fight, but this did not prevent it from being burned to the ground. Within a day, Sherman's forces had destroyed almost all the buildings in the city center.

Sherman later denied ordering the burning, but his order to destroy military structures was no doubt the origin of the destruction of the city. Some fifteen significantly-sized Southern towns were burned in whole or in part during the Union drive north, but no act of destruction compared with or caused more controversy than the burning of Columbia.

FALL OF CONFEDERATE CAPITAL MARKS SOUTH'S LAST STAND



Legendary Confederate General Robert E. Lee held onto the Southern capital, Richmond, Virginia, against ever increasing numbers of Union troops for years. The defeats suffered by Confederate armies elsewhere had made Lee's position increasingly untenable, and, early in April 1865, he ordered the city evacuated under the cover of darkness. The city was occupied by Union forces in April 1865, and the Confederacy surrendered shortly afterward.

The Fall of Richmond Signals End of the Confederacy

The Confederate defense of Richmond grew ever more desperate as news of the defeats in the South reached Lee and his general staff. A clash between the opposing armies at the Battle of Five Forks on April 1, 1865, southwest of Petersburg, resulted in a predictable victory for the Union army. The scale of the Confederate losses at this battle forced Lee to advise Confederate President Jefferson Davis that Petersburg and Richmond had to be evacuated.

Davis, who was present in Richmond, left the city on the last train out and relocated the Confederate capital to Danville. No sooner had Davis left but the Union forces launched their third major assault on Petersburg and Richmond.

A northern army of ninety-seven thousand easily overran the shattered Confederate defenders, who numbered some forty-five thousand. Richmond was burned to the ground in the ensuing confusion, and it was occupied by Union forces on April 3, 1865. President Lincoln came to see the ruins in person.

The retreating Confederate army engaged the triumphant

Union forces in a series of battles in the week following the fall of Richmond. Lee's final stand was at the Battle of Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865, where he attempted to break an advancing line of Union soldiers. When he realized that his tiny forces were outnumbered, Lee was left with no alternative but to surrender. The Confederate Army of Northern Virginia was allowed to hold a last parade on April 12, at which it was formally disbanded. The war in northern Virginia was over.

SIXTH KENTUCKY REGIMENT PROVIDES INSIGHT INTO HUMAN COST OF WAR

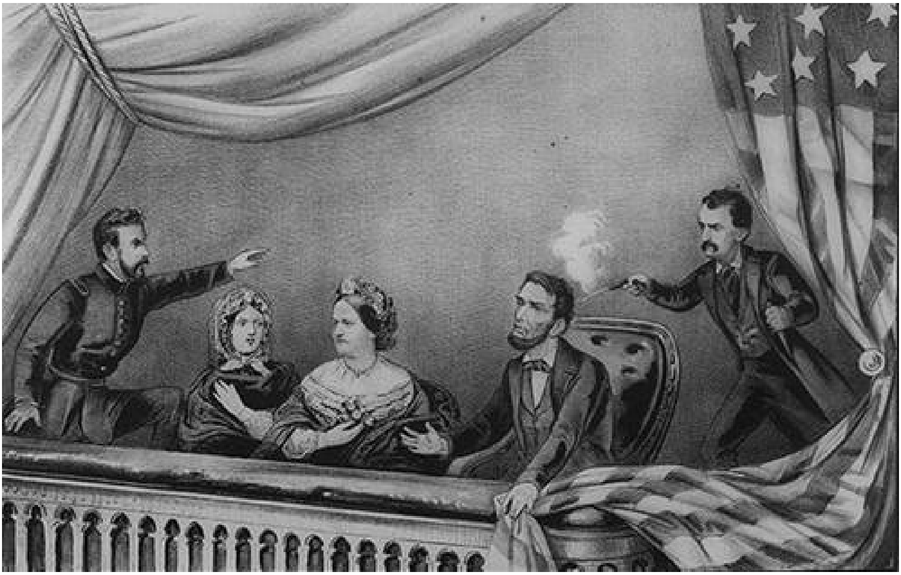
The 6th Kentucky Regiment started the war with four thousand men. It took part in most of the major battles in the western theater, including Shiloh, Baton Rouge, Stones River, Chickamauga, Lookout Mountain, Resaca, GA, Dallas, GA, Peach Tree Creek, the Battle of Atlanta, Jonesborough, the Atlanta Campaign, and the South Carolina Campaign. It surrendered on April 25, 1865 with only five hundred of the original complement still alive.

Confederate Sympathizer Assassinates Lincoln

Lincoln had ordered Grant to be generous with the defeated Confederates as he intended to follow a policy of reconciliation in order to restore the Union. However, on April 14, 1865, he was assassinated by a Confederate supporter, the actor John Wilkes Booth, in a theater in Washington DC. Lincoln's plans for reconciliation and the repatriation of all blacks from America died with him.

Meanwhile, Lee's surrender had predictable results on the remaining Confederate armies. The last army in North Carolina surrendered on April 17, while the forces in Texas and Louisiana surrendered the next month. Jefferson Davis, the first and only Confederate president, was taken prisoner in Georgia on May 10. With his capture, the Confederacy came to a formal end, less than five years after it was declared.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN ASSASSINATED BY CONFEDERATE SYMPATHIZER AS WAR ENDS



President Abraham Lincoln was assassinated by a Confederate sympathizer, John Wilkes Booth, on April 14, 1865, just five days after the surrender of the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia. Booth and his conspirators hoped to reenergize the sagging morale of the Confederacy to continue the fight. Booth was tracked to a hideout in Virginia on April 26, and killed by Union army troops. The assassination also halted Lincoln's plans to repatriate all blacks in the US back to Africa or an island in the Caribbean.

Islands Set aside for Blacks

Lincoln's policy of emancipating blacks and settling them in geographical isolation from whites took practical form with General Sherman's Special Field Order No. 15, issued in January 1865.

In terms of this measure, freed black slaves were given exclusive rights to and use of a number of islands and parts of the coastal region of South Carolina and Georgia. This effectively created mini-black homelands within the borders of the United States. Predictably, the order was revoked by President Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Lincoln, and the plan came to naught.

Thirteenth Amendment Formally Ends Slavery

The Civil War settled the two great issues which had plagued the Union since its establishment, namely the extent of the federal government's power and the issue of slavery.

The North's victory won the day for the federal system of government, which dictated that the central government had the right to rule for all states on certain matters and could override the "state's rights" concept which underpinned the confederal view.

On the issue of slavery, the North's victory ended the practice once and for all across the entire country. Although the US Congress had abolished slavery in 1862 and Lincoln had issued the Emancipation Proclamation in January 1863, these measures legally only applied to the states comprising the Confederacy.

As a result, the US Constitution was formally amended on December 6, 1865. This measure abolished slavery in all the states and territories of the United States of America.

The Reconstruction Acts and the Fourteenth Amendment—North's Revenge on the South

Lincoln's assassination opened the Northern floodgates of hate against the South. The US Congress, now completely dominated by members who sought revenge rather than reconciliation, passed a series of laws, known as the Reconstruction Acts, designed to punish the South for slavery, secession, and the war.

The first important step in this regard was the Fourteenth Amendment to the US Constitution, first proposed in 1866, which although framed to override the Dred Scott Supreme Court ruling, also specifically disenfranchised whites who had actively supported the Confederacy.

Section two of the amendment stated that the right to vote would only be denied to those who participated in "rebellion, or other crime." Section three added that "No person shall be a Senator or

Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability."

This limitation was only removed by Congress in 1898, but Robert E. Lee's citizenship of the United States, and therefore his right to vote, was only posthumously restored in 1975.

As part of this move to disenfranchise whites, an 1862 US Congress law, known as the Ironclad Oath, was invoked in conjunction with the Fourteenth Amendment. This oath, originally designed for all federal employees, stated that the taker had never borne arms against the Union or supported the Confederacy—that is, he had "never voluntarily borne arms against the United States," had "voluntarily" given "no aid, countenance, counsel or encouragement" to persons in rebellion and had exercised or attempted to exercise the functions of no office under the Confederacy.

The passage of the Fourteenth Amendment was not surprisingly vigorously resisted by the legislatures of all the former Confederate states bar Tennessee. As a result, the US Congress passed the Reconstruction Act in March 1867, in terms of which military governments were set up in the dissenting states. Each military commander was made responsible for overseeing the rewriting of each state's constitution so that the Fourteenth Amendment would be passed. Under these regulations, the South was divided into five military districts, each supervised by a Union major general in command of a detachment of troops, which, ominously for the white Southerners, were mainly comprised of freed black slaves who were hungry for revenge.

Black Governments in the South

As large numbers of whites were disenfranchised by the clauses of the Fourteenth Amendment, black voters soon came to dominate the reformed legislatures of the South by virtue of their numbers. They were, of course, firmly committed to the Republican Party of Abraham Lincoln (possibly ignorant of Lincoln's true views on race), with the result that every Southern state had a Republican government, backed by a Federal army of occupation.

In this manner, former black slaves also found themselves elected to federal office. Some fourteen blacks were elected to the US Congress and two were elected to the Senate in the years immediately following the end of the war.

In addition, former slaves dominated the legislatures of the South and ordered compensation payments to be made to their own race under the guise of “reconstruction.” As a result, taxes tripled in many states, further crippling the economy which was still struggling to recover from the ravages of the war which had mainly been fought on its territory.

“RECONSTRUCTION”—ILLITERATE BLACKS MAKE UP NEW SOUTHERN GOVERNMENTS

RADICAL MEMBERS
OF THE So Ca LEGISLATURE.

An 1868 photograph of the South Carolina Reconstruction legislature. Only twenty-two of the ninety-four black members could read or write. The whites in the legislature were mostly Northerners, as experienced Southern white politicians had been disenfranchised and forbidden from holding office under Reconstruction Era laws.

Orderly Government Collapses

The instant transformation of thousands of illiterate black slaves into civil servants resulted in an inevitable breakdown in government services. A prime example of this was the Freedmen's Bureau, a federal agency created in March 1865 to subsidize businesses set up by former slaves. It had to be disbanded in 1867 after graft and corruption reached such levels that even northern liberals could no longer claim ignorance.

This scenario repeated itself at state level, with the civil service becoming dominated by slaves who were suddenly propelled from picking cotton into running the affairs of state. Levels of civil service began to deteriorate immediately, and soon vast swathes of the South were without any orderly government at all. Former slaves were also employed in the Federal military occupation force in the South. Under the circumstances, it was inevitable that a large number of racially-charged abuses of the white population followed.

In addition to these troubles, unscrupulous Northerners also took up positions in the Southern government, often merely to embezzle funds and enrich themselves. They became known as carpetbaggers (after the material used to make luggage bags at the time) and were responsible for many abuses.

The Ku Klux Klan and White Resistance

It was against this backdrop of racial abuse that the original Ku Klux Klan (KKK) emerged. The KKK was organized in Pulaski, Tennessee, during the winter of 1865 by six former Confederate army officers who gave their society a name adapted from the Greek word kuklos ("circle"). This original Ku Klux Klan played an important role in overturning the Reconstruction Era governments through a combination of political activity and vigilante violence.

Dressed in robes with pointed hoods for disguise and, as some suggested, in an attempt to frighten superstitious blacks, the Klan launched a campaign of violent resistance against blacks—and whites who they considered to be traitors to their cause.

It has long been claimed that former Confederate General Nathan B. Forrest was either the founder, or the first "Grand Wizard" (leader) of the KKK. Forrest always denied his involvement, but his influence over the organization was without question.

The Battle of Liberty Palace—Whites Take up Arms against Black Government 1874

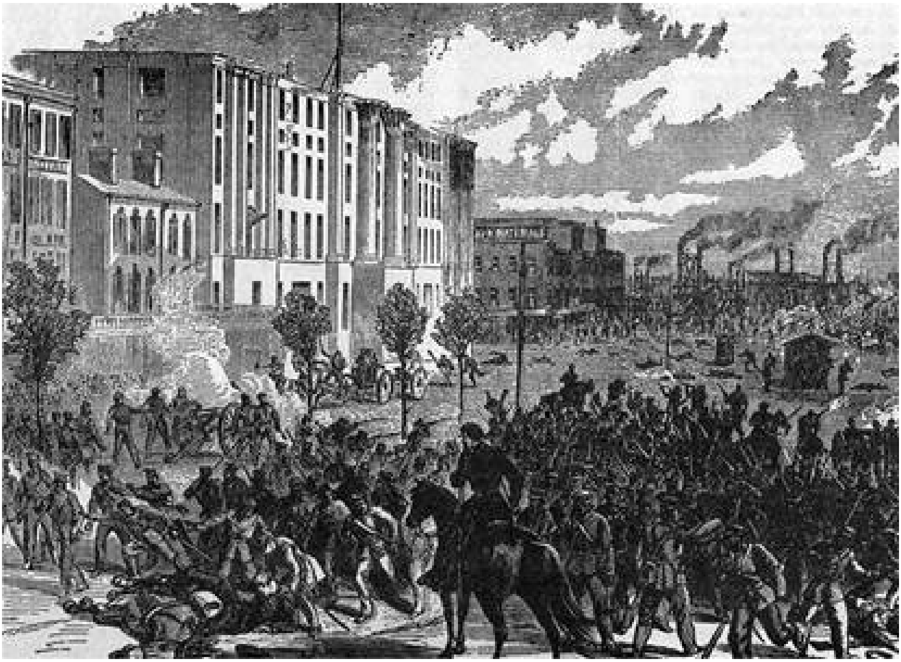
In Louisiana, more than half of the white population had been disenfranchised. As a result, the KKK was particularly active and well-supported. Tensions always boiled close to the surface, and ongoing KKK violence led to US President (and former Union army general) Ulysses S. Grant enacting the 1871 Civil Rights Act, which allowed the president to suppress state disorders on his own initiative and to suspend the right of *habeas corpus*.

This act, commonly known as the "Ku Klux Klan Act," effectively closed down the KKK. This only momentarily deflected white opposition, and an ongoing dispute over a corruption-ridden 1872 gubernatorial election in Louisiana provoked an attempted *coup d'état* by KKK supporters, under the banner of the "White League."

The uprising, known as the Battle of Liberty Place, occurred in New Orleans on September 14, when around 3,500 White League members seized control of the city hall, statehouse, and arsenal.

The White League's fighters, many of them former Confederate army soldiers, fought off the black-dominated Metropolitan Police and state militia. They held their positions for three days until federal troops arrived. Both sides deployed cannon against each other, and much damage was inflicted on the city center. The White League was dislodged and retreated from the city, but unrest continued to the point where the federal government imposed martial law in the state to restore order.

BATTLE OF LIBERTY PALACE, 1874—LOUISIANA WHITES RISE UP AGAINST RECONSTRUCTION REGIME



New Orleans: Resistance to Reconstruction turned to violent insurrection at the Battle of Liberty Palace, September 1874. Thousands of whites, under the banner of the White League, took over government buildings and battled state and federal forces using cannon. The uprising was unsuccessful, but alerted the rest of America to the seriousness of the racial situation in the south.

Reconstruction Abandoned

The ongoing chaos and popular opposition to the more extreme Reconstruction laws in both the North and the South contributed toward the piecemeal collapse of the antebellum Republican governments in the South. Conservative white Democrats, calling themselves "Redeemers," slowly regained control of the states, mostly by enrolling new white voters who were untainted by association with the Confederacy. There was another important reason for the fall of the black governments in the South: the presidential election of 1876 was won by the Republican Rutherford B. Hayes, who immediately withdrew the federal troops still supporting the black and carpetbag governments in the South (particularly in Louisiana and South Carolina). As a result, these governments collapsed and replaced by white-dominated administrations.

White Democrats Win Elections in the South

The association of the Republican Party with the North and Reconstruction made the Democratic Party into the natural political home for Southern white voters. As a result, the combination of white re-enfranchisement, violence against Reconstruction activists, and the withdrawal of the federal army of occupation, saw Democratic governments dominate the South.

This development marked the final end of the Reconstruction Era. Taxes were slashed and state expenditure cut, which in turn led to the closure of many of the institutions which had been the source of so much ill-feeling and corruption under the previous regimes.

The Democrats also engineered the internal processes of their own party in such a way as to exclude blacks from attending primaries or from becoming candidates. In this way, the party remained solidly white in terms of support and public representatives alike.

Original Ku Klux Klan Dissolved

Although President Grant had effectively outlawed the KKK with the 1871 Civil Rights Act, the organization had already peaked and was in the process of dying of its own accord.

Its reputed founder, Nathan B. Forest, had allegedly closed the organization down in 1869, its task of organizing clandestine resistance to Reconstruction and white disenfranchisement mostly completed.

A "second" Klan was started in 1915 and reached a membership of three million after World War I, but this also dissipated before World War II. A "third" Klan emerged at the time of the 1960s Civil Rights era, and it is the descendants of this third organization who exist in tiny numbers today.

It is however incorrect to associate the original KKK with the organizations created during the twentieth century.

Although the image of the Klan suffered because of the numerous incidents of brutal violence in which individual members were involved, there can be no doubt that the Southern states were delivered from many of the more brutal excesses of Reconstruction by the original KKK.

This fact was publicly acknowledged by President Woodrow Wilson, who, after attending a showing of David Griffith's epic film, *Birth of a Nation,* remarked that the original Klan had "saved civilization in the South."

Literacy Tests Introduced

The Democrat-controlled Southern state legislatures introduced a series of measures to reduce even further the number of black voters. As they were forbidden from open racial discrimination, the legislatures used literacy as a means test for voters.

Laws were passed which restricted the right to vote to those persons who could prove that they possessed a pre-set level of reading and writing ability.

While this ruling affected a number of whites, its biggest impact was on the black population, large numbers of whom were illiterate. Some of these literacy tests remained in force well into the twentieth century and were only finally abolished at the time of the Civil Rights movement.

"Jim Crow"—Segregation Implemented

In addition to disenfranchising blacks, the Southern

Democratic legislatures also formalized segregation in schools and public places, and outlawed racially-mixed marriages. These measures soon spread to the North as well, with Baltimore becoming one of the first cities to enforce racially segregated residential areas.

In response to the growing wave of segregated facilities, the US Congress passed a new Civil Rights Act in 1875 which outlawed discrimination by hotels, theaters, and railways. In 1883, this act was declared unconstitutional on the grounds that the Fourteenth Amendment only prohibited discrimination by the state, and not by private individuals. This ruling would set the tone of race relations in America for the next eighty years.

Racial Consequences of the Civil War

Some 360,000 Northerners died, and around 250,000 Southerners perished—a staggering number when compared to the 4,435 who died during the War of Independence. The overall death toll of approximately 610,000 hides a disproportionate effect on the white populations of the North and the South.

The North’s white population of 22 million means that its 360,000 dead represented 1.6 percent of the total.

The South, with its white population of 5.5 million, suffered a loss in excess of 4.5 percent. This was to set back the growth of the southern white population by decades, a factor which counts against them to this day.

CHAPTER 53: The Politics of Race—America until 1945

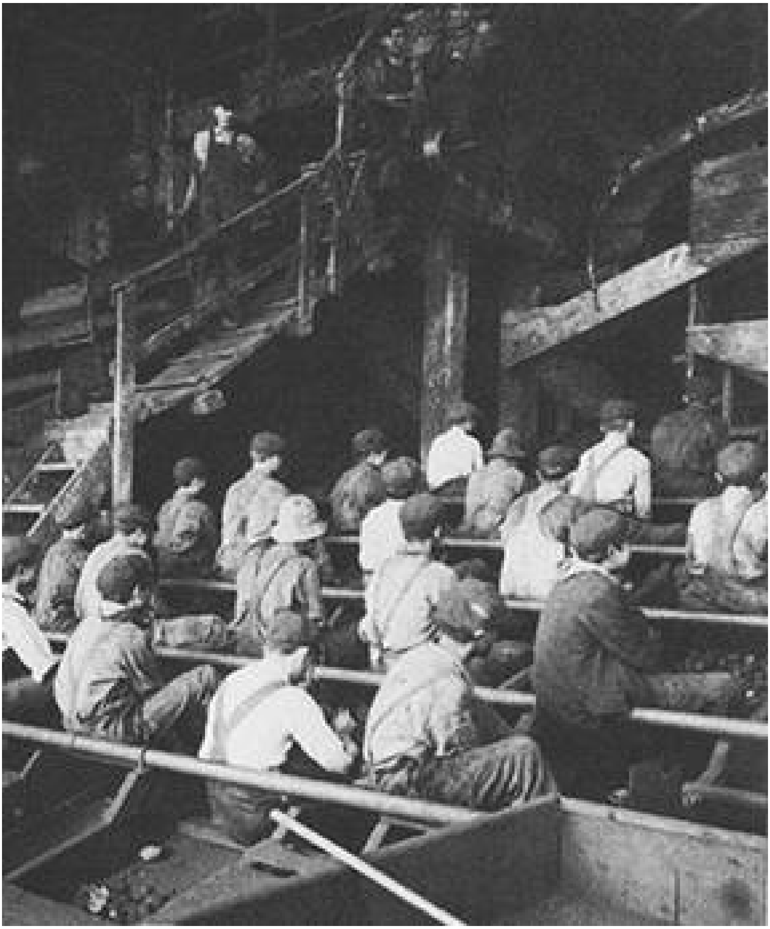
Those Americans who thought that the issue of race relations had been settled by the outcome of the Civil War were very quickly to be disabused of that notion. Racial issues continued to dominate American politics at all levels. It affected economics, immigration, foreign policy, and politics—and ultimately went on to shape America into the twentieth century and beyond.

Economic Growth—Unrest and Race

The period following the end of the Civil War saw the development of great cities, factories, and industrial centers in America, which soon surpassed those found in Europe. The progressive nature of American society, which encouraged and rewarded individual enterprise regardless of social background, nurtured the European inventive spirit, and it was no coincidence that many of the greatest technological breakthroughs of the modern world emerged in America between 1850 and 1940.

Rapid industrialization, however, came at a social and economic price. In this regard, America would be no different than her European motherland, and rampant capitalist abuses provided genuine grievances which were exploited by the Marxists and Socialists.

RAPID INDUSTRIALIZATION LEADS TO CAPITALIST EXPLOITATION



The rapid industrialization of the United States during the last quarter of the nineteenth century opened a window of opportunity for unscrupulous capitalists who resorted to the massive social exploitation their ideological colleagues in Europe had used several decades earlier. Illustrations above and below: Insightful images of child laborers working in a Pennsylvania coal picking factory. It was in response to such outrages that working condition laws were introduced.

Strikes Follow Capitalist Exploitation

The first powerful socialist-inclined labor movements emerged in America after 1885. Duplicating their comrades in Europe, the labor movements demanded higher wages, better working conditions, and shorter hours. The speed with which these ideals spread among working-class Americans can be gauged from the fact that an estimated three thousand strikes took place in the United States between 1886 and 1887 alone.

An 1886 strike at the McCormick reaper works in Chicago spilled over into serious unrest which is now known as the Haymarket Square Riot. During the disturbances, a bomb was thrown at the police. In the resultant melee, seven policemen died and sixty were injured. Chicago became famous as a center for radical labor activism, a reputation which it kept for over a century.

In 1894, an equally important riot took place in Chicago, when employees of the Pullman Company, a manufacturer of railroad sleeping cars, went on strike over unfair working conditions. The resulting unrest spread all over America courtesy of the American Railway Union, and in Chicago, federal troops had to be deployed to quell the unrest.

One important issue about these early socialist workers' unions which is ignored today was the fact that almost all of them had provisions which specifically prevented blacks from becoming members. Unions would often go out on strikes over management attempts to employ blacks, and racial clashes between workers of different races were common until after the Second World War.

Infrastructure Expands—Railways Built across the West at Indians' Expense

As early as 1862, US Congress had chartered the building of five major railway lines and services to the Western Territories. These lines were built in vast open stretches of land, a fact which allowed many of the railway companies to build small settlements and towns of their own along the way.

Congress also passed the Homestead Act in 1862, which encouraged western migration by giving 65 hectares (160 acres) of land at no cost to the head of any family who contracted to cultivate it for a minimum of five years. The efforts to colonize the Western Territories were halted by the Civil War, but resumed in earnest once that conflict was brought to an end. By the time the homesteading program was brought to an end in the early twentieth century, some 1.6 million grants had been made which accounted for an astonishing 10 percent of all land in the United States.

All of these expansions were undertaken at the expense of the "Indian territories" in the west, and were to play an important role in the development of Indian policy, the creation of Indian reservations, and white expansion across the continental United States.

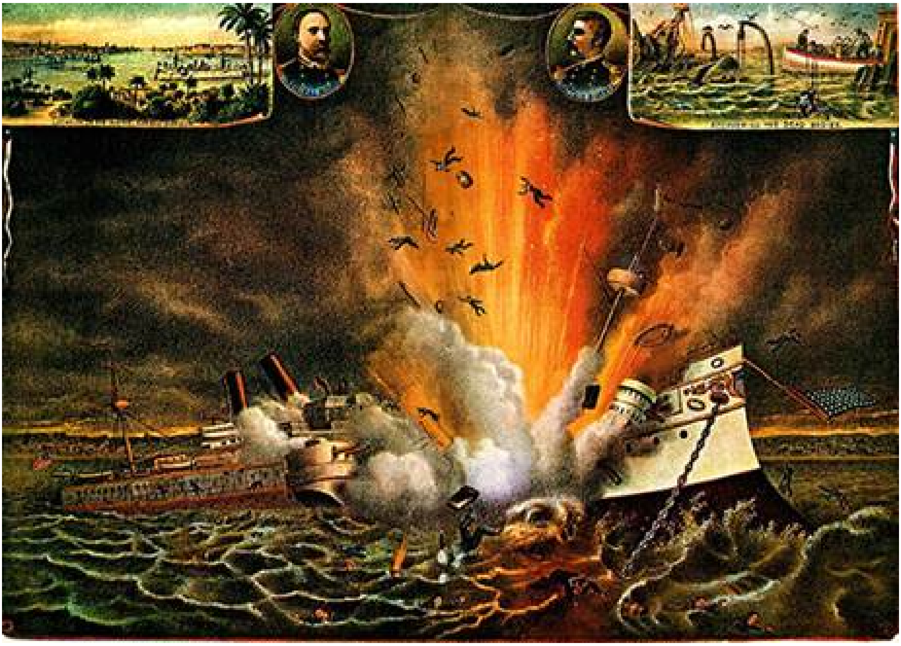
Alaska Purchased from Russia 1867

Russia maintained friendly relations with the Union government during the Civil War, with the result that the US Government was able to purchase the territory of Alaska from the Russians in 1867 for $7.2 million in gold. In this way, America acquired another 586,412 square miles of land and several hundred thousand Inuit natives. Alaska only became an American state in 1959.

Pacific Islands and Hawaii

In 1899, the United States acquired the island of Tutuila (or American Samoa), while an 1893 revolution in the Hawaiian Islands, led by American sugar planters, resulted in the overthrow of the Hawaiian monarchy and the annexation of the islands by the United States by 1898. In addition, the United States also acquired several other islands in the Pacific, including Wake Island and Midway. The common factor in each of these acquisitions was the fact that the majority of the populations were not European, a demographic fact which went largely unobserved.

DESTRUCTION OF *USS MAINE* IN HAVANA PROVOKES SPANISH–AMERICAN WAR



The USS Maine*, which was until then the largest ship ever built in US shipyards, arrived in Cuba's Havana harbor on January 24, 1898. At about 9:30 PM on February 15, the* USS Maine *was shattered by two separate explosions and rapidly sank. Two hundred and fifty-two men were killed. US newspapers placed the blame on Spanish mine, although there was no evidence for this claim. A later court of inquiry came to the same conclusion, but later investigations found that the cause of the explosion could not be properly determined. Regardless of the truth, the loss of the* USS Maine *turned American popular opinion in favor of war with Spain. American troops landed in Cuba to help liberate the Cubans from Spanish rule. The resultant Spanish–American War ended in defeat for Spain and the loss of a large number of her colonial possessions.*

Spanish–American War—New Territories Added to US

War broke out between Spain and its independence-minded colony of Cuba in 1868, and continued in fits and starts for over ten years. In 1873, a private American ship, the *Virginius,* which was being used by Cuban insurgents to smuggle weapons, was seized by the Spanish navy.

Some of the American crew were executed for piracy. The executions aroused considerable public ill-feeling in America toward Spain and became known as the *Virginius* Affair. In 1898, the US Government sent the battleship *Maine* to take up position off Cuba to protect the interests of American citizens in Cuba due to the ongoing unrest. However, on the night of February 15, a mysterious explosion destroyed the *Maine,* killing 260 crewmen.

At the time it could not be determined whether the Maine was blown up by the Spanish or by Cuban rebels, but popular opinion in America put the blame on the Spanish in the light of the *Virginius* affair.

On April 19, 1898, the US Congress adopted a resolution that recognized Cuba's independence and demanded that Spain withdraw from Cuba. It also authorized the US president to use force to make sure that the resolution was carried out. This was in effect a declaration of war against Spain, and American military forces quickly overwhelmed the tiny Spanish colonial army.

The December 1898 Treaty of Paris, which ended the Spanish–American War, gave independence to Cuba (although it was placed under American protection until 1902) and forced Spain to cede Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines to America. The American government agreed to pay the Spanish $20 million for possession of the Philippines. Puerto Ricans were given US citizenship by the 1917 Jones Act, while the Philippines was declared independent at the end of World War II.

Panama Created from Columbia

In 1902, the US Senate authorized a plan to create a canal in Central America across the thinnest part of the landmass separating the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. President Theodore Roosevelt signed a treaty with the Colombian government in 1903 which granted to the United States a long-term lease of a ten mile-wide zone in the province of Panama, where the canal was to be built.

The Colombian senate, however, vetoed the treaty, fearful that it would encourage a budding separatist movement in the province. This decision inflamed the Panamanians even further, and a rebellion then broke out. Roosevelt backed the rebels, and deployed US warships to prevent Colombian troops being deployed against the rebel province. As a result, Panama gained its independence in 1903.

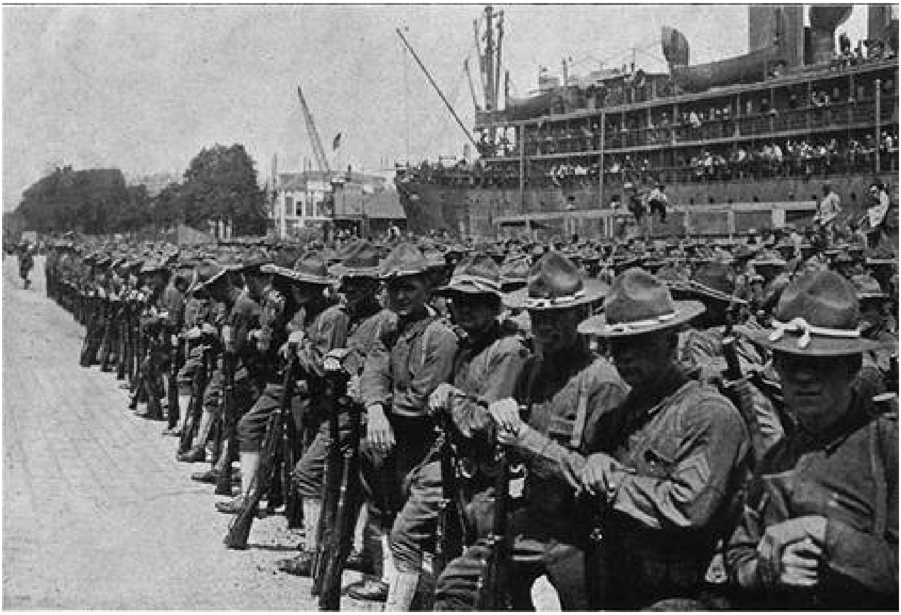
The newly independent state then signed a treaty with the US government in terms of which it was paid $10 million and a further $250,000 every year thereafter for the lease of territory upon which the canal would be built. Construction began immediately and the Panama Canal was completed in 1914. America retained control over this technological wonder until the year 2000 when the lease finally expired.

Mexico—the Festering Sore

American troops briefly occupied the Mexican city of Vera Cruz in 1914 after internal dissension threatened US interests in Mexico. A hastily organized international conference, set up by several Latin American states, managed to prevent the conflict from spiralling out of control and negotiated a settlement which prevented a second Mexican–American War.

Tensions lingered on, and in 1916, militant Mexicans crossed the border into the state of New Mexico and attacked the American town of Columbus. Some sixteen Americans were killed and the town burned to the ground. An American army unit was sent into Mexico on a reprisal mission, but returned empty-handed after the Mexicans refused to cooperate in finding the guilty parties.

AMERICA INVOLVED IN WORLD WAR I AFTER ZIONIST MACHINATIONS



American soldiers disembark in France, ready to take part in the war on *the western front against Germany. The world Zionist movement had agreed to use its influence with the American government to bring the US into the war in return for support for the creation of a Jewish state in Palestine, as outlined in the official Zionist Organization of the United Kingdom publication,* Great Britain, the Jews and Palestine.

World War I—US Neutrality Broken

The US tried at first to remain neutral after the outbreak of the First World War in 1914. This policy, however, was difficult to maintain, as England and France, in the course of maintaining their blockade against Germany, interfered with American ships traveling to the Continent.

For their part, the Germans waged a submarine war against all ships in the sea around Britain and requested that neutral nations not send vessels to Britain or Ireland to avoid the possibility of losing ships or lives. The Germans also urged nationals of foreign nations not to travel on British ships.

This warning was ignored by 128 American citizens who, in May 1915, traveled on the British passenger liner, the *Lusitania.* This vessel was torpedoed by a German submarine after it had been identified as carrying munitions for the British war effort.

The American public was outraged by the *Lusitania's* sinking, and the media helped whip up an anti-German and anti-Kaiser sentiment. In an attempt to placate American public opinion, Germany announced that it would henceforth give warnings to all passenger ships before sinking them, which in theory would give passengers time to save themselves.

This mollified American public opinion somewhat, and President Woodrow Wilson was given the credit for this pledge. Wilson went on to win the next presidential election in 1916 on the basis of his work in keeping America out of the war.

The "Mexican Telegram" Heightens Tensions with Germany

As the war in Europe dragged on, Germany announced in January 1917 that it would implement a policy of unrestricted submarine warfare which stretched further than just around Britain. President Wilson responded to this news by breaking off diplomatic relations with Germany and convincing the US Congress to agree to arm American merchant vessels.

This move coincided with the news of the “Zimmermann Telegram” scandal of the same month. This was a coded telegram sent by the German foreign secretary, Arthur Zimmermann, to the German ambassador in Washington DC, Johann von Bernstorff. The telegram foresaw America’s intervention in the war after the announcement of the extension of unrestricted submarine warfare, and instructed the ambassador to approach the Mexican government with an offer of a military alliance against the US.

In terms of the proposal, the Germans would provide aid to Mexico to seize the territory lost as a result of the Mexican–American War and the Gadsden Purchase In addition, the telegram asked Bernstoff to request the Mexicans to negotiate an alliance with Japan against America and Britain.

The interception and public release of the telegram whipped up American public opinion against Germany once again, especially as the old enemy to the South, Mexico, had been implicated.

Balfour Declaration—Jewish Lobby Supports Allies

In the interim, Chaim Weizmann, the leader of the world Zionist movement (an organization of nationalist Jews set up in Switzerland in the nineteenth century to promote the creation of a national homeland for the Jews in Palestine), persuaded the British government to issue the famous Balfour Declaration in December 1917.

This declaration stated the intent to make Palestine, then under Turkish Ottoman rule, into a Jewish homeland once the war was over. The Turks were allies of Germany and their defeat was vital not only for Zionist interests but also for the Allied cause.

The quid quo pro for the declaration of support was Weizmann’s assurance that the world Zionist movement would throw its full weight behind the Allied war effort. As part of this, the Zionist lobby would use its influence in America to bring that nation into the war on the Allied side. This was later confirmed in an official publication of the “Zionist Organisation of the United Kingdom” (ZOUK), titled *Great Britain, the Jews and Palestine,* written in 1936 by the solicitor and secretary to ZOUK, Samuel Landman.

In the official Zionist publication, Landman explained it this way:

“Several attempts to bring America into the War on the side of the

Allies by influencing influential Jewish opinion were made and had failed. Mr. James A. Malcolm, who was already aware of German pre-war efforts to secure a foothold in Palestine through the Zionist Jews and of the abortive Anglo–French démarches at Washington and New York; and knew that Mr. Woodrow Wilson, for good and sufficient reasons, always attached the greatest possible importance to the advice of a very prominent Zionist (Mr. Justice Brandeis, of the US Supreme Court); and was in close touch with Mr. Greenberg, Editor of the Jewish Chronicle (London); and knew that several important Zionist Jewish leaders had already gravitated to London from the Continent on the qui vive awaiting events; and appreciated and realised the depth and strength of Jewish national aspirations; spontaneously took the initiative, to convince first of all Sir Mark Sykes, Under Secretary to the War Cabinet, and afterwards Monsieur Georges Picot, of the French Embassy in London, and Monsieur Goût of the Quai d'Orsay (Eastern Section), that the best and perhaps the only way (which proved so to be) to induce the American President to come into the War was to secure the co-operation of Zionist Jews by promising them Palestine, and thus enlist and mobilise the hitherto unsuspectedly powerful forces of Zionist Jews in America and elsewhere in favour of the Allies on a quid pro quo contract basis.

"Thus, as will be seen, the Zionists, having carried out their part, and greatly helped to bring America in, the Balfour Declaration of 1917 was but the public confirmation of the necessarily secret 'gentleman's' agreement of 1916 made with the previous knowledge, acquiescence and/or approval of the Arabs and of the British, American, French and other Allied Governments, and not merely a voluntary altruistic and romantic gesture on the part of Great Britain as certain people either through pardonable ignorance assume or unpardonable illwill would represent or rather misrepresent.

"The fact that it was Jewish help that brought [sic] *U.S.A. into the War on the side of the Allies has rankled ever since in German—especially Nazi—minds, and has contributed in no small measure to the prominence which anti-Semitism occupies in the Nazi programme."*

The full extent of these behind-the-scenes political machinations have always been glossed over by establishment histories, and this is the reason why considerable confusion still exists over the real reason why America entered World War I on the Allied side.

Wilson (who, it will be recalled, had won a second term of office on the promise of American neutrality), used the flimsy excuse of the Zimmermann Telegram's claims of a Mexican-Japanese-German alliance against America to claim that Germany had committed an act of aggression against the United States. This “reasoning” was put to the public and the US Congress and used to justify a declaration of war against Germany on April 6, 1917.

The Zionist influence was never mentioned in public, and when rumors of it started to circulate in American society, the US Congress passed a Sedition Act of May 1918, which made it illegal to criticize American intervention in the war in any manner. Dissenting opinion was silenced and it was only due to Zionist boasting that the truth finally emerged. The American contribution of fresh troops and material at a crucial juncture in World War I ensured the Allied victory—at a cost of 116,516 American lives.

Wilson’s Fourteen Points Rejected at Versailles

Wilson attended the talks held in Paris at the end of the war, and pleaded with the participants to bring about a peace based on his “Fourteen Points” program, which constituted a plan to create a lasting peace based on reconciliation, not revenge. Wilson warned against a policy of blame and said that it would only lead to a new conflict.

His suggestions were spurned and the other Allies pressed ahead with a program to blame Germany for the war and to extract penalties and payments as restitution. The Treaty of Versailles declared Germany guilty of all the economic losses sustained by the Allied nations and established an Inter-Allied Reparations Commission that subsequently imposed impossible obligations upon the Germans. History was to prove Wilson correct.

The Prohibition and the Great Flu Epidemic

In the years immediately following the end of the First World War, American political and social life was consumed by two major events: the outbreak of the Great Flu Epidemic of 1918–1919, and the Prohibition.

The Great Flu Epidemic started in an American army base in the Midwest. By the time it had worked its way through America, it had killed 675,000 people, nearly six times the number of soldiers killed in combat during the war. Worldwide, estimates of the number of deaths from this pandemic ranged from twenty to forty million.

Prohibition was a ban on the sale, manufacture, and transportation of alcohol which was implemented by the Eighteenth

Amendment to the US Constitution, enacted in January 1920. The purpose of the ban was an attempt to reduce alcohol consumption which was seen as a national problem. While Prohibition succeeded in reducing the amount of alcohol consumed by the public, its main effect was the creation of a new revenue stream for organized crime.

The Mafia became involved in the manufacture and distribution of alcoholic substances, which in turn led to an increasingly violent number of clashes with the law. The ban on alcohol was acknowledged as a failure after thirteen years, and the Eighteenth Amendment was overturned in 1933.

Women Granted the Vote in 1920

The original US Constitution barred women from the right to vote. This provision was only overturned by the Nineteenth Amendment, passed by Congress on June 4, 1919, and ratified in August the next year.

The right to vote had been the subject of much agitation by female rights' activists for decades, with the first such proposal serving as early as 1868.

In this regard, America was behind nations such as New Zealand, Australia, Canada, Estonia, Germany, Latvia, Poland, and many other European states, some of which had granted women the right to vote nearly two decades earlier.

CAPITALISM'S FAILURE PLUNGES AMERICA—AND THE WORLD—INTO THE GREAT DEPRESSION

Above: This American family, reduced to utter poverty and only able to obtain shelter by means of this shack dwelling, epitomized the fate of millions during the Great Depression. The economic collapse officially started with the total failure of plutocratic capitalism in October 1929, when the stock market on the New York Stock Exchange started to devalue. For the next three years, stock prices continued to fall until, by late 1932, they had dropped to about 20 percent of their 1929 value. Besides ruining many thousands of individual investors, this decline greatly strained banks and other financial institutions. By 1933, eleven thousand of the United States' twenty-five thousand banks had failed. Reduced spending and a nationwide loss of confidence in the economy resulted in falling output and rising unemployment. By 1932, US manufacturing output had fallen to 54 percent of its 1929 level, and unemployment had risen to between twelve and fifteen million, or 30 percent of the workforce. The election of President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1932 saw the introduction of socialist-based state interventionism in the economy through increased government regulation and massive public works projects. By 1939, Roosevelt had managed to reduce unemployment to 15 percent, and *only the advent of American involvement in the Second World War ended the Great Depression in that country.*

The Stock Market Crash of 1929 Exposes Economic Vulnerabilities

In 1929, the American stock market suffered a major collapse, brought on by a combination of over-speculation and inherent weaknesses in the banking system. The collapse in share prices impoverished investors and was a major cause of the Great Depression which followed.

The economic collapse wreaked social havoc in America. By 1932, thousands of banks, mills, and factories had failed, mortgages on farms and houses were foreclosed in large numbers, and more than ten million workers were unemployed. The catastrophe soon spread beyond the borders of America and most Western nations suffered severe financial crises.

Roosevelt's Semi-Socialist "New Deal" Saves America

The election, in 1932, of President Franklin D. Roosevelt, on a platform which promised a "new deal" marked a turning point in the Great Depression. Roosevelt employed some solidly socialist principles and created a large number of state-owned agencies which restored the American economy by the financing of huge building programs.

In addition, other state agencies created by the Roosevelt administration brought relief to the unemployed and needy. These relief funds were then distributed through a number of federal agencies which in turn created new jobs. For example, the Rural Electrification Administration, established in 1936, brought power lines to many sparsely populated areas of the United States for the first time, and the Social Security Act, passed in 1935 and amended in 1939, provided for old-age benefits, unemployment compensation, and welfare services for mothers, children, elders, and people with disabilities.

In addition, Roosevelt created public bodies tasked with overseeing the markets in the hope that a 1929-style disaster could be avoided again. The Securities and Exchange Commission, which is still in existence, dates from this era.

The New Deal also aided large-scale business. The Roosevelt administration extended large credit to railway companies, building loan companies, banks, and agricultural credit corporations. In his

1936 reelection bid, Roosevelt won one of the greatest political victories in US history, carrying every state except Maine and Vermont. In addition, black voters, following their major switch to the Democratic Party in the 1934 elections, voted overwhelmingly for Roosevelt.

World War II—American Public Favors Neutrality

A majority of Americans favored neutrality at the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. Roosevelt publicly supported nonintervention, and specifically said that his policy of "opposition to totalitarian dictatorship should be implemented by all means short of war."

Anti-war agitation was also spearheaded by a number of groups, ranging from the pro-Nazi to the pacifist. Among the leading anti-intervention agitators were contemporary American folk heroes such as Charles Lindbergh (the first man to fly the Atlantic Ocean solo in 1927) and Henry Ford, the founder of the Ford motor company (both were given Nazi medals by the German air force chief, Hermann Göring).

ISOLATIONIST CHARLES LINDBERGH BLAMES JEWS FOR AMERICAN PARTICIPATION IN WORLD WAR II

Spirit of St. Louis

Charles Lindbergh (1902–1974), the famous American aviator who flew the first solo flight across the Atlantic in his Spirit of St. Louis *in 1927, was a firm opponent to America's entry into the Second World War. He was at one stage so popular that if he had, as was widely rumored, stood for the presidency, he might well have won. Lindbergh traveled widely, and visited Germany, where he was impressed with the state which Hitler had built. While touring German aviation facilities for the American military attaché in Berlin, Luftwaffe chief Herman Göring presented Lindbergh with the Verdienstkreuz Deutscher Adler, the Service Cross of the German Eagle. All this contributed toward Lindbergh's desire to see American neutrality when the war broke out, and he spent a considerable amount of time publicly advocating this policy. He became a prominent member of the America First Committee, the leading isolationist lobby group, whose other supporters included Henry Ford. In a famous 1941 article in* Collier's *magazine, and shortly afterward, in a speech at Des Moines, Iowa, Lindbergh claimed that Jews were pushing America into the war against Germany. "Instead of agitating for war, Jews in this country should be opposing it in every way, for they will be the first to feel its consequences.*

Tolerance is a virtue that depends upon peace and strength. History shows that it cannot survive war and devastation. . . . Large Jewish ownership and influence in our motion pictures, our press, our radio and our government constitute a great danger to our country," Lindbergh said. After the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor, Lindbergh volunteered for active duty in the Asia–Pacific theater, seeing action against the Japanese. He never renounced his earlier views, and died in retirement in Hawaii.

US Government Supports Britain

Despite his public pronouncements in favour of neutrality, Roosevelt was, like his World War I predecessor, Woodrow Wilson, intent on bringing America into the war. Late in 1939, the US Congress partly repealed the arms embargo imposed by a number of neutrality acts. This meant that France and Great Britain could buy war supplies in the United States. In September 1940, the US government transferred fifty destroyers to the British. In return, Britain gave the US military extended leases on a number of bases around the Western Hemisphere.

In September 1940, the US Congress also passed the first ever American peacetime conscription act, and in March 1941, congress passed the Lend-Lease Act. This law empowered the president to transfer, sell, lend, or lease war supplies to any nation when it was "deemed to be in the interests of American security." In July 1940, the export of war materials to Japan was forbidden by the US State Department.

Japanese Attack on Pearl Harbor Brings US into World War II

On December 7, 1941, while a special Japanese envoy was in Washington DC, ostensibly on a mission to negotiate an understanding over affairs in the Pacific, the Japanese military launched a surprise bombing attack on the US naval base at Pearl Harbor in the Hawaiian Islands.

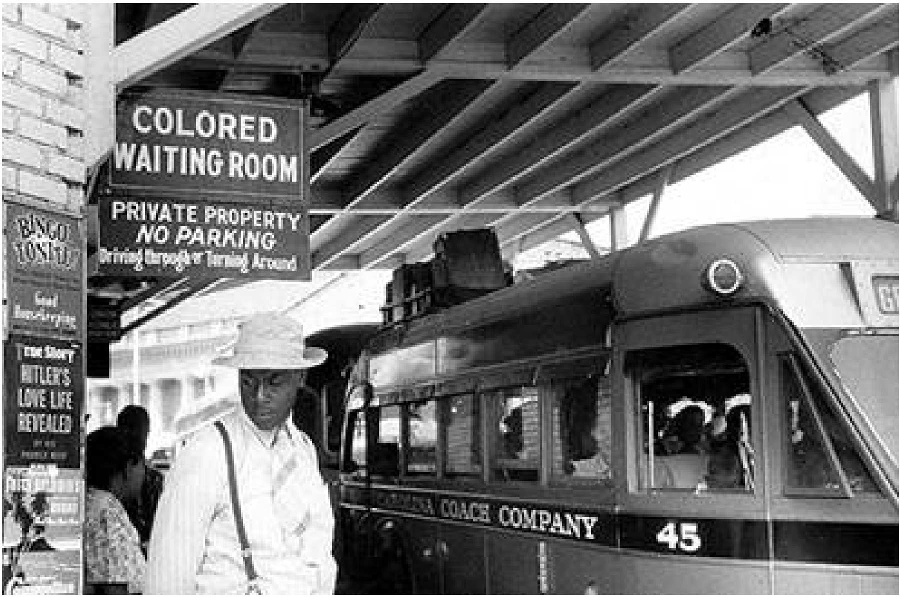
The US Congress declared war on Japan the next day at the request of the president. On December 11, Germany and Italy declared war on the United States in terms of a Triple Alliance signed between those two nations and Japan. It has long been an acknowledged fact that the American intelligence services knew most details of the attack before it happened, and some historians have suggested that the attack was allowed to happen in order to push America into the war.

This remained a far-fetched theory until 2002, when previously secret US government records were released which showed that the United States Navy intercepted numerous signals, transmitted during the week of November 17–25, 1941, by Japan's Admiral Yamamoto to his carriers, which clearly revealed the attack plans.

The intercepts of November read, inter alia: "...the task force, keeping its movements strictly secret and maintaining close guard against submarines and aircraft, shall advance into Hawaiian waters, and upon the very opening of hostilities shall attack the main force of the United States fleet in Hawaii and deal it a mortal blow."

It is thus unlikely that Roosevelt and other senior government officials were completely unaware of an impending attack but either did not believe it or deliberately withheld the intelligence in order to manipulate public opinion. The US forces in Pearl Harbor, however, were not alerted until after the attack had started. The turn of events suited the aim of dissipating American isolationism and forced the US government into World War II.

RACIAL SEGREGATION IN AMERICA 1940


COLORED WAITING ROOM
PRIVATE PROPERTY NO PARKING
Driving Through or Turning Around
BINGO TONITE
Good Housekeeping
The Story HITLER'S LOVE LIFE REVEALED
COACH COMPANY
45

Racial segregation at an American bus station, 1940. Segregation was strictly enforced throughout America, right up to the highest levels. The World War II-era Pentagon in Washington DC, for example, was built with double the number of toilets its occupants actually require. This quirk was to comply with Virginia segregation laws at the time which required separate toilets for the races.

US Army Remains Racially Segregated

Despite the American government's claimed opposition to Nazi racial policies, the US Army in 1940 was still segregated along racial lines. Black soldiers served in all-black units and great care was taken to ensure that black officers were never in command of white troops.

The US Army Air Corps refused outright to accept blacks into its ranks at all, a situation which only changed in October 1940 when the War Department, at the urging of Roosevelt, ordered that "Negroes [were to be] given aviation training as pilots, mechanics, and technical specialists."

Even then, the US Air Force set up segregated blacks-only units known as the Tuskegee Airmen. The Air Force only desegregated in 1948.

In the army, similar steps were taken to prevent racial mixing. On several occasions while stationed in England during the war, white and black American troops were involved in gun fights with each other over attempts by the nonwhites to date English women. Finally an American army order was issued which stipulated that white and black soldiers be given passes on different evenings to stop such racial incidents. Strict racial segregation was maintained in the US Army throughout the war, ironic given the war against Nazism.

The "Yellow Japs"—Japanese Civilians Interned and US Allies Itself to Communist Soviet Union

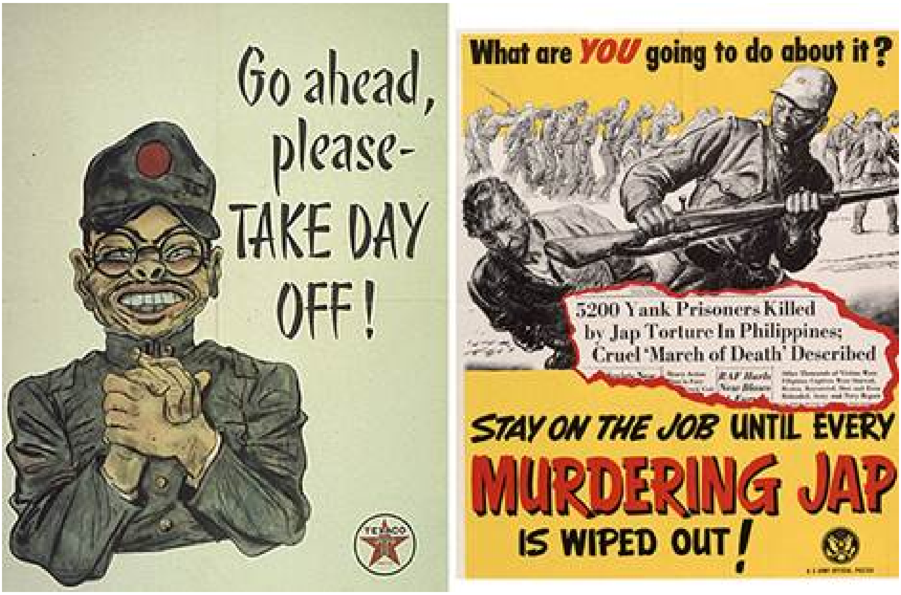
The attack on Pearl Harbor brought about another overtly racially-motivated act, this time focused on Japanese people living in America. All of them were considered security risks, and, by special order of Roosevelt, all Japanese people on the West Coast were detained and sent to "War Relocation Camps."

In total some 112,000 Japanese-origin people were interned, many of them US citizens. This was a perfectly justifiable action, given the extent of the Japanese spy rings which operated in America.

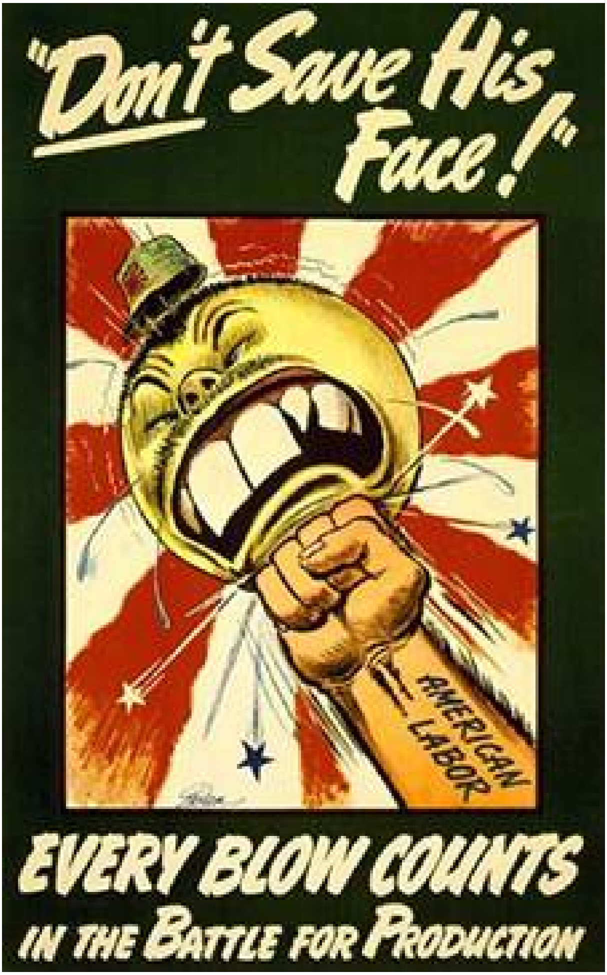
The exclusion orders were only lifted in 1945, and the last internment camp was closed in 1946 after some Japanese people refused to leave of their own accord.

The American government also made heavy use of racial stereotypes in its war propaganda, with Japanese racial features portrayed in exaggerated ways which would have put any Nazi propagandist to shame.

WORLD WAR II—AMERICAN RACIAL PROPAGANDA AGAINST THE JAPANESE CONTRADICTS ANTI-NAZI STANCE


Go ahead, please- TAKE DAY OFF!
TEXACO
What are YOU going to do about it?
5200 Yank Prisoners Killed by Jap Torture In Philippines; Cruel 'March of Death' Described
STAY ON THE JOB UNTIL EVERY MURDERING JAP IS WIPED OUT!

Despite officially condemning Nazi racism, the American government was quick to play the race card during the Second World War to motivate its people against Japan. On the left, a poster from the Texaco oil company showing a Japanese soldier with grossly exaggerated racial features asking American workers to take time off. The other two posters were issued officially by the US government with the purpose of inciting Americans against the Japanese. The official US government poster above right even called for the extermination of all Japanese.



The savage maltreatment of white prisoners of war by the Japanese (which routinely included torture, beheading, and forced labor and starvation) made no one in America and Britain think twice about the racially derisive propaganda.

Roosevelt's hypocrisy in international affairs was revealed in his attitude toward the Soviet Union and Nazi Germany. While he publicly deplored Nazi totalitarianism in Germany, the US government actively praised and supported Communist totalitarianism in the Soviet Union. America's industrial resources were put at the disposal of the Soviet Union to fight Nazi Germany.

It is doubtful that the Soviet army would have recovered from the massive losses inflicted by the initial German invasion of Russia had American materials not flooded in to bolster the Communist war effort.

One of the most prominent examples of American military aid to the Soviet Union came in April 1945, when the Soviet armored unit, the 1st Tank Battalion, 46th Guards Tank Brigade, seized the Austrian capital of Vienna. The Soviet 46th Guards Tank Brigade consisted entirely of US Sherman tanks, made in America and shipped to the Soviet Union.

US SUPPLIES 21 PERCENT OF ALL SOVIET TANKS

The US government supplied a total of 4,102 Sherman tanks to the Soviet Union during World War II for use against Germany. This amounted to over 21 percent of the entire Soviet tank army. Above, the first Soviet tank commander to enter Vienna in 1945 poses in front of his Sherman tank. The Soviets also received 3,487 Canadian-built Valentine tanks.

Roosevelt's Fourth Term and the Communist Spies Who Founded the United Nations

Roosevelt ran for reelection as president in 1944 for an unparalleled fourth time, and achieved an easy victory. After Roosevelt died from a brain hemorrhage in April 1945, the US Constitution was changed to formally limit to two the maximum number of times an American president could be elected to office.

Another important legacy of Roosevelt was the preparatory work done by his administration for the founding of the United Nations organization. Much of this work was undertaken by a US State Department employee, Alger Hiss, who attended the Yalta Conference in 1945 as part of the American delegation which met with Winston Churchill and Joseph Stalin to decide the fate of postwar Europe.

Hiss was involved in the establishment of the United Nations both as a US State Department and as a UN official. In 1948, he was betrayed by a former fellow-Communist Party member, Whittaker Chambers, and exposed as a spy for the Soviet Union. By then, the statute of limitations had expired, and Hiss was only charged with perjury and sentenced to prison.

Atom Bomb Ends War against Japan

The end of the war in Europe did not mean the end of that difficult and costly conflict with Japan. In the Pacific Ocean, the American army had fought a protracted and dangerous campaign which consisted of "island-hopping" from one Japanese-occupied landmass to the next. The ferocity of the Japanese defense was illustrated by the fact that they always fought to the death, with only a handful ever taken prisoner.

The last of these island invasions took place from April to June 1945, when US forces stormed the island of Okinawa, the southernmost part of the Ryukyu Islands of Japan. The ferocity of the battle saw over 100,000 Japanese and 50,000 American casualties. The cost of the campaign persuaded the new American president, Harold Truman, to authorize the use of a new weapon, the atom bomb. There was little choice for the Americans. It was either drop the atom bomb, or face the loss of hundreds of thousands of American lives in an invasion of the Japanese homeland. Two bombs were dropped, and Japan surrendered five days after the second attack.

Segregation and Unrest—Blacks in America 1870–1945

The white southern Democratic policy of introducing literacy tests for voters soon had an important effect upon the number of blacks eligible for the franchise. For example, the number of black voters in Mississippi in 1890 was officially registered at 190,000, but by 1898, only a few thousand remained on the electoral roll.

This pattern was repeated in almost all Southern states. In 1896, there were 130,344 blacks registered to vote in Louisiana, but by 1900, that number had been reduced to 5,320. That same year, there were 3,000 registered black voters in Alabama, out of a total voting age black population of more than 180,000.

The politically incorrect observation which can be made about these disenfranchisement figures is that they serve as a stark reminder of the level of education of the American black population. It became fashionable to blame white “racism” for this state of affairs, but a 2011 report on the city of Detroit, which revealed that more than half of that city’s black population was functionally illiterate, puts lie to this claim.

BLACKS ATTACK WHITE RESIDENTIAL AREAS IN DETROIT 1943

The demand for labor to drive America’s industrial output during the Second World War saw a doubling in the number of blacks in Detroit, from 100,000 in 1933 to 200,000 by 1943. The massive influx started the downward spiral for which the city is most famous today, but in 1943, the city was still majority white and strictly segregated.

To protest against segregation, a few blacks began a “bumping campaign”—which consisted of walking into whites on the streets and bumping them off the sidewalks or nudging them in elevators. The campaign quickly attracted the attention of the media, and **LIFE** ***magazine did an article on the rising racial tensions, describing the situation as “dynamite.”***

The underlying problems came to the fore when a gang of blacks invaded a white residential suburb on Belle Isle on June 20, 1943. The attack was repulsed by local whites and a rumor spread among the black community that, in the process, the whites had thrown a black woman and her baby off the Belle Isle Bridge.

Despite there being no evidence for this allegation, a large crowd of blacks stormed the area of Woodward near Paradise Valley. They looted the stores and attacked white people at random, which resulted in gangs of whites and blacks fighting in the streets. The violence completely overwhelmed local authorities, and federal troops in armored cars were called in to suppress the unrest. The thirty-six hours of rioting claimed thirty-four lives, twenty-five of them black. More than 1,800 blacks were arrested for looting and other incidents. Below: A tram on fire in central Detroit, 1943; and police arrest blacks at the height of the riots.

Segregation—"Separate but Equal"

The southern Democrat state governments also formalized racial segregation in the south, known colloquially as "Jim Crow" (from a nineteenth century minstrel song). The US Supreme Court gave formal sanction to these segregationist laws in 1896 with a decision in the Plessy v. Ferguson case, which ruled that "separate but equal” railway coaches for the races was constitutional. The Plessy doctrine provided constitutional protection for segregation for the next fifty years. The list of segregationist laws implemented after 1900 reveal precisely how far the “Jim Crow” laws extended:

- A 1914 Louisiana statute required separate entrances at circuses for blacks and whites;
- A 1915 Oklahoma law segregated telephone booths;
- A 1920 Mississippi law made it a crime to advocate or publish “arguments or suggestions in favor of social equality or of intermarriage between whites and negroes.”
- Arkansas provided for segregation at race tracks;
- Texas prohibited integrated boxing matches;
- All states had segregated schools, and
- All states prohibited mixed-race marriages.

In 1910, the city of Baltimore in Maryland officially delineated separate black and white suburbs. This move was replicated by the governors of Dallas in Texas, Greensboro in North Carolina, Louisville in Kentucky, Norfolk in Virginia, Oklahoma City in Oklahoma, Richmond and Roanoke in Virginia, and St. Louis in Missouri.

The policy of segregation was implemented at the highest level as well. When Woodrow Wilson became president in 1913, he ordered the racial segregation of all federal facilities in the American capital.

Black Riots Continue to Plague North and South

It is often thought that large-scale black riots only started in America during the “civil rights” era of the 1960s. The facts are, however, substantially different. Serious disturbances occurred in the north and the south from the late nineteenth century onward, often sparked by real or imaginary racial incidents. This was by itself an indication of the underlying racial tensions which often only required the smallest excuse to erupt into violence. A partial list of some of the most significant incidents serves to illustrate the point:

- 1898: Several blacks and whites are killed in racial riots in Wilmington, North Carolina;
- 1906: Dozens of blacks and whites are killed in several days

of racial rioting in Atlanta, Georgia;

• 1908: Two black-on-white murders in Springfield, Illinois, spark racial disturbances during which a white crowd kills two blacks and burns down a crime-infested black suburb known as the "Badlands."

• 1917: About forty people, mainly black, are killed during an outbreak of rioting in St. Louis, Illinois;

• 1917: A black army battalion goes amok in Houston and uses their government-issued firearms to shoot white civilians. Two blacks and eleven whites are killed in the resultant fighting. Over sixty black soldiers are tried and convicted of murder, and thirteen are hanged;

• 1918: A black riot in Chester, Pennsylvania, kills two white passersby. The police department is forced to open fire and three blacks are shot dead. The riot in Chester spreads to Philadelphia.

• 1919: The first of the infamous "Red Summer" race riots takes place. Eventually, twenty-six different riots take place between April and October in the following areas:

- May: Charleston, South Carolina;

- July: Gregg and Longview counties, Texas;

- July: Washington D. C.;

- July: Chicago, Illinois. This was the worst of the 1919 riots and was sparked when some white youths threw stones at a black swimming in Lake Michigan. The black swimmer subsequently drowned but the police refused to arrest the stone throwers as there was no confirmed link between the stone throwing and the drowning. A black mob went on a rampage in Chicago for several days, which resulted in thirty-eight deaths;

- July: Knoxville, Tennessee;

- July: Omaha, Nebraska;

- October: Elaine and Phillips counties, Alabama;

• 1921: In June, sixty blacks and twenty-one whites are killed in an outbreak of racial violence in Tulsa, Oklahoma.

• 1943: About twenty-five blacks and nine whites are killed in racial conflicts over housing and jobs in California before federal troops restore order.

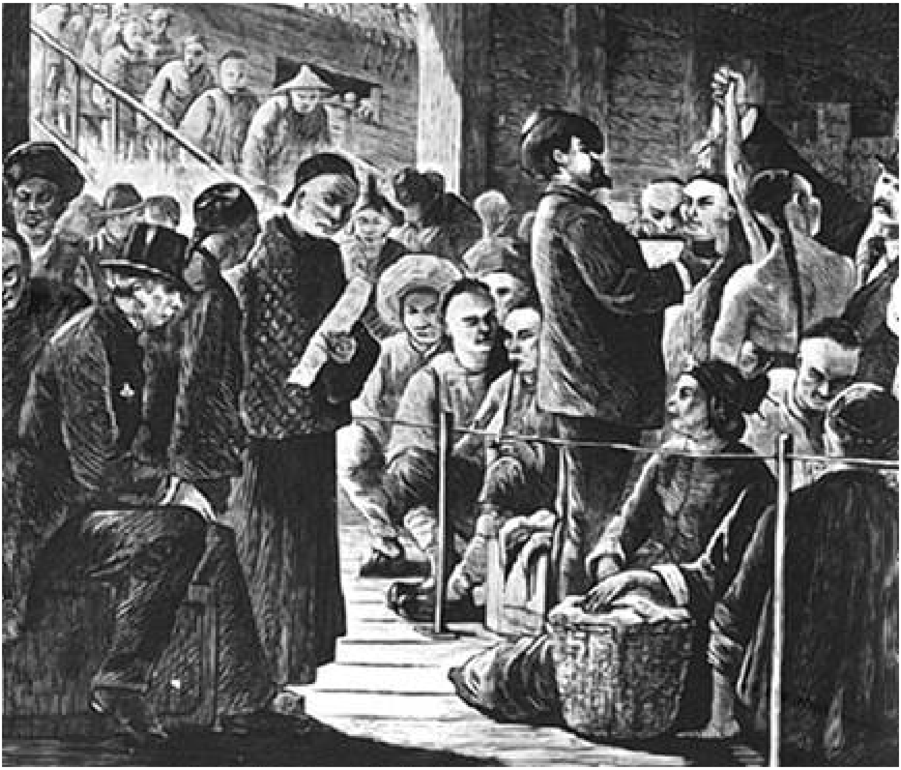
California's Workingmen's Party Forces Halt to Chinese Immigration

Large numbers of Chinese laborers were imported into California during the last quarter of the nineteenth century by railroad-building companies seeking to cut costs. The Chinese laborers worked for considerably less pay than other laborers, and this caused an upsurge in unemployment among the white population.

As a result, white workers were organized under the fiery leadership of Irish-born Denis Kearney in an organization called the Workingmen's Party of California which was formally constituted in 1877. Several racial disturbances took place between whites and Chinese, and support for the Workingmen's Party grew sufficiently large to force the legislature of California to pass a law which imposed restrictions on Chinese immigration.

In 1880, the US Congress passed a law which limited Chinese immigration into America, and then in 1882, approved a second law which banned all Chinese immigration for ten years.

CHINESE IMMIGRATION HALTED AFTER PROTESTS IN CALIFORNIA



Chinese immigrants to America at the San Francisco Customs House, 1875. Asian laborers entered California after the 1849 Gold Rush. Their numbers had increased by 1880 to the point that significant opposition to their presence developed. Agitation by the Workingmen's Party of David Kearny led to the state legislature passing the Exclusion Act of 1882, which barred further Asian immigration into California for ten years. This law was made permanent in 1892.

Japanese Object to Lack of Segregation

Japanese immigrants had also been lured to California by the offer of labor on the railroads, but their innate sense of racial pride created an unexpected problem for the state authorities: they objected to not being segregated from other Asians. The first sign of trouble in this regard came when the San Francisco Board of Education announced that as from 1906, Japanese and Korean students would have to attend an already established Chinese school.

The Japanese government lodged an official complaint that their citizens had been forced to go to school with Chinese and Koreans, and the incident took on such proportions that it eventually landed on the desk of President Theodore Roosevelt.

After discussions at the highest level between Japan and America, the president persuaded the San Francisco Board of Education to reverse their decision. In exchange, the Japanese government entered into an unwritten “gentleman’s agreement” which had the effect of halting further Japanese immigration.

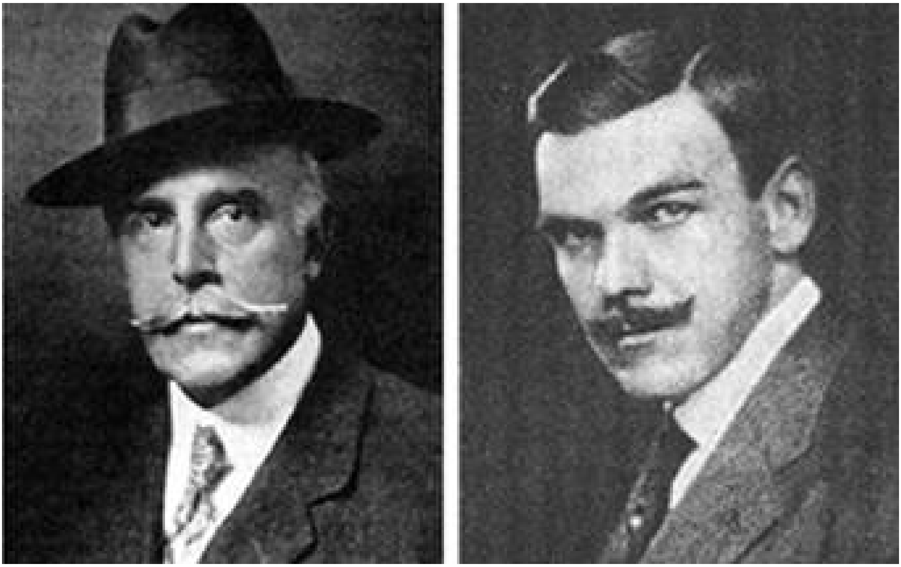
In 1913, the California legislature passed the Webb-Haney Act, also known as the Alien Land Law, in terms of which “all aliens ineligible for citizenship” were denied the right to acquire land or long leaseholds on property. This prevented all Asian immigrants from acquiring property. The Japanese government protested this law as well, but the US federal government sidestepped the issue by replying that it was unable to interfere with state laws. Finally, a 1924 act passed in California halted Asian immigration entirely.

World’s Leading Racial Theorists Lay Basis for Immigration Act of 1924

America became the world’s center for racial science and thought at the turn of the nineteenth century. The chief racial theorists at the time in America were Madison Grant (1865–1937), who counted among his personal friends at least two American presidents; and T. Lothrop Stoddard (1883–1950). Grant wrote two of the most influential works of American racialism: *The Passing of the Great Race* (1916), and *The Conquest of a Continent* (1933). In these books, Grant expounded on racial anthropology and the need for eugenics, or racial improvement by selective breeding.

In *The Passing of the Great Race,* Grant called for a halt to nonwhite immigration into the United States. The book was an international best seller, being favorably reviewed by *Science,* the journal of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and numerous other equally influential publications. American president Warren G. Harding publicly praised eugenicist Lothrop Stoddard’s book, *The Rising Tide of Color,* at a public speech on October 26, 1922. This was followed the same year by the appointment of one of Grant’s compatriots, Harry Laughlin, as an expert witness on eugenics and racial differences in IQ by the US Congressional Subcommittee on Immigration.

GRANT AND STODDARD—LAY BASIS FOR 1924 IMMIGRATION ACT



Far left: Madison Grant, the author of the two most influential works of early American racialism: The Passing of the Great Race *(1916), and* The Conquest of a Continent *(1933). Grant was personal friends with at least two American presidents and helped shape American immigration policies in the early part of the twentieth century. Above right: T. Lothrop Stoddard, the leading American eugenicist who, along with Madison Grant, laid the intellectual foundation for the 1924 Immigration Act, which limited Jewish and Southern European immigration into America. Stoddard's most famous work was called* The Rising Tide of Color against White World Supremacy *(1920).*

Twenty-Four US States Implement Sterilization Laws

Grant and Stoddard's works sparked a wave of research into race in America. By 1921, at least eight other major works had been published. All were overnight successes which proposed eugenics and a ban on nonwhite immigration.

This outpouring of scientific thought had an effect on American politics: by the mid-1920s, twenty-four states had passed laws encouraging sterilization of those who were retarded, insane, or had criminal records.

1924 Immigration Law Caps Jewish and Southern European Immigration

A huge wave of immigrants to the United States occurred between the 1840s and the 1920s. During this era, approximately 37 million immigrants arrived in America. US Census Bureau figures show that about 6 million Germans, 4.5 million Irish, 4.75 million Italians, 4.2 million British, 4.1 million Austro–Hungarians, 2.3 million Scandinavians, and 3.3 million Russians and Balts entered America.

From 1880 onward, millions of people from Eastern and Southern Europe joined the flood of immigrants who entered America. This included millions of Eastern European Jews and Southern Europeans, who were of different stock from the original settlers in America who had all come from northwestern Europe. This influx greatly alarmed people such as Grant, Stoddard, and Laughlin, who used their considerable influence to pressure the US Congress into passing America's first major immigration law.

The resultant Immigration Act of 1924, also known as the Johnson–Reed Act, limited the annual number of immigrants who could be admitted from any country to 2 percent of the number of people from that country who were already living in the United States in 1890. This had the practical effect of limiting to a trickle those immigrants not from northwestern Europe.

For example, from 1900 to 1924, at least 200,000 Italians entered the United States each year. The 1924 Act halted this influx and set an annual quota for Italians at less than 3,845. This contrasted with the number of immigrants allowed in from Germany (51,227), Britain (34,007), Ireland (28,567), and Sweden (9,561).

After World War II, the US Congress passed laws allowing those who had been persecuted under the Nazi occupation of Europe free entry into America. At least 500,000 Jews and others streamed in under the Displaced Persons Acts of 1948 and 1950 and the Refugee Relief Act of 1953. The "Asiatic Barred Zone" regulations were lifted by the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952. The latter law specifically allowed immigration from every country in the world.

Two out of Three World Eugenics Conferences Held in New York

Madison Grant, the acknowledged originator of the 1924 immigration law, went on to set up the American Eugenics Society along with Harry Laughlin, the US Congress's eugenics advisor. This organization acted as the American host for two of the three World Eugenics Congresses held from 1912 to 1932.

The first World Eugenics Congress was held in London in 1912, where one of its sponsors was Winston Churchill. The British prime minister of the time, Arthur Balfour, delivered the inaugural address.

The second World Eugenics Congress was held at the American Museum of Natural History in New York in 1921, and attracted more than three hundred delegates from all over the world. Germany, then still ostracized after the First World War, did not send delegates. Nonetheless, the guest list was impressive and included future American President Herbert Hoover, and the scientific genius Alexander Graham Bell—who was also the eugenics congress's honorary president—among many others. The third World Eugenics Congress was held at the American Museum of Natural History in New York in 1932. Prominent attendees included Dr. J. Harvey-Kellogg (from Kellogg's cereals) and Leonard Darwin, son of Charles Darwin.

The Suppression of American Eugenics

Grant's second major work, *The Conquest of a Continent,* appeared in 1933. The book detailed the racial makeup of the United States and warned that racial integration would cause America to disappear. The book, published by the well-known Scribner and Sons publishing house, became the focus of a boycott organized mainly by the Jewish Anti-Defamation League. This occurred despite Grant making no specific remarks about Jews in the book. By this time, however, the Nazi Party had won power in Germany, and the American racialist movement was held responsible for preparing the scientific background to their racial policies. The propaganda mills were turned against Grant as much as they were turned against the Nazis.

In addition, the Jewish anthropologist, Franz Boaz, launched a well-supported campaign against eugenics and racial thought. Although much of Boaz's work was later exposed as a hoax (for example, his claims that skull shapes of immigrants to America changed after a generation or two was an outright lie), his influence set the tone for much present-day sociological teachings.

The media's propaganda, which linked Grant's work to the Nazis, scared prominent public figures away from supporting eugenics in America. As a result, eugenics was successfully suppressed in America by the end of the Second World War.

CHAPTER 54: Immigration and Racial Change—the Story of Canada

The story of Canada is a salutary lesson in the power of immigration as a means for racial demographic change. The Indian tribes, scattered in small numbers over the vast northern territories, put up only sporadic resistance to the European settlers, and were eventually overwhelmed by numbers rather than by military conquest.

Vikings—First White Settlements

The first European-origin whites to set foot in present-day Canada were the Vikings, who established a settlement under Leif Ericson in Newfoundland. According to the thirteenth century prose histories known as *The Sagas of Icelanders,* Ericson established a settlement at L'Anse aux Meadows, which the Vikings called Vinland.

Leif's expedition set out from the Viking colony in Greenland around the year 1002, and first reached land which was later identified as being Baffin Island in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago.

Leif sailed on and the next land which he sighted contained beaches and woods which the Vikings dubbed Markland (or "Woodland"). This was later identified as Labrador. Finally the Vikings stopped at L'Anse aux Meadows where they built a small settlement. The Vikings only stayed there a little more than a year, after spending winter in the new lands.

VINLAND—VIKING SETTLEMENT IN CANADA, FIVE HUNDRED YEARS BEFORE COLUMBUS

A reconstruction of a Viking dwelling at L'Anse aux Meadows on the northernmost tip of the island of Newfoundland. The site was discovered in 1960 by a Norwegian explorer, Dr. Helge Ingstad. It had at least eight buildings, including a forge and smelter, and a lumberyard that supported a shipyard. Viking accounts stated that the colony consisted of 135 men and 15 women, and was started around 950 AD.

The Search for the Northwest Passage

Newfoundland would only be rediscovered in 1497 by the explorer John Cabot, a Venetian in the service of England. Cabot sailed west across the Atlantic Ocean in one of the many attempts to find a sea route to the Far East.

Cabot's expedition was followed in 1576 by Sir Martin Frobisher, an English privateer who took part in the efforts to find the elusive "Northwest Passage." This was a sea route across northern Canada from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean which would make the crossing to the Far East easier. Frobisher rediscovered Baffin Island, and discovered Resolution Island.

In 1585, the English explorer John Davis launched another expedition to find the Northwest Passage. Although he too was unsuccessful in this aim, he explored much of northern Canada. The Davis Strait, which lies in the Labrador Sea, was named after him

In 1610, another famous English explorer, Henry Hudson, sailed in search of the Northwest Passage. Instead of finding the elusive passage to India, Hudson discovered a large bay in northeastern Canada which was later named Hudson Bay in his honor.

His ship, the *Discovery,* became trapped in ice and the crew were forced to live ashore in freezing conditions for the winter.

When the ice thawed, Hudson wished to continue exploring the area, but his crew mutinied and set him, his son, and a handful of loyal crew members adrift in a small boat. They were never seen again. In 1612, the English explorer Sir Thomas Button was sent to try and rescue Hudson.

He failed in this mission, but the expedition confirmed that there was no western exit to Hudson Bay and that it offered no access to the sought-after Northwest Passage.

Further Explorations and First Settlement

In 1534, King Francis I of France dispatched the explorer Jacques Cartier on a mission to seek the Northwest Passage. Cartier sailed past Newfoundland and discovered what is now known as the Gulf of Saint Lawrence.

Cartier launched a further three voyages to Canada but all failed to find a northern route around the Americas. However, on one of his voyages, in 1535, Cartier explored the Saint Lawrence River as far as the site of the present-day city of Montreal and spent the winter at the site of the present-day city of Quebec.

During the sixteenth century, a number of attempts were made to establish settlements along the Canadian coast. Most failed due to the harsh winters, but one that did, at St. John’s Harbour in Newfoundland, was formally annexed by Sir Humphrey Gilbert as England’s first overseas colony under a Royal Charter issued by Queen Elizabeth I. The settlement, which is today the capital of the province of Newfoundland, bears the distinction of being one of the oldest English cities in North America and also the officially recognized first overseas possession of Britain, and thus the beginning of the British Empire.

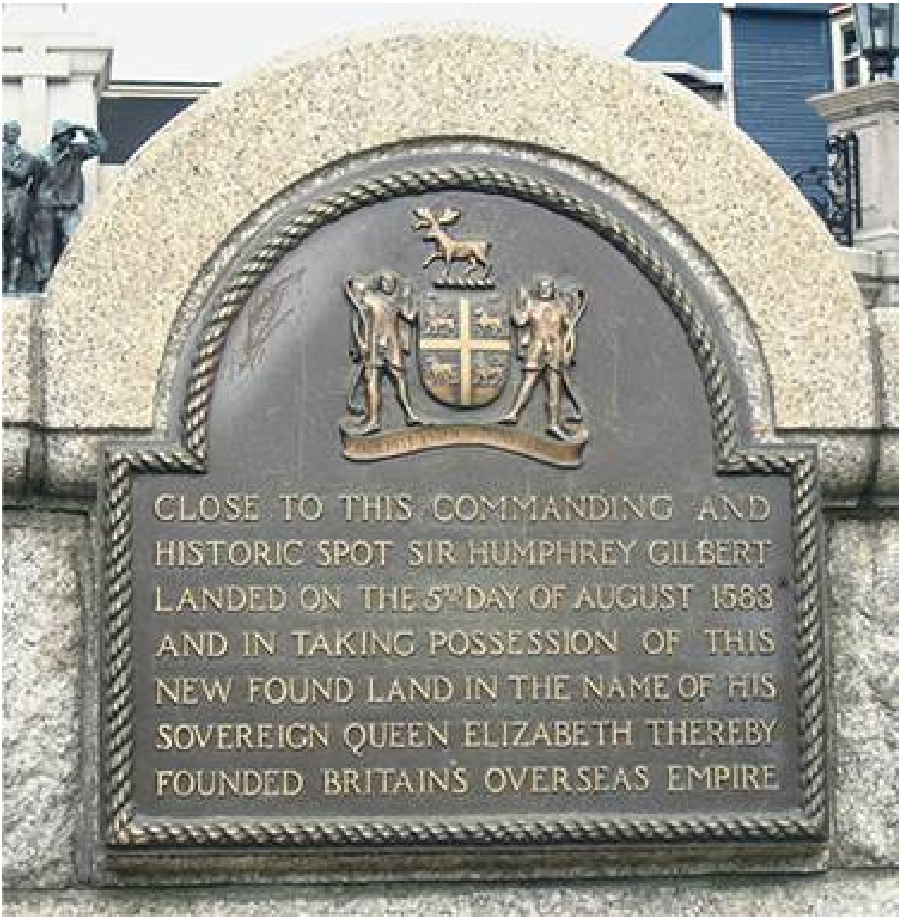
First Amerind Trade Contacts

Permanent English settlements sprang up around Newfoundland’s Avalon Peninsula during the 1600s, and French settlements were founded on the south coast of that landmass. This led to the first commercial contacts with the Indians in Canada.

There was initially little conflict between the European settlers and the Indians as contact was limited to mutually beneficial trading.

The Indians provided animal furs and the Europeans provided all manner of metal goods, clothes, and other items previously unknown to the inhabitants of the New World.

ST. JOHN'S HARBOR—BRITISH OVERSEAS EMPIRE ESTABLISHED



CLOSE TO THIS COMMANDING AND
HISTORIC SPOT SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT
LANDED ON THE 5TH DAY OF AUGUST 1583
AND IN TAKING POSSESSION OF THIS
NEW FOUND LAND IN THE NAME OF HIS
SOVEREIGN QUEEN ELIZABETH THEREBY
FOUNDED BRITAIN'S OVERSEAS EMPIRE

Although not the oldest British settlement in North America, St. John's Harbor in Newfoundland can rightly claim to be the oldest to hold city status. It was seized in the name of Queen Elizabeth I in 1583 by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and thereby became the first official overseas possession of the British Empire. This present-day plaque in downtown St. John's marks the event.

French and British Compete for Supremacy

The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries saw France and Britain compete for supremacy in Canada. The French claimed the territory which encompassed the St. Lawrence River basin, Acadia (now the Maritime Provinces), the island of Newfoundland, and later, Louisiana (along the Mississippi River valley, right down to the Gulf of Mexico). This huge area was named "New France."

Relatively few French actually settled in this vast territory, and the Indians continued undisturbed, trading with the scattered French outposts. In 1604, Pierre du Guast founded a French fur trade-based commercial colony in Acadia. The colony struggled to establish itself and, in the first year, more than half of the settlers died.

In 1608, the French explorer Samuel de Champlain founded a settlement at Quebec on the Saint Lawrence River. This town became the primary magnet for further French settlement at the expense of the other regions, and this was the origin of the Quebecois.

French Launch the Company of One Hundred Associates

The French government established a huge commercial enterprise, the Company of One Hundred Associates, in 1627. This company had the sole purpose of exploiting the trade potential of New France. Under its direction, settlements increased in number, with the most notable new town being Montreal, which was founded in 1642.

The Company of One Hundred Associates entered into a formal alliance with a number of the Indian tribes, then known as the Huron confederacy. This arrangement worked well for trade purposes until the Hurons were defeated in an inter-Amerind war which involved the Iroquois tribe in 1649.

That conflict devastated New France's fur trade, and bands of Indians threatened the settlements of Montreal and Quebec. The danger was so great that for a time, the Company of One Hundred Associates considered abandoning New France altogether. Part of the problem was the tiny number of white settlers in the vast region. In 1663, for example, a census showed that New France had only three thousand white settlers.

The French government decided that the situation was too grave to be left in the hands of a private company, and in 1663, ordered the Company of One Hundred Associates to be disbanded and New France to be formally reorganized as a province of France and ruled directly by a Governor-General in Quebec. This reorganization succeeded in stabilizing the colony, and settler numbers began to grow once again.

French Fight First Race War in Canada

The constitutional change in New France's status marked a sea change in the racial demographics of the colony. A French military force of 1,200 soldiers arrived in 1665 to put an end to the Iroquois threat and launched the first racial war in the territory. The French military easily defeated the Iroquois in a series of engagements, and the Indians were forced to lay down their arms.

About four hundred of the French soldiers decided to stay and join the colonists. The French government formally sponsored more immigration, including, for the first time, some seven hundred unmarried white women. The policy worked, and by 1681 there were at least ten thousand white settlers in New France.

This number reached eighteen thousand by 1713, forty thousand by 1737, and fifty-five thousand by 1755. The reason for the relatively slow white population growth was twofold.

Firstly, the Indians did most of the animal catching which drove the fur trade. As a result, there was no demand for large numbers of white settlers to work the land, as there had been in the United States of America. Secondly, there was a large miscegenation rate among the frontiersmen.

Miscegenation Creates the Métis

Increased French governmental control, particularly in the issuing of fur trading licenses, led a number of young Frenchmen to spend more and more time away from the main settlements. It is estimated that by 1680, as many as 10 percent of all French men in New France lived outside the settlements and most had taken Indian wives. Their mixed-race descendants became known as the Métis (French for "mixed") group which is still officially classed as a native people by the present-day Canadian government.

Rivalry between British and the French over the Fur Trade

The dissolution of the Company of One Hundred Associates was followed in 1664 by the creation of a new French venture known as the Company of the West Indies. Like its predecessor, the Company of the West Indies was formed to engage in the fur trade.

As a result of this and other measures, further French immigration was encouraged, and by 1682, explorers, traders, and missionaries had penetrated south to the Gulf of Mexico. The British, however, established a rival venture in 1670 called the Hudson's Bay Company, which was given a monopoly to trade in the Hudson Bay area. This brought the British into conflict with the French settlers which ultimately led to the outbreak of four conflicts known as the French and Indian Wars.

The French and Indian Wars 1689–1763

The French and Indian Wars were a series of four conflicts in Canada whose main combatants were Britain and her allied Indian tribes, against France and her allied Indian tribes. The wars often overlapped with wars fought in Europe at the same time, and as a result, sometimes the British were ranged against Spanish and Dutch forces as well.

The first phase of these conflicts was known as King William's War and saw the British allied with the Iroquois Indians, who had long been hostile to the French. Troops from these two groups attacked French settlements along the Saint Lawrence River between 1689 and 1697. After ten years the conflict descended into inconclusive guerrilla warfare and the warring sides agreed to end hostilities. The treaty which ended the war was called the Peace of Ryswick. Signed in 1697, the treaty recognized each participant's territorial claims as they existed before the start of the conflict without any changes.

In 1702, the second of the French and Indian wars broke out. Known as Queen Anne's War, this conflict was part of the war of the Spanish succession fought in Europe at the same time. The conflict ended disastrously for France and, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, France was forced to cede Newfoundland and Acadia to Britain.

In 1744, the third of the French and Indian wars, known as King George's War, broke out between Britain and France as part of the European conflict called the War of the Austrian Succession. The French were the first to start hostilities in North America and, together with their Indian allies, the Mi'kmaq and Maliseet Indians, attacked the British stronghold of Fort Anne. The able British defense defeated the attack and the tables were turned when the French fort on Cape Breton Island, Louisbourg, was captured by British forces.

Undeterred, the French and Indian forces attacked the British settlement at Saratoga in New York. During this raid, more than one hundred of Saratoga's inhabitants were killed, an event which provoked widespread panic in upper New York. The war was ended by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, in terms of which the settlement of Louisbourg was returned to France. In return, the French handed back the city of Madras in India, which had been seized from the

British during the conflict.

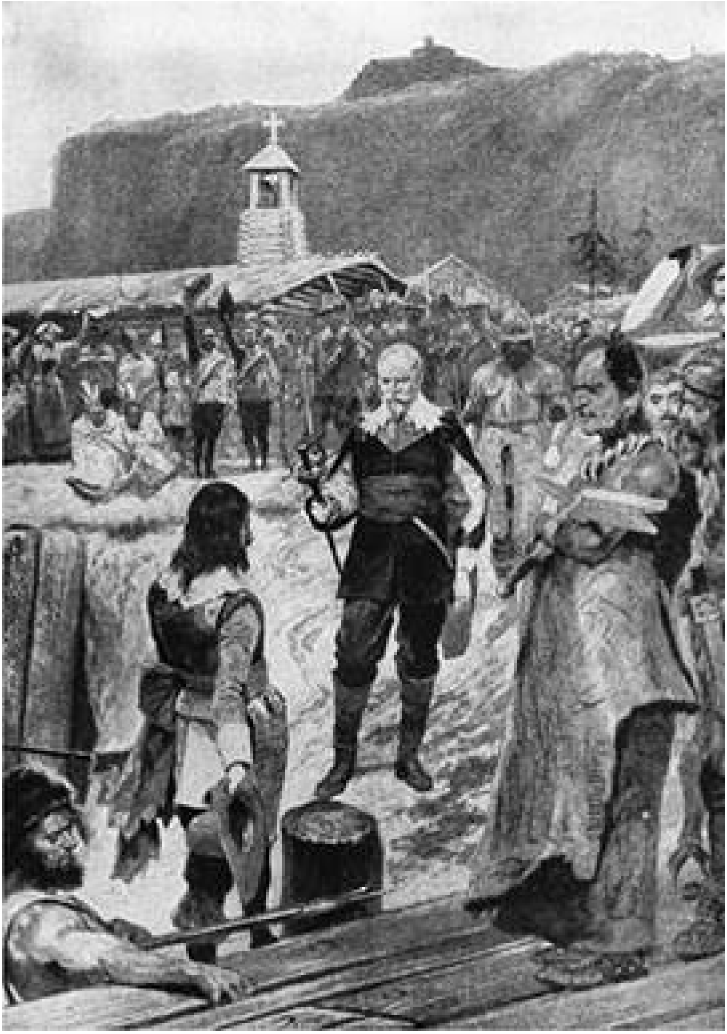
In 1754, the fourth French and Indian war broke out. This war escalated into another global conflict in 1756, known as the Seven Years' War in Europe. By 1755, British forces had seized Nova Scotia and the entire one hundred-year-old French colony of Acadia.

The seven thousand French inhabitants of Acadia were scattered to the four winds. Some went back to France while others retreated into the interior. Still more migrated south along the Mississippi River into present-day Louisiana, where their descendants became known as Cajuns. In 1764, the British allowed the Acadians to return, and several thousand took up the offer. The British did not, however, have everything their own way in the fourth war.

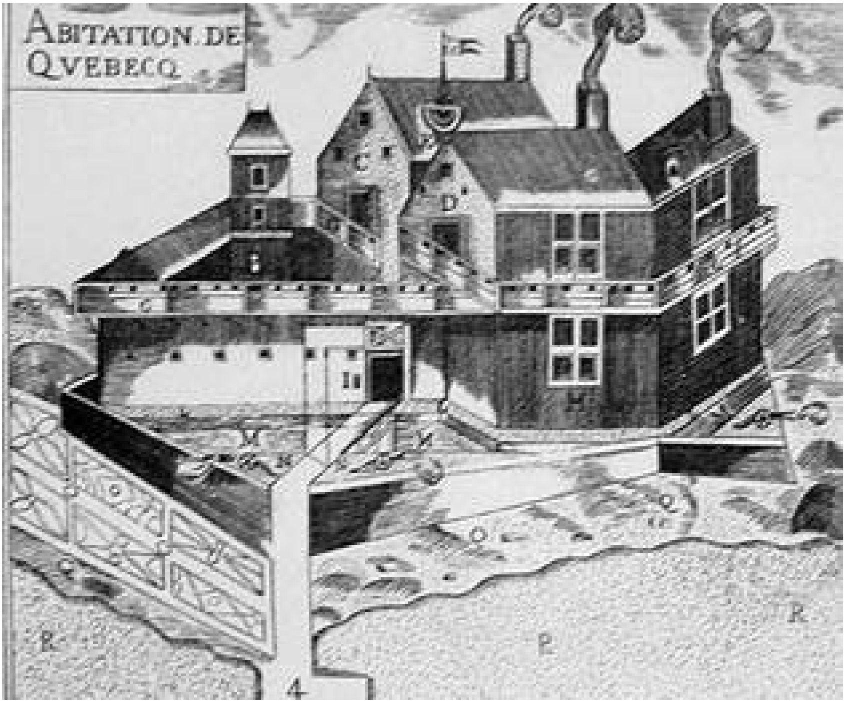
Through a series of alliances with the Indians and skillful defense tactics, the French forces of only a few thousand men forced Britain to deploy an army of over twenty thousand before all the French settlements were overrun. In 1759, Quebec was taken by the British in a determined amphibious assault, and Montreal fell the next year. By 1760, Britain had established her supremacy over Canada, and the French were never again to be a factor in that land. France formally ceded all her possessions in Canada to Britain in terms of the Treaty of Paris, signed in 1763.

This placed sixty-five thousand Frenchmen under British rule and doubled the size of the British possession in North America.

BRITISH SEIZE QUEBEC FROM THE FRENCH



Above: The French founder of the settlement of Quebec, Samuel de Champlain, surrenders the colony to the British admiral, David Kirke, in 1629. Although later returned to France, the seizure of Quebec marked the first British claim on French territory in Canada. Champlain was allied to local Indian tribes, hence their presence at the surrender. Below, Champlain's sketch of the first building in Quebec, the fort and residence below Cap-aux-Diamants (now the Lower Town of Quebec).



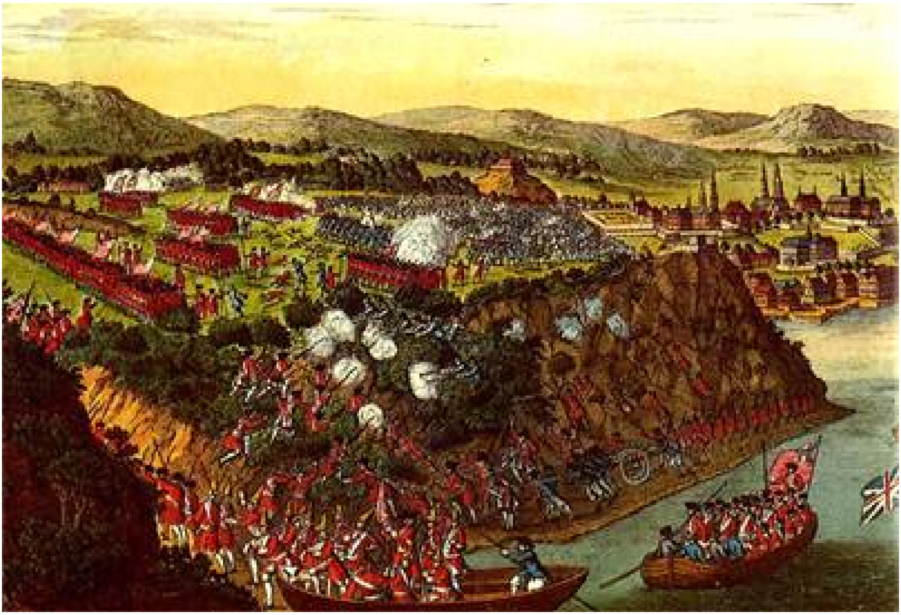
Race Wars with Amerinds Continue

The end of the French colonies in Canada did not mean the end of Indian resistance to white encroachment. In 1763, Indian forces attacked the western outposts of the former territory of New France, where British troops had recently replaced the French garrisons.

The Indians realized that the new British overlords were fully intent on properly colonizing the territory for white settlement, unlike the French. As a result, the British forces found themselves plunged into a localized race war which erupted from Canada into the central territories of New France (the present-day American Midwest).

The British king George III tried to pacify the Indians with a royal proclamation in 1763 which recognized Amerind sovereignty. The proclamation also undertook to consult with the Indian tribes before allowing white settlers to occupy any new lands, and set aside the land between the Appalachian Mountains and the Mississippi River, including Canada outside the lower Saint Lawrence Valley, as an Indian reserve.

BATTLE OF QUEBEC ASSURES BRITISH ASCENDANCY IN CANADA
1759



Britain established its ascendancy over Canada with the Battle of Quebec in June 1759. The conflict, a highlight of the French and Indian Wars, saw an eight thousand-strong combined force of British and American colonists attack the French-controlled city. The French had been expecting attacks from Lake Ontario in the west and Lake Champlain in the south, so the assault via the Saint Lawrence River took them by surprise. The attack was even more daring as the British forces scaled a cliff to launch their assault at the least expected point. A sentry challenged the boats, but failed to take action when he was answered by a British officer in French. By dawn, some 4,500 British and American troops were assembled on the cliff top and the battle was joined. It ended in a French defeat and the surrender of Quebec on September 18, 1759. This marked the end of French rule in Canada.

New White Immigration—Irish and English Settlers

In response to the Indian threat, the British government encouraged a new wave of white immigration to boost the European population. A large Irish and English settlement was established in Newfoundland and the capital of Nova Scotia, Halifax, became the site of the first newspaper in Canada in 1752 and of the first elected assembly in 1758.

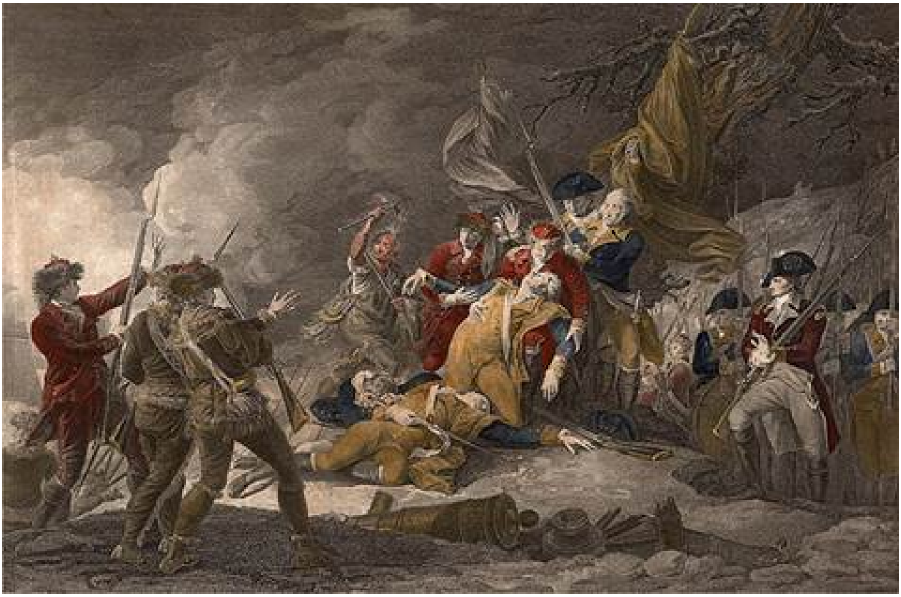
By 1775, the European population of the British colony in Canada stood at 90,000. Fifteen years later it had increased to over 191,000. By 1806 it had reached just under 400,000 and fifty years later, in 1861, the total population was estimated at 3.1 million.

Americans Invade in 1775

The American colonists rebelled against British rule just fifteen years after the French had been driven out of Canada. It seemed logical to the American forces to drive the British out of Canada as well, and as a result they launched an invasion in 1775. American militia occupied Nova Scotia, Montreal, and Quebec but found little support among the local population who remained fiercely loyal to the British Crown.

The American forces were forced to retreat by a determined British counterattack the next year, and for the rest of the American Revolutionary War, Canada served as a safe base from which the British were able to launch assaults on the rebel colonies.

AMERICAN ATTACK ON QUEBEC DEFEATED 1775



The Americans invaded Canada at the outset of the War of Independence, hoping to gain support from the French-speaking population and any English-speaking anti-royalists. Their appeals for support fell on barren ground as most inhabitants of Canada remained loyal to the Crown. An American army under General Richard Montgomery laid siege to Quebec but was decisively defeated on December 31, 1775. General Montgomery was killed, while his colleague (and later traitor to the American cause), Benedict Arnold, was wounded. More than four hundred Americans were taken prisoner.

As a result, when the Americans finally won their independence, Canada remained under British control, and North America was effectively divided into two. The population of Canada was boosted by an influx of around forty thousand loyalists who fled from the newly-independent American states. Of this number, fully a third were black slaves who had joined the British cause against the colonists.

This was the start of the black population of Canada. In addition, those Indians who had allied themselves with the British against the victorious rebel colonialists also chose to flee to Canada.

The influx of loyalists upset the delicate balance which had been achieved between the French community in Quebec and the British authorities. That territory had to be divided into a French and English region, a move which laid the foundation for a French-speaking separatist movement which persisted for longer than two centuries.

The influx of refugees also tripled the population of Nova Scotia, and two new administrative regions were created to cope with the influx: New Brunswick and Cape Breton Island.

Exploration Opens New Territories

Present-day British Columbia was explored and claimed for Britain by captains James Cook (1778) and George Vancouver (1792), but exploration of the western regions of Canada continued throughout the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries. In 1789, Scottish-born explorer Alexander Mackenzie followed a river deep inland in the hope of finding the Northwest Passage, but found it led to the Arctic Ocean instead. He named the waterway Disappointment River as a result, but it was later renamed the Mackenzie River in his honor.

Undeterred, he set out once again in 1792 along the Peace River and reached the Pacific Ocean in 1793, becoming the first recorded white man to cross America north of Mexico.

American-born explorer Simon Fraser explored the river now named after him in present-day British Columbia in 1808, while English-born explorer David Thompson followed the Columbia River to its mouth in 1811 and mapped over 1.5 million square miles of territory. European control of the vast interior of Canada was slowly being consolidated from coast to coast.

WAGON TRAILS ACROSS CANADA

In the pre-railway days of the settlement of Canada, wagon trains such as these were the only way in which large numbers of whites could reach the interior. This scene would be repeated until the west coast of Canada had been reached, which had the effect of squeezing the Amerinds out of possession of the land.

The War of 1812—Washington DC Sacked and Burned

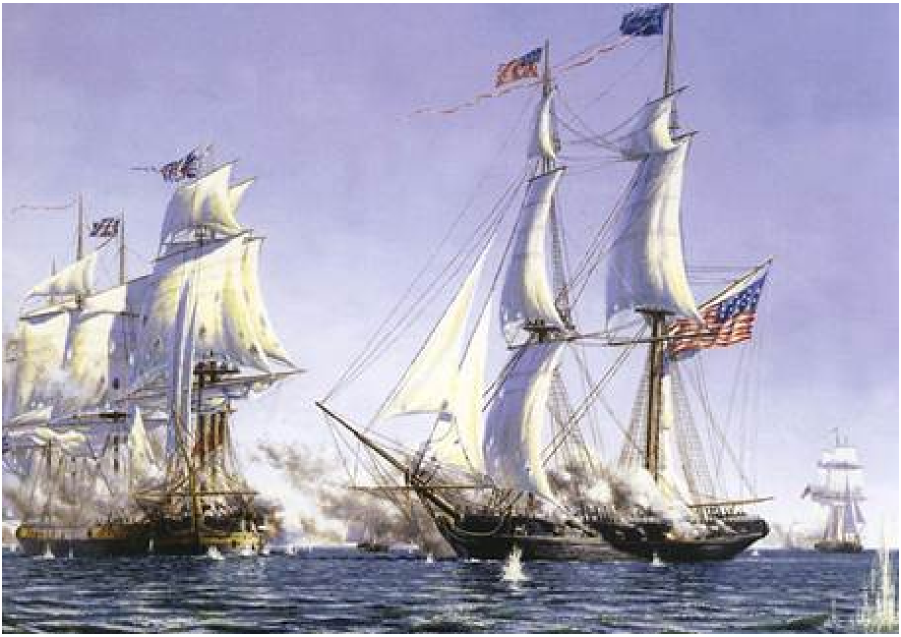
The outbreak of the War of 1812 between the United States and Britain saw American troops cross the border for the second time in less than forty years. This time, however, the British forces and their allies, Canadian militia and the Shawnee Indians (who the Americans had correctly accused the British of arming), were waiting.

The American forces were soundly defeated and, within a few months, the British general, Isaac Brock, captured the city of Detroit and brought the war south into America. A desperate counterattack by the Americans failed to capture Montreal, and the British forces won significant victories at the battles of Crysler's Farm and Chateauguay. Another American force landed at the settlement of York (today known as Toronto) in April 1813 and captured the town. The American soldiers then looted and burned the town, an act which was to set a precedent which the British soon followed.

The British also seized control of Lake Erie early in the war. The Americans rushed through a ship-building project and by July 1813 had built six vessels for use on the lake to counter the significant British naval presence.

The Battle of Lake Erie, also known as the Battle of Put-in-Bay, between the American and British fleets, took place on September 10, 1813, and resulted in a decisive American victory. This allowed the Americans to retake Detroit.

BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE—NAVAL BATTLE OF WAR OF 1812



The Battle of Lake Erie, fought on September 10, 1813, was the largest naval engagement of the War of 1812. The Americans built a fleet of vessels especially for the Great Lakes to combat a British invasion from Canada. The battle resulted in a British defeat and allowed the Americans to regain the initiative in the war. Shortly after the battle, the Americans recaptured Detroit and defeated the Indian confederation of Tecumseh.

The end of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe freed up large numbers of British troops who were redeployed in Canada. Reinforced, the British launched a new offensive, and a dual attack on Baltimore and Washington DC saw the Americans soundly defeated at the Battle of Bladensburg, Maryland, in August 1814.

The British troops then occupied Washington DC and burned the city’s public buildings in retaliation for the sacking of York.

By 1815, the two sides had reached a stalemate, and with enthusiasm for the war rapidly abating on both home fronts, a peace was declared in terms of which the prewar borders were restored.

One Million New Settlers Drive Development of Western Territories

After the War of 1812, westward expansion in Canada continued apace. This process was boosted by a one million-strong wave of settlers from England, Scotland, and Ireland. By 1843, the town of Fort Victoria (now the capital of British Columbia) was established on the Pacific Coast. The town was renamed Victoria and is today the capital city of British Columbia.

The discovery of gold in the Fraser River brought new settlers to the Canadian Pacific coast, and in 1858, the colony of British Columbia was formally established. The Fraser River Gold Rush also attracted a number of Chinese immigrants, starting a trend which would only increase.

The Colonist Rebellions of 1837

Although the Canadian colonists had remained loyal to Britain during the American War of Independence, they were not blind to the increased freedoms won by the rebels south of the border. As a result, demands for greater self-governance were put to the British authorities with increasing frequency during the first part of the nineteenth century.

The French-speaking inhabitants of Quebec, who had existed uneasily with the British from the time of the collapse of France’s colony, demanded complete democratic reform. When this was denied, they broke out in open armed rebellion in 1837 in a short conflict known as the Patriots’ War. The rebels defeated a British force at Saint-Denis, but two weeks later the rebellion was crushed at the Battle of Saint-Eustache, in which several hundred were killed on both sides. Unrest flared up again a year later, but this was also suppressed by British force of arms.

The colonist rebellions were not confined to French-speaking parts of Canada. A tiny rebel force under the leadership of William Lyon Mackenzie tried to seize Toronto in December 1837, but they too were driven off by loyalist citizens. Mackenzie and his supporters fled to the United States, where they were granted sanctuary.

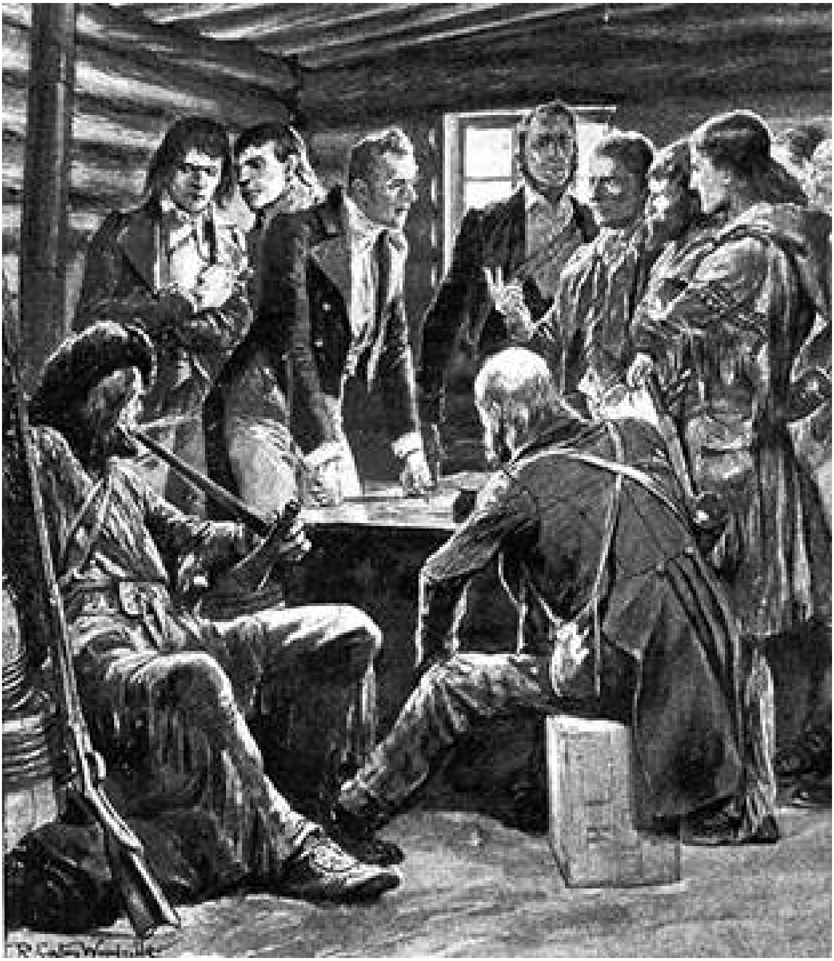
The Union Period 1841–1867

Even though the 1837 rebellion was unsuccessful, the message was clear: reforms were needed to prevent a recurrence. As a result, constitutional changes were implemented, and by 1841, an Act of

Union formally created the province of Canada out of two of the territories formerly known as Upper and Lower Canada, which were respectively English and French dominated.

The Union government was given jurisdiction on all matters except foreign affairs and defense. The new constitution also stipulated that all men could vote provided they held fixed property to a predetermined value, one of the broadest electoral franchises in existence at the time.

FIRST COUNCIL OF SETTLERS ESTABLISHED 1835



Sir George Simpson (1787–1860), a Scots-Quebecer governor of the Hudson's Bay Company, established one of the first Council of Settlers in Canada in 1835. Simpson is rightly considered to be one of the shapers of modern Canada, and the establishment of British Columbia was contemporary with his administration. In recognition of his tireless work *with the Hudson's Bay Company, Simpson was knighted by Queen Victoria in 1841.*

Confederate Support during American Civil War

Relations between Canada and the United States deteriorated during the American Civil War (1861–1865) because the British openly sympathized with the rebellious Confederates.

The extent of Canadian sympathy for the Confederacy was shown in 1864 when Confederate soldiers used Canada as a base for a raid on Saint Albans in Vermont. Although they were arrested in Canada, the Confederates were set free by a Montreal magistrate, an act which engendered a rash of bitter recriminations between Washington and Toronto.

Formal Union Established in 1864

The threat of yet another conflict with the US prompted the various territories making up British North America to seriously consider a more formal union than that created by the 1841 law.

As a result, representatives from all the regions met in Charlottetown on Prince Edward Island in September 1864 to discuss what form a closer union should take. The meeting, known as the Charlottetown Conference, decided on a confederal form of government. A second meeting of the delegates held in Quebec in October approved a number of points (called the Seventy-two Resolutions), which became the draft constitution.

Confederation did not confer full independence, as many Canadians still were fearful of further American invasions and wished to keep British interests intact to ward off the threat. As a result, Britain retained control of foreign affairs and could theoretically veto any Canadian laws. This arrangement became the norm upon which many of the semi-autonomous "dominions" of the British Commonwealth were built.

THE FOUNDING OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA

An 1864 photograph of the first meeting of the founding fathers of Canada, taken in Charlottetown. The gathering, known as the Great Coalition, thrashed out a confederal system of government which was implemented on July 1, 1867. This created the Dominion of Canada, also known as the "Canadian Confederation." By 1880, Canada included all of its present area except for Newfoundland and Labrador, which joined in 1949.

Independence Gained in 1931

The Canadian Act of Confederation was ratified in July 1867, from which date the country came to be called the Dominion of Canada. Britain withdrew its last garrisons from Canada in 1871 and full independence was granted to the Canadians in 1931, although the British monarchy is still the titular and symbolic head of state.

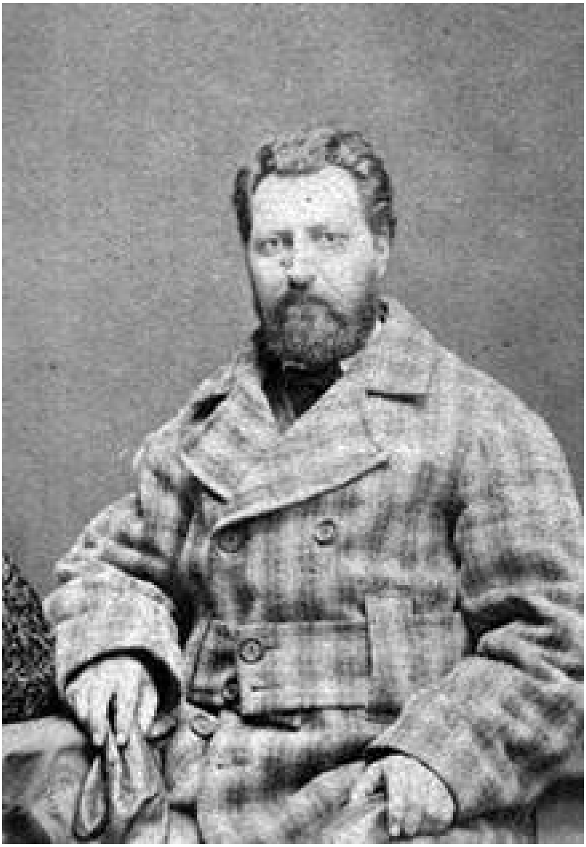
British Columbia joined the Confederation in 1871 and other territories were added piecemeal to the Canadian landscape for the next eighty years. The last additions were made in 1949, when the territories of Newfoundland and Labrador were incorporated.

Territorial Expansion Sparks Red River Rebellion

The Hudson's Bay Company sold the territory known as Rupert's Land (which consisted of much of the present-day Northern Territories) to the Canadian government in 1869. This transaction caused great consternation among the mixed-race Métis, who were concerned that a new wave of white immigration would follow.

The Métis were concentrated in the area around the Red River Settlement in what is now the Canadian province of Manitoba. There, the Métis leader, Louis Riel, and his followers decided to resist the annexation of Rupert's Land by force of arms if necessary.

MÉTIS LEADER JACQUES RIEL



Jacques Riel, leader of the mixed-race Métis. After being defeated in the Red River Rebellion of 1869, Riel took refuge in the United States of America. He took up arms for the Métis cause in 1885, but after several months fighting, was captured and executed by the Canadian authorities. His physical appearance, as deduced from this photograph, would tend to indicate that the amount of Indian blood absorbed by his ancestors was minimal.

The Métis declared a provisional government in the territory and prevented a Canadian government surveying delegation from entering their jurisdiction, which they called Assiniboia, after an Indian tribe. The Métis also seized the trading post of Fort Garry and prepared for a direct military confrontation with the Canadian authorities. The Canadian government defused the situation through negotiations and an offer of amalgamation into the confederation as the province of Manitoba. The offer, which was accepted in 1870, included the reservation of 1.4 million acres of land for the Métis.

However, as the Métis had feared, waves of white immigrants did follow the creation of Manitoba. The Métis soon became the minority and many migrated farther west to the Saskatchewan River valley. The province of Manitoba grew in size and significance, and its capital city, Winnipeg, had a population of 1.1 million in 2006. Of that number, less than 15 percent were Indian or Métis.

Second Métis Uprising—The 1885 Northwest Rebellion

A second Métis rising, the Northwest Rebellion, flared up in 1885 in the Saskatchewan Valley as white settlers poured into this area as well. The uprising was supported by a number of pure blood Cree Indians who also opposed European settlement of their lands.

This time there were no negotiations as the uprising moved straight to military confrontation. The Métis and Cree forces achieved some minor gains but were crushed when the Canadian government rushed troops into the area. The uprising was decisively defeated at the Siege of Batoche in May 1885. The rebel Métis leader Riel was captured and hanged for treason in November of that year.

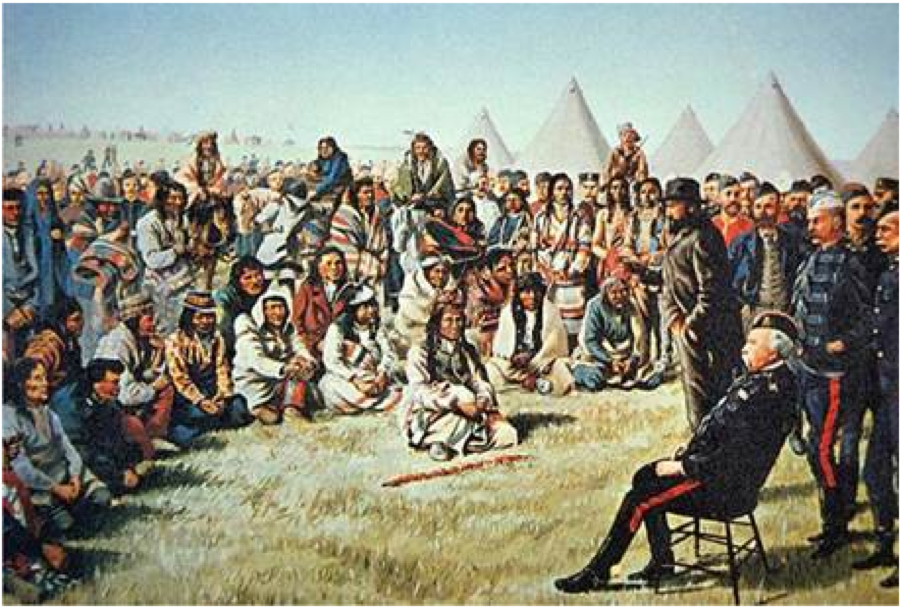
Canadian Amerinds Overrun by Immigration

In 1873, Canada created the Northwest Mounted Police, now the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, or Mounties, to administer the territories and keep order. Part of the Mounties' Charter was to negotiate treaties with the Indian tribes with the intention of opening the interior to agriculture, or in other words, white settlement.

Eleven treaties were duly signed with the Indian tribes between 1850 and 1929 which opened their lands to white settlement. The treaties provided material compensation for the land transfers and provided for the establishment of new Indian reserves.

By 1901, Canada's Indian population was barely 2 percent of the population, or some 100,000 individuals. These figures serve as a stark lesson of how quickly a race can be dispossessed of its land by the forces of immigration alone.

NORTHWEST REBELLION ENDS IN INDIAN SURRENDER 1885



Amerind Cree Chief Poundmaker (seated in the center), surrenders to Major General F.D. Middleton at the end of the unsuccessful Northwest Rebellion of 1885. This uprising was an attempt by the mixed-race Métis and pureblood Indians to secure their independence from the Dominion of Canada. During the rebellion, Poundmaker's followers laid siege to Fort Battleford, Saskatchewan, and forced a Canadian relief column to retreat after the Battle of Cut Knife Hill. Poundmaker was convicted of treason in 1885 and sentenced to three years in prison, but was released after a year.

The Chinese Head Tax

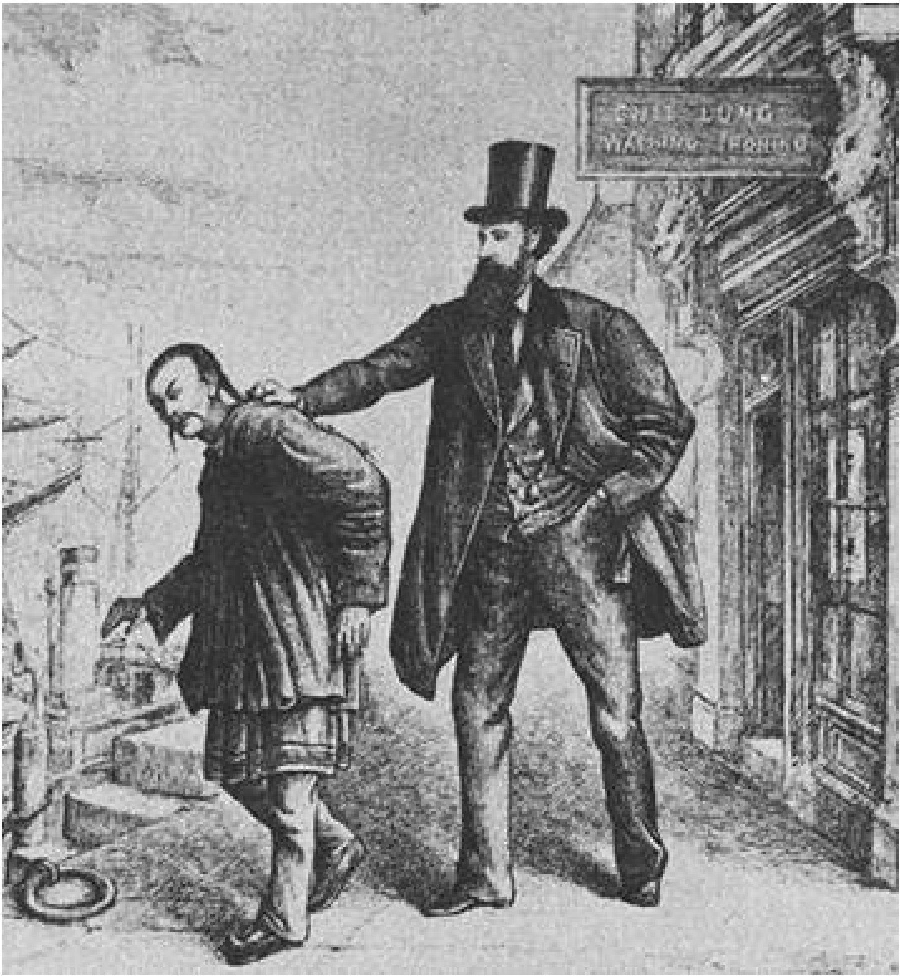
The construction of the first railroad to the Pacific coast in Canada from 1881 to 1885 by the Canadian Pacific Railway resulted in the further importation of thousands of Chinese laborers. Many stayed on in Canada once the line had been completed, adding to the already growing Chinese population on the West Coast.

Alarmed at the growth in the Chinese population, the Canadian parliament passed the Chinese Immigration Act of 1885 which imposed a "head tax" of fifty dollars per person on all Chinese people who entered the country. In 1900, this levy was increased to one hundred dollars per head, and in 1903 to five hundred dollars.

Despite these measures, Chinese immigration still continued, and in 1923, the Canadian authorities passed the Chinese Immigration Act, also known as the Chinese Exclusion Act which completely banned all Chinese immigration. This law remained in force until

1947, when it was finally revoked. Chinese and Japanese people were given citizenship and voting rights in Canada in 1949.

CHINESE IMMIGRATION OPPOSED BY BRITISH COLUMBIA PRIME MINISTER 1874



An illustration from the Standard *newspaper, a journal started by William Alexander Smith, better known as Amor de Cosmos, a Canadian Member of Parliament and Prime Minister of the province of British Columbia (1872–1874). This cartoon, titled, "Coolies, go home!" accurately summed up the attitude of the vast majority of Canadian whites toward Chinese immigration at the time. The Canadian government introduced a number of measures to keep the Chinese out, including a head tax and finally a complete abolition on all Asian immigration. That law was only repealed in 1947.*

The Klondike Gold Rush 1898

The 1898 discovery of gold in the Klondike region of Yukon Territory caused a new rush of fortune seekers to descend upon the region. This in turn created a new wave of prosperity for Canada, which increased industrialization and served as a new driver for yet more immigration. Within the first ten years of the twentieth century, another one million immigrants flooded into Canada. Most came from Britain, but an increasing number came from Eastern Europe.

Of the latter group, a significant minority were European Jews who settled into the trades in the large cities. The majority of the new white immigrants, however, settled the open prairies and started farming. Their efforts played a major role in the establishment of the states of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905.

Canadian Sacrifice in World War I

As Britain retained control over Canada's foreign affairs, the outbreak of the First World War meant that Canada was automatically involved in the war on the Allied side. Canada provided half a million men to fight in France (a significant number when it is considered that the total population of Canada at the time was just under eight million).

Canadian soldiers were the first Allied troops to suffer a poison gas attack at Ieper in Belgium. This single battle saw six thousand Canadian casualties. In total, some sixty thousand Canadians were killed in the course of the war.

The sacrifice did not go unrewarded. In 1926, the British parliament formally acknowledged the equality of the Dominions with Great Britain, and in 1931, the Statute of Westminster confirmed that Canada was a sovereign state which shared a common monarch with Great Britain.

The Great Depression Halts Immigration

The Great Depression of the late 1920s and early 1930s saw unemployment in Canada rise to over 33 percent of the workforce and the gross national product drop by 40 percent. The crisis forced the Canadian government into ordering a halt on all immigration and the deportation of all non-Canadians who claimed social welfare. The Canadian economy did not recover properly until the late 1930s, by which time the world was plunged into yet another war.

World War II—Internment of the Japanese

The outbreak of World War II saw Canada once again enter a conflict because of its link to Britain. The Canadian navy participated in the shipping wars of the North Atlantic against German submarines, and Canadian pilots flew in the Battle of Britain and the later bombing raids over Germany.

Canadian soldiers took part in many of the war's most notable events, including the disastrous Dieppe Raid in August 1942, the invasion of Sicily and Italy in 1943, the D-Day landings in France in 1944, and the liberation of the Low Countries in 1944 and 1945. The war took some 42,500 Canadian lives.

The entry of Japan into the war in 1941 caused the Canadian authorities to view the twenty-three thousand Japanese people in Canada with suspicion. Steps were taken to intern them all, as had already happened in the United States. This process was accelerated on the West Coast after a Japanese submarine bombarded a Canadian coastal installation. In addition, the Canadian government seized their property and put it up for auction.

More was to come: in April 1945, all Japanese nationals in British Columbia were told that they would either have to move east of the Rocky Mountains or be repatriated to Japan at the end of the war. The repatriation program started in May 1946 and eventually some four thousand Japanese were deported back to their native country. Larger numbers chose to move to Toronto rather than return home.

Postwar Immigration Boom

The end of the Second World War saw large-scale immigration from Europe to Canada resume once again. Many Germans entered Canada at this time, fleeing their now shattered homeland. The waves of new immigrants brought with them a baby boom which saw Canada's population jump from twelve million to eighteen million between 1946 and 1961.

In 1946, Canada became the first of the dominions to create its own nationality laws with the passing of the Canadian Citizenship Act in that year. The law stated that in order to acquire Canadian citizenship, an applicant had to be a British subject, an Indian or Eskimo, or had been admitted to Canada as a landed immigrant before the law's start date.

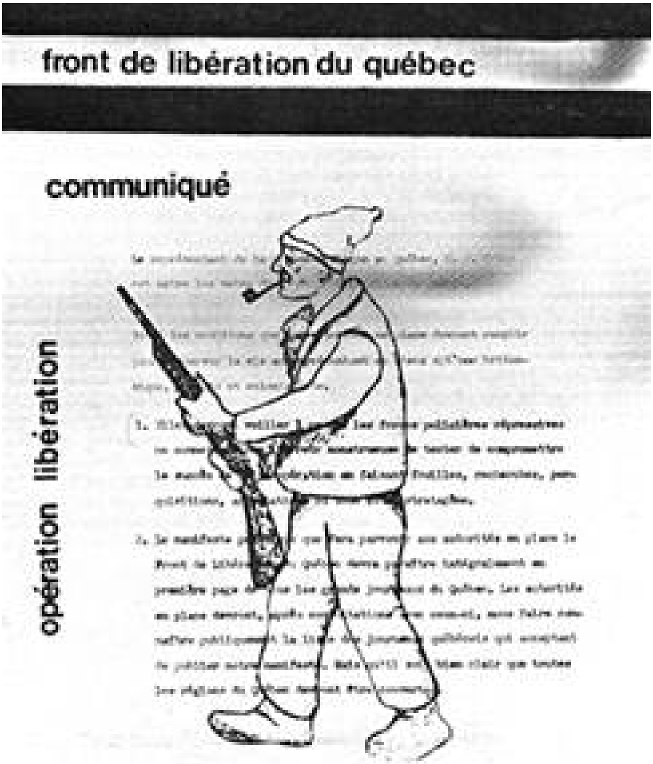
This meant that any person holding British citizenship, either in Britain or in any other dominion, could automatically acquire

Canadian nationality, a stipulation which further cemented the bonds between Canada and Britain.

The postwar years also saw Canada emerge as a world power. Canada was one of the founding members of the United Nations in 1945, and also of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in 1949.

Canadian troops were deployed in the Korean War (1950–1953), and in 1950, the government began a program of foreign aid to nonwhite countries, even those which were considerably older, independent nations, such as Haiti.

QUEBEC SEPARATISTS RESORT TO VIOLENCE 1970



front de libération du québec

communiqué

opération libération

Canada was plunged into a bout of domestic terrorism in 1970 when militants from the Quebec separatist Front de libération du Québec *launched a violent campaign for independence. Despite gaining much popular support, the Quebec separatists never achieved a majority support base, and the influx of Third World immigrants into Quebec, which started during the last part of the twentieth century, has made a Quebec separatist victory even more unlikely. Above: an underground 1970s leaflet issued by the militants.*

Quebec Separatists Emerge

The decades following the end of the Second World War saw the reemergence of the French separatist movement in Quebec. The Canadian government attempted to diffuse the situation by a number of compromise measures, most of which entailed the province of Quebec staying in the union but acquiring special status. These proposals were rejected and, by 1970, the main Quebec separatist movement, the *Parti Québécois* (PQ), had won nearly a quarter of the votes in its home province.

At the same time, radical separatists formed the *Front de libération du Québec* (Front for the Liberation of Quebec, or FLQ) and waged a mostly unsuccessful guerrilla war against the Canadian authorities. In 1976, the PQ was elected as the provincial government of Quebec and after introducing pro-French language measures, called a referendum on whether to proceed with further separatist actions. The PQ proposal for separatism was defeated by a 60 percent no vote.

The separatists did not give up, and in 1995, organized a second referendum on the topic. That time the no vote won by less than 1 percent of the vote, polling 50.4 percent against the yes vote total of 49.6 percent.

Despite their left-leaning ideology, the Quebec separatists were accused of racism in 1995 when one of their leaders made public note that the increasing number of nonwhite immigrants in Quebec had played an important role in defeating the separatist movement at the polls.

Support for Quebec separatism has declined radically since 1995, caused in no small measure by the Third World immigration against which the PQ warned. Opinion polls conducted at the end of the twentieth century in Quebec revealed that separatist support had declined to less than 20 percent and showed no sign of growing.

Black Immigration into Canada

The French colonial authorities were the first to bring black slaves into Canada from the West Indies in 1689. Slavery was only legal in Upper Canada for another one hundred years, with Nova Scotia being the first colony to abolish the practice in 1787. Ontario abolished slavery in 1783, and by 1800 all of the other British North American colonies had followed suit.

In addition, black males were given the right to vote in British

North America in the year 1837. Despite the apparent freedom offered to blacks in Upper Canada, the provinces of Nova Scotia and Ontario had legally racially-segregated public schools right up to the 1960s.

Nonetheless, the comparative freedoms offered to blacks still made Canada a more attractive refuge than the US, and when British troops burned Washington DC in the War of 1812, many hundreds of black slaves attached themselves to the British column and marched back to Canada.

The Underground Railroad, which provided an escape route for black slaves fleeing the American South, also usually ended in Canada, and the Anti-Slavery Society of Canada reported in 1852 that the "coloured population" stood at some thirty thousand.

By the late nineteenth century, however, official Canadian government policy was reversed, and in 1911, Canadian Prime Minister Sir Wilfrid Laurier enacted a law which prohibited the entry of the "Negro race" into Canada.

The law, promulgated in terms of the 1910 Immigration Act, read as follows: "His Excellency, in Council, in virtue of the provisions of Sub-section c of Section 38 of the Immigration Act, is pleased to Order and it is hereby Ordered as follows: For a period of one year from and after the date hereof the landing in Canada shall be and the same is prohibited of any immigrants belonging to the Negro race, which race is deemed unsuitable to the climate and requirements of Canada."

This law remained in force until 1962, when it was repealed. Black immigration started once again almost immediately upon the revocation of that law, and significant numbers, mainly from the Caribbean, poured into Canada.

By 1971, the Canadian government started funding nonwhite ethnic organizations, festivals, and second language instruction in schools. The increase in black immigration during the last twenty years of the twentieth century, and the early part of the twenty-first, was not accompanied by any rise in that race's social or economic status.

Blacks remain the poorest, most crime-afflicted, and worst-educated of all Canadian nationals. Excuses which blame "white racism" have fallen flat when compared with the achievements of Asian immigrants to Canada, who have generally surpassed blacks in all areas despite suffering historically from the same impediments.

Indian Territorial Claims

The advent of the civil rights era in North America encouraged the Indians in Canada to assert their rights as well. Indians were given official status and protection of their land by the Indian Act of 1876, although they were only granted citizenship of Canada in 1956 and voting rights in 1960.

In 1969, the Canadian government attempted to get the special status of Indians overturned through the abolition of the Indian Act. This would have meant the integration of Indians into the rest of the Canadian population with the status of "ethnic minority" rather than as a distinct nation. It would also have led to the rejection of all aboriginal land claims. The Indians objected to this proposal and it was subsequently dropped, with the result that they still hold special status in Canada, particularly with regard to land claims.

The Canadian government subsequently concluded several treaties with the Indian tribes, all of which involved land transfers. In 1984, the Inuit of the Mackenzie Delta were given title to ninety-three thousand square miles of land, but by far the largest apportionment of land has been the creation of the federal territory of Nunavut.

This state, which is the size of Western Europe, was officially created in April 1999, after protracted negotiations between the Inuit Indians and the Canadian government started a decade earlier. The Inuit gained the right in principle to have a separate territory in terms of the 1993 Nunavut Land Claims Agreement Act and the Nunavut Act.

Although Nunavat is in theory non-discriminatory, in reality it was created with the specific intention of being a racially-based homeland to protect the Inuit people and their culture. In this regard, the Inuits and other Indian tribes of Canada have been given preference over all other ethnic groups in Canada who are all expected to integrate into the rest of society.

Indians Overwhelmed by Immigration

The history of Canada shows that the Indians were not militarily defeated, but squeezed out of possession of their land by massive immigration. The parallels with present-day Canada—and indeed much of the present-day white world—are obvious. Large-scale immigration is just as effective at bringing about demographic racial change as military invasion, and the consequences are the same: the destruction of the original culture and its replacement with that characteristic of the invading group.

The last few decades of the twentieth century saw Canada subjected to massive Third World immigration. The consequences of this process are discussed in the last section of this work.

CHAPTER 55: The White Man's Burden—South Africa

The story of the white settlement of the southernmost part of Africa differed from all the other European colonization experiments in one important way: only in South Africa did whites remain a minority yet settle in sufficient numbers to temporarily create a First World environment.

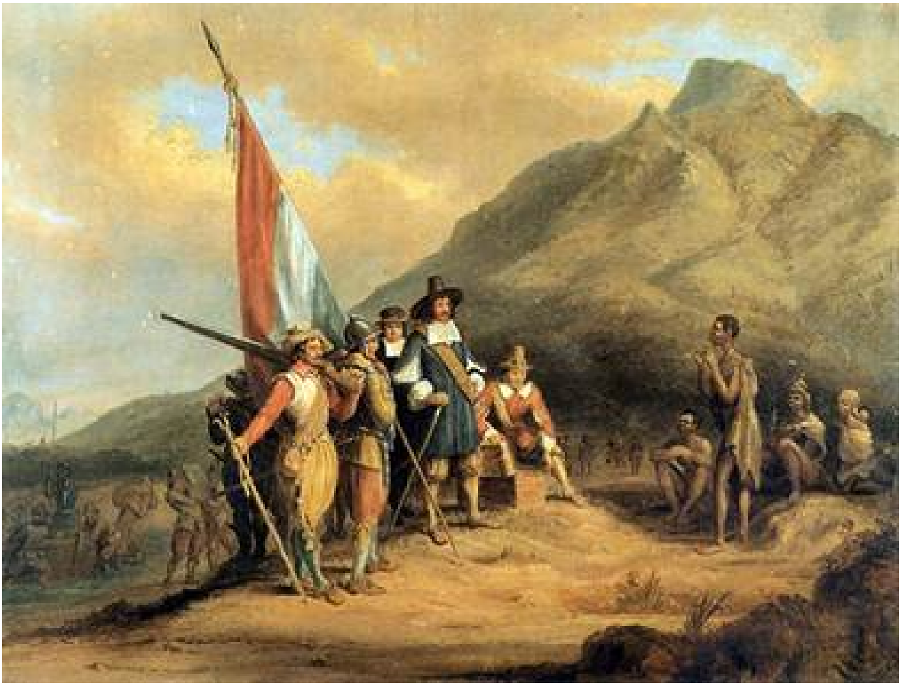
This was however exacted at a huge cost, both from the natives and ultimately, from the white settlers. The history of South Africa serves, therefore, as a valuable lesson in racial dynamics and the interrelatedness of demographics, race, and cultural makeup. It is the most perfect modern example of the unbreakable principle of nature: that a race which makes up the majority population in a territory, ultimately determines the nature of the civilization in that region.

First White Settlement 1652

The first major permanent white settlement in southern Africa was started in 1652, when the Dutch East India Company sent one of its officials, Jan van Riebeeck, to the tip of the continent in what is present-day Cape Town. Van Riebeeck was ordered to build a supply station for ships traveling to and from Asia. A number of the structures he ordered built, including a fort and the first large storage barn, are still in existence in Cape Town.

Van Riebeeck's expedition encountered small groups of Bushmen and Hottentots at the Cape. These were racially distinct from the African tribes, who at that stage were still concentrated on the east coast and more than one thousand miles from the Cape.

FIRST WHITE SETTLEMENT APRIL 1652



Dutch settlement leader Jan van Riebeeck (1619–1677) lands at the southernmost point of Africa in April 1652. Shown here are some local Hottentots, the only nonwhites present at the time. The blacks were still nearly one thousand miles from the Cape of Good Hope, where Van Riebeeck was tasked with building a halfway supply station for ships on their way to the Far East. During the time he was governor (1652–1662), Van Riebeeck built a fort, dredged a part of the bay for use as a harbour, and supplied fruit, vegetables, and meat to passing ships. A series of clashes with the local nonwhites forced Van Riebeeck to plant a huge almond hedge as a barrier between the Europeans and the Hottentots.

The First White Farmers

By 1657 it became evident that the Dutch East India Company's farming efforts were inadequate to supply both passing ships and the growing white settlement. A small number of Company employees were released from their contracts and allocated land which they worked as independent farmers. These first white farmers in South Africa were called *burgers,* the Dutch word for "citizens," to which the word "free" was added as a sign that they were no longer employees of the Company.

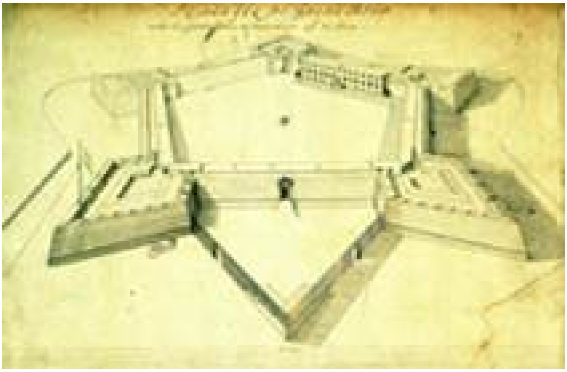
Between 1680 and 1700, the Dutch encouraged white immigration in ever-increasing numbers to bolster the settlement. Their own nationals were joined by groups of Germans and French, the latter being Protestant Huguenots who escaped Catholic persecution. The demand for labor caused by the expanding farming settlements was met by the importation of slaves from the Dutch colony in Malaysia and by small numbers of black slaves brought in from the then still-unexplored interior.

Bushmen Immigrate North

Relations between the settlers and the Bushmen were rocky. Large numbers of the natives died from European-borne diseases to which they had no resistance, and the rapidly-growing numbers of white settlers quickly took up much of the land around the Cape. As the Hottentots and Bushmen were nomads with no concept of land title, there was no specific “homeland” which the Europeans took away, but as their farms spread, the space in which the natives could roam was steadily decreased.

The settlers also suffered greatly from stock theft and other petty crimes committed by the natives. A series of very one-sided clashes took place and the Bushmen migrated north to get away from the European settlement. They settled in what later became South West Africa, today called Namibia, where their descendants still live.

CAPE TOWN CASTLE—OLDEST BUILDING IN SOUTH AFRICA



The castle at Cape Town, on the southern tip of Africa, is the oldest building in South Africa. First erected by Jan van Riebeeck in 1652, it was rebuilt in stone in 1666, and has remained largely unchanged from that time. Above: A sketch from the original Dutch design, and below, a photograph shows the fort in 2010, over three hundred years later. The castle never saw military action, despite being built specifically for that purpose.

Mixed Marriages Prohibited 1685

The Dutch East India Company issued written instructions to its governor at the Cape, Simon van der Stel, to prevent all racial mixing and intermarriage. This order was given formal status in 1685, the same year that the first whites-only school was established for the colonists' children.

The Dutch had good cause to be concerned over the frequency of racial mixing. Despite the prohibition, mixing between the Malays, the remainder of the Hottentots, blacks, and a number of whites produced a mixed-race group which became known as the "Cape Coloreds." This group grew in number until they surpassed the white population, and some were so "white-looking" that they were ultimately classified as such by the later white governments.

The growth in the number of African-born white settlers created the genesis of a new cultural identity, as was the case in the Americas and elsewhere. Dutch, German, French, and even Scandinavian elements joined together and became known as "Boers," the Dutch word for "farmer." The Boers who moved into the interior became isolated from changes at the Cape, and continued to speak a form of old Dutch, which later was transformed into the language of Afrikaans.

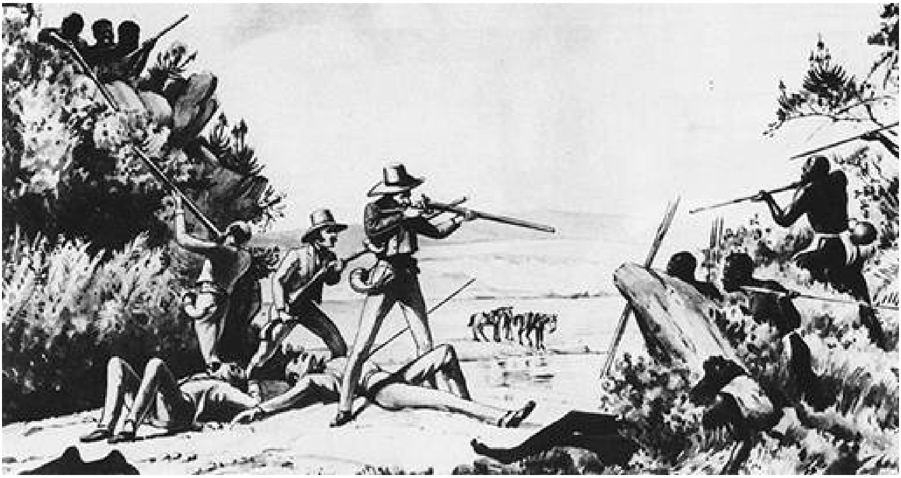
First Encounter with Blacks—Nine "Kaffir Wars" Erupt

The Boers pushed eastward along the coast in their ever-growing quest for new farmland, and eventually encountered the first major black tribe, the Xhosa, in the region now known as the Eastern Cape, some eight hundred miles from Cape Town. The distance involved and the time it took for this first meeting to occur—nearly 120 years—serves to underline the fact that large parts of southern Africa were uninhabited at the time of the first European settlement at the Cape.

The Xhosa tribe was migrating south at the time, and after the two races met in the Eastern Cape, both migrations came to an end along the Fish River. Both sides were dissatisfied with the other's presence, and nine border wars between the races, known as the "Kaffir Wars," broke out between 1781 and 1857.

(Although the term "kaffir" has taken on a racially derogatory meaning, at the time of the colonial era, it had no racial meaning at all. The word is of Arabic Muslim origin, *khufr,* and in fact means non-Muslim, or infidel, and was thus applied to any race. The Europeans adopted it to refer to the black's paganism, and only later was a racial meaning given to the word.)

"KAFFIR WARS" ERUPT ON BORDER



A scene from the 1835 "Kaffir War," one of a series of conflicts which erupted after the white migration which traveled northeast from Cape Town came to a halt when it encountered the southward migration of the black Xhosa tribe. The ongoing wars persuaded many white settlers to leave for the interior where they hoped life would be more peaceful.

The Kaffir Wars ended after the Xhosas foolishly believed one of their witchdoctors who told them that if they killed all their cattle, their ancestors would rise from the dead and drive the whites into the sea. In February 1857, the Xhosas killed their cattle but waited in vain for the promised ancestor uprising. After several weeks, Xhosa power had been destroyed by a combination of starvation and disillusionment.

The British Occupy the Cape Colony

The advent of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe saw the British seize the Cape from the Dutch out of fear that they would turn it over to the French. As a result, British troops landed for the first time in 1795, although they left during a short period of peace in Europe. A new outbreak of war with France saw the British return to the Cape in 1806, after which their occupation became permanent.

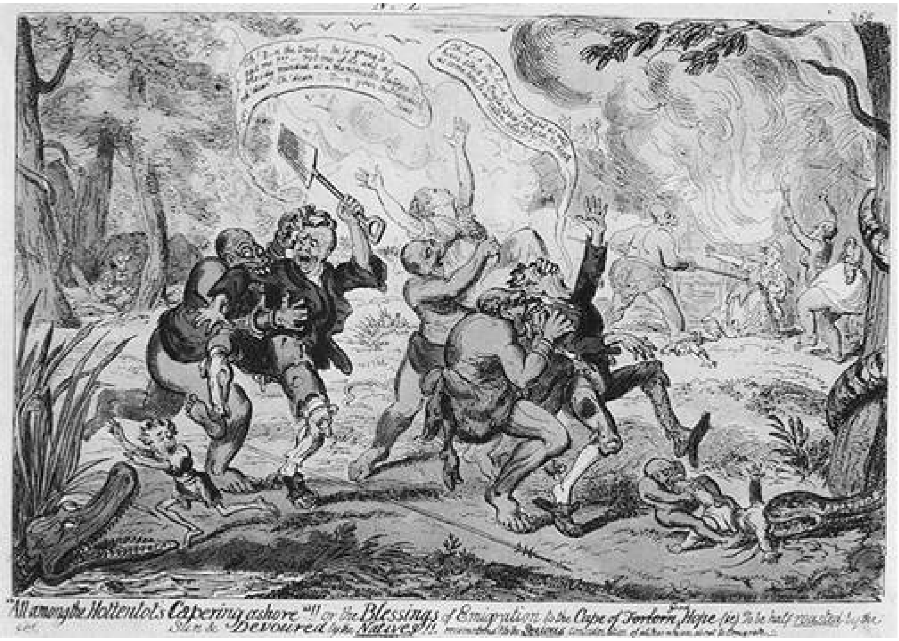
At the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Britain formally purchased the Cape from the Dutch for six million pounds. At this stage (1806), the Cape Colony had a white population of twenty-six thousand, a slave population of some thirty thousand, and an estimated Cape Colored population of twenty thousand.

Mass British Settlement 1820

In 1820 the British settled over three thousand volunteer colonists, with government aid, in the Eastern Cape to strengthen the white population in the face of the then ongoing Kaffir Wars. This influx boosted the white population along the border area by 12 percent, and also caused an Anglicization which antagonized the Dutch-speaking Boer population. The Anglicization policy soon became official. In 1822, English became the sole official language. All laws and official business was conducted in English, which put the Boers at a disadvantage in commercial and social environments.

The British administration also passed labor laws in 1822 which for the first time included the Cape Colored population, and went on to abolish slavery in 1833. The British government offered a compensation payout to the former slave owners, but the money had to be collected in London, making any payment impossible. All these measures served to sow discord between the British government and the Boers and set the background for the next 150 years of white history in South Africa.

DANGERS FACED BY WHITE SETTLERS THE SUBJECT OF SATIRE IN BRITISH MEDIA


"All among the Hottentots Capering ashore"!! or the Blessings of Emigration to the Cape of Forlorn Hope

The dangers of settling in southern Africa in the early 1800s were so well known that they became the subject of satire, as illustrated in this cartoon which appeared in a London journal in 1820. This was the same year that thousands of British settlers went to the Eastern Cape. Although cartoonish in character, virtually all of the incidents depicted here actually happened —and many worse incidents took place as well.

The "Great Trek" Starts 1836

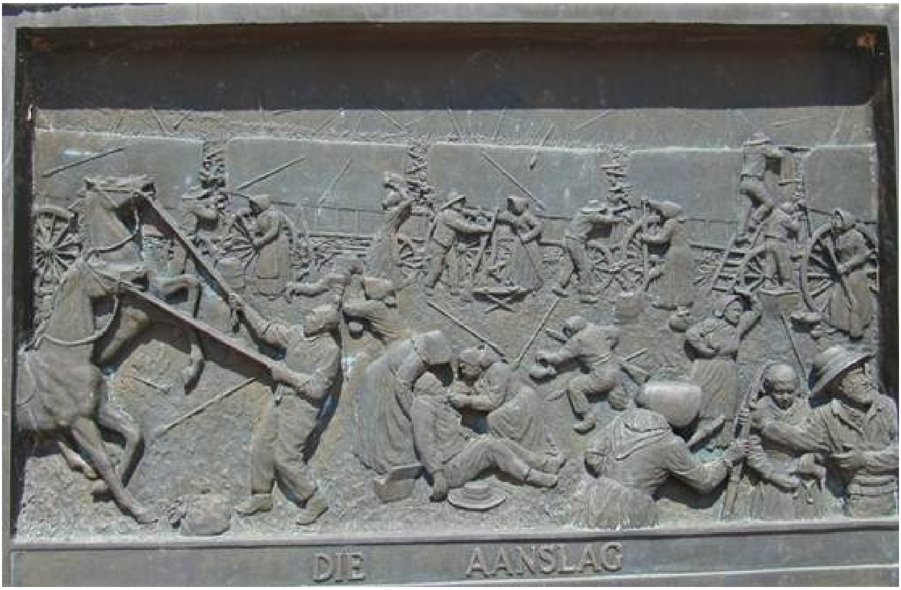
Faced with increasing Anglicization and the seemingly endless wars with the Xhosa, some Boers along the eastern border took the momentous decision to leave for the interior where they believed they would be free of both these impediments and also independent of all foreign governments.

In 1836, the first of some fifteen thousand Boer families packed their goods into canvas-covered wagons and set off for the interior. This movement, known as the Great Trek, was the catalyst which definitively created the identity of the people who won world fame as "Afrikaners," although then they were more commonly called Trek Boers.

The trepidations suffered by the Boers on the Great Trek easily rivals that of the great Western Trails across America. The Trekkers had to cross the highest mountain range in southern Africa, called the Drakensberg (or the Dragon Mountains, a well-deserved name) in their wagons and, to their disappointment, were faced with black tribes equally, if not more, hostile than the Xhosas.

The dangers of the Great Trek were highlighted by the fact that the first two exploratory expeditions ended in failure. The first was wiped out in a clash with blacks in the present-day far north of South Africa, while the second barely survived similar attacks only to be decimated by malaria.

VEGKOP—MATABELE DEFEATED 1836



The Battle of Vegkop in 1836, at which a hundred Voortrekkers were attacked by thousands of Matabele tribesmen, ended in a decisive defeat for the natives. The Matabele were driven over the Limpopo River into what is today the country of Zimbabwe, where they remained ever since. This picture is interesting from another perspective: on the far left, a black servant is visible. From the very beginning, the Boers kept large numbers of black servants to do all the manual labor, and it was this reliance on nonwhite labor which ultimately led to the downfall of white South Africa.

The First Boer Republics—Winburg and Potchefstroom

At first, the trekkers migrated north and crossed over the Orange River into what later became known as the Orange Free State. There they found the land mostly uninhabited as it had been cleared of its sparse population by an inter-black war known as the *Difaqane.* This conflict had been caused by a series of raids organized by a Zulu tribe who later took on the name of their greatest chief, Mzlikazi, or

Moselekatse, and are today known as the Matebele.

Matebele raiding parties detected the presence of the Trek Boers and attacked a Trekker settlement without warning in 1836 at a place called Vegkop ("fighting hill").

The Matebele were decisively defeated and fled north across the Limpopo River. There they settled in the country now known as Zimbabwe, where they are one of the two major tribes.

The Trekkers founded the town of Winburg (literally, "Winning Town") in 1837 to commemorate their victory and declared themselves independent, using the town's name as the title of their country. The Trekkers elected a representative parliament and a "Commandant General" by the name of Piet Retief.

To the north of the Republic of Winburg, another group of Trekkers established in 1838 a second state which they called the Republic of Potchefstroom, named after a town which they had founded. The Republic of Potchefstroom elected the Trekker leader Andries Potgieter as its head of state.

These two republics merged to become the Winburg–Potchefstroom Republic, but Trekker unity was short-lived. Arguments over the future direction of the Trek flared up, and Retief decided to lead his followers east over the Drakensberg Mountains to establish a new state of their own. The only problem with his plan was that on the other side of the mountains was the heartland of the Zulu tribe.

Retief Murdered by the Zulus

Retief decided to try and negotiate with the Zulu king, Dingaan, for a piece of territory which had few Zulus living in it. He left the majority of his trek party encamped by the Blaukraans River and took a seventy-strong delegation to meet with the Zulu king at his major settlement, Umgungundlovu.

The negotiations appeared to be successful, and in return for the recapture of some cattle stolen by another chief, Dingaan agreed to give the Boers land. Retief appeared to have been successful, but he and his party were ambushed by Zulus at a celebration hosted by Dingaan and cruelly killed on February 6, 1837.

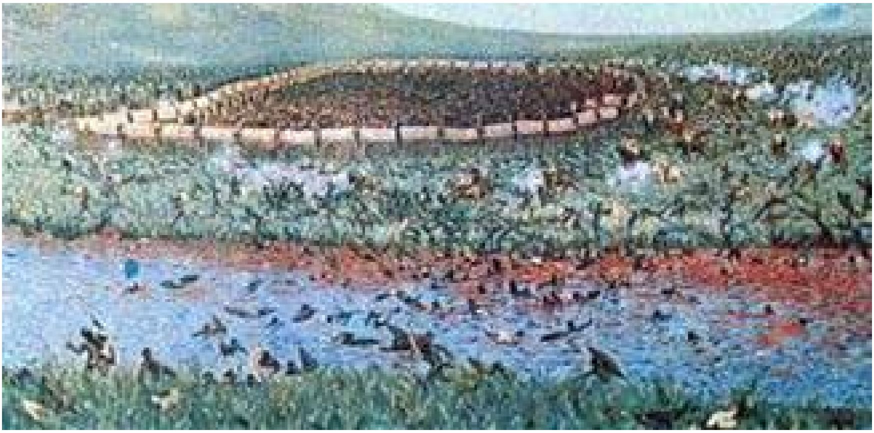
News of the betrayal and murders did not reach the remainder of Retief's Trek party, and they were attacked by a ten thousand-strong Zulu force ten days later.

Some 300 whites were killed in the attack, including 41 men, 56 women, and 185 children. This figure, when added to the seventy men killed with Retief, meant that more than half of the Retief Trek party had been killed in less than two weeks. The scene of the massacre was named Weenen, or “weeping” in Dutch. A town was later established nearby and was also named Weenen to commemorate the massacre.

The British had in the interim established a post along the coast, which became known as Port Natal. This settlement, which is the present-day city of Durban, was attacked by the Zulus after the massacre at Weenen in an attempt to drive all whites out of the region.

The British garrison, although heavily outnumbered, fought back with fierce determination and the Zulus were driven off.

BLOOD RIVER—ZULUS DEFEATED IN EPIC BATTLE 1838



The epic Battle of Blood River, fought on December 16, 1838, saw 451 whites defeat a Zulu army numbered in the tens of thousands. The Zulus wanted to attack at night, but were frightened away by what they thought were ghosts over the wagons, but which were actually lanterns hanging at the end of long oxen whips. The Zulus were confronted with rifles, cannon, and a cavalry charge, the latter of which, unleashed by the Voortrekker commander Andries Pretorius at a critical moment in the battle, broke the Zulu ranks. After this victory, the white settlers formed the first independent Boer state in the region, Natalia. However, the area was annexed by Britain a short while later, and many of the Trekkers emigrated to the newly-established Boer republics in the interior.

The Battle of Blood River 1838

The Boers set off in pursuit of the Zulus with a force which they called a "punishment commando" under the command of Piet Uys and Andries Potgieter, who had come to the aid of the Trekkers from the Winburg–Potchefstroom Republic. This attempt to defeat the Zulus ended in failure when Uys was defeated and killed at the Battle of Italeni on April 9, 1838. Potgieter's force, which had split from Uys as the result of a personal argument between the two men, was outnumbered and fled the field.

It was derisively called the *Vlugkommando* (or the "fleeing commando") and Potgieter left Natal immediately afterward to go back to his own republic on the other side of the Drakensberg.

News of the defeats and massacre resulted in a new wave of support and volunteers from the Boer population in the Cape. Chief among them was a dynamic leader named Andries Pretorius, who upon his arrival was selected to be the Boer's Commandant General by a popular vote amongst the trekkers. Within a week, Pretorius had organized a commando which consisted of 451 men, including three Scotsmen from Port Natal, and set off in pursuit of the Zulu army. After six days of running battles with Zulu patrols, Pretorius set up his camp at the confluence of an erosion ditch and the Ncome River.

The commando's sixty-four wagons were drawn into a closed formation called a "laager" in Dutch, and the gaps were strengthened with wooden shutters and thorn bushes. Pretorius also possessed three cannon which he deployed at strategic points along the wagon perimeter.

The Calvinistic Boers then took a vow to God that if they were granted victory, they would hold the day sacred forevermore. This was the origin of the celebration called the "Day of the Vow" which was celebrated right until the end of white rule in South Africa in 1990.

The Zulu army attacked Pretorius's camp on December 16, 1838, with a force estimated to be between ten thousand and thirty thousand strong. The battle was uneven as the whites' firearms and cannon mowed down the Zulus. Thousands of blacks were killed and the Ncome River literally ran red with their blood, so that it was renamed Blood River. The unevenness of the clash was illustrated by the fact that only two whites suffered light injuries during the entire battle.

The Republic of Natalia

The defeat of the Zulu army allowed the Boers to establish their first independent republic called Natalia in 1839. They established their capital at a settlement which is the present-day city of Pietermaritzburg, named in honor of Piet Retief and another Trekker leader, Gerhard Maritz. In this town the Boers built a church to commemorate the vow taken at the Battle of Blood River.

The Republic of Natalia was acknowledged as independent by the British in 1840—but it was anarchic, ill-planned, and short-lived. A series of clashes between the Boers, the Zulus, and even the Xhosa to the south, persuaded many in the Cape Colony's government that Boer independence be brought to an end in order to preserve stability on the east coast.

Tensions between the Boers and the British, who kept their base at Port Natal, heightened to the point where war broke out in 1842. A British attempt to seize the settlement of Congella in May failed, but this was the only Boer victory of the conflict. The British rushed reinforcements to the region, and by 1845, Natalia had been annexed and incorporated into the Cape Colony.

Many Boers, including Andries Pretorius, then trekked back over the Drakensberg to join their compatriots in the independent states which had been established in the interior.

The Orange Free State and the South African Republic

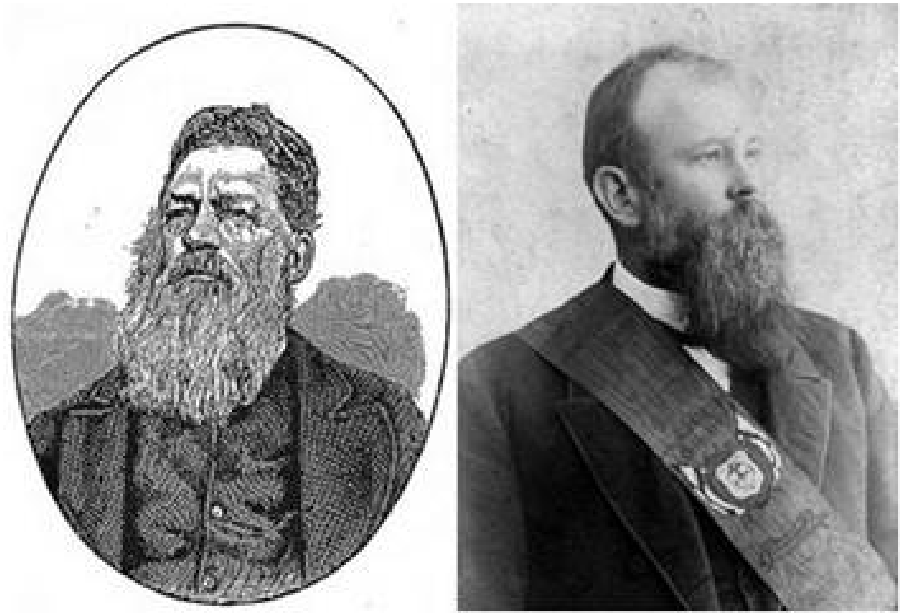
While the drama in Natalia had played itself out, other Trek Boers had continued with the establishment of the fledgling Boer states in the interior. The Winburg–Potchefstroom Republic steadily expanded its claimed area of control and came into conflict with a black tribe called the Basotho who had migrated northward after the Boers.

A series of clashes took place and the British authorities at the Cape decided that, just like Natalia, stability demanded the crushing of Boer independence before all the native tribes were provoked into unrest. The British incorporated the area occupied by the Basotho tribe into a protectorate in 1868. This region was given independence in the twentieth century and is today the state of Lesotho.

The area south of the Vaal River was proclaimed British territory in October 1842, effectively ending the Winburg–Potchefstroom Republic. Some Boers accepted the extension of British control but others did not.

The dissenters, led by Andries Pretorius, attacked a British army unit under the command of Sir Harry Smith at the Battle of Boomplaats in August 1848, but were defeated. Pretorius and his followers then migrated northward over the Vaal River and joined the other Trekkers already settled there.

The Winburg–Potchefstroom Republic area proved difficult to rule, with the black and white inhabitants alike engaging in a series of bewildering alliances, mostly against the British. Finally, the British government in London intervened and ordered the Cape authorities to formally recognize Boer independence north of the Orange and Vaal Rivers.



Left: Josias Philip Hoffman, first president of the Orange Free State, who served from April 18, 1854 to February 10, 1855. Right: Francis William Reitz, fifth president of the Orange Free State, who served from March 4, 1896 to May 31, 1902.

This was given official status by the Sand River Convention of January 1852, and confirmed again in 1854. The Boers living between the Orange and Vaal Rivers declared themselves independent in April 1854 as the *Oranje Vrij Staat* (the “Orange Free State”). The town of Bloemfontein, where delegates had met to draw up the new country’s constitution, was declared the capital. Significantly, the new state’s constitution granted the right to vote in elections to all “Europeans who [had] been present in the Republic for six months.”

The Boers north of the Vaal River followed suit. By December 1856, an elected assembly met at Potchefstroom, drew up a constitution, and adopted the name *Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek* (the ZAR, or in English, the "South African Republic").

The ZAR became better known by its colloquial title of the "Transvaal," although that name was only formally given to the territory when it became a province of the Union of South Africa in 1910.

Initially the ZAR chose Potchefstroom as its capital, but in 1855 the newly-founded town of Pretoria, named after Andries Pretorius, became the seat of the Boer parliament and thus the country's capital city. As was the case in the Orange Free State, voting rights were only granted to Europeans.

Indians Arrive in South Africa

By the mid-nineteenth century, South Africa had been divided between the British and the Boers. The British held the coast, while the Boers occupied the interior.

The eastern coastal areas of Natal proved ideal for the cultivation of sugarcane, and after failing to get the black population to work as laborers, the British resorted to importing indentured Indian labor.

This influx created the basis for the Indian population of South Africa which is still centered in the KwaZulu Natal province. The government of the Orange Free State viewed the influx of Indians with alarm and brought in a series of laws which prevented Indians from gaining permanent residence inside its borders. These laws remained in force in the Orange Free State until the late 1980s.

The First Anglo–Boer War 1881–1882

The economies of the Boer republics were agriculturally-based, and, compared to the British-ruled Cape, relatively poor. The discovery of diamonds in the region known as Griqualand West—a region claimed by both British and Boers—caused a fresh wave of immigration from Europe.

This consisted mainly of British immigrants, but also included a significant number of Jews who were to wield great influence in the economy of the country. The influx of British settlers strained relations between the Boer republics and the British administration even further. By this time, the ZAR was economically on its knees, and threatened from at least two sides by hostile black tribes. In the northeast, an ongoing fight with the Pedi tribe resulted in a Boer defeat, while the revitalized Zulus threatened the eastern border.

The ZAR was also politically weak, and the growing anarchy in the republic caused many Boers to consider leaving or even asking the British to annex the territory. In January 1877, a tiny force of twenty-five British soldiers under the leadership of Sir Theophilus Shepstone, the former Secretary for Native Affairs in Natal, entered the ZAR. Shepstone marched to Pretoria and, after three months of discussions with the failing Boer government, hoisted the British flag in April 1877 and announced the annexation of the republic. The disillusioned Boers offered no resistance and Shepstone became the administrator of what was now called the "Transvaal Colony."

It took three years and a herculean effort on the part of three young Boer leaders: Paul Kruger, Piet Joubert, and Marthinus Pretorius, to rouse their people into resisting the British annexation. Eventually, after a series of mass gatherings across the ZAR, the Boers rose in armed rebellion.

On December 13, 1880, the three leaders proclaimed the restoration of the ZAR in the town of Heidelberg. The Boers raised an army of about 7,000 men against the total British occupation force of around 1,800 soldiers who were stationed all over the country. The First Anglo–Boer War followed, and was marked by a series of four humiliating defeats for the British at the battles of Bronkhorstspruit, Laingsnek, Schuinshoogte, and Majuba. After this battle, fought in February 1881, the British government announced that it was prepared to restore self-government to the Boers. Three years of self-rule followed, and full independence was granted in 1884 by the London Convention after Paul Kruger was elected president of the ZAR in 1883.

British Race War with the Zulus

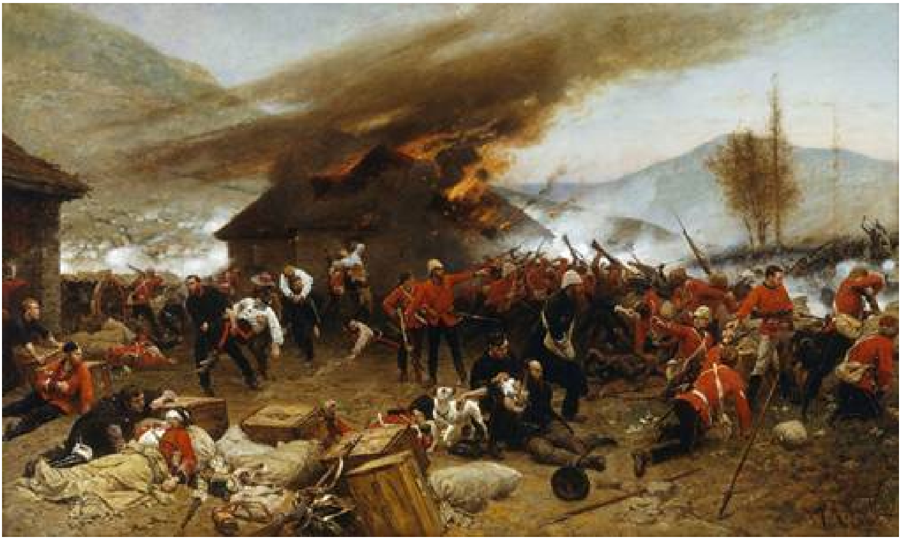
By 1872, the white population of Natal had reached 17,500, compared to the estimated 300,000 Zulus. The Indian laborer population was around 5,800. From the Zulu point of view, the British were no better than the Boers, as both were invaders. The Indian presence was also resented by the Zulus, and a racial tension existed between these groups which periodically erupted into violent clashes.

The Zulu king, Cetshwayo, decided to expel the British from Natal in 1878, and for this purpose assembled a sixty thousand-strong army. The British authorities became aware of his intentions and invaded the area called Zululand in January 1879, with the intention of forcing Cetshwayo's army to disband. The Zulus struck first.

On January 22, they attacked the main British force at an outpost called Isandhlwana and in a fierce one-day battle, killed all but six of the 1,500 white soldiers. The Zulus pushed home their attack and sent a force of about 4,000 warriors to attack a tiny British outpost of 140 men at Rorke's Drift, a short distance from Isandhlwana. Hours of bitter hand-to-hand fighting followed, and in the morning the Zulus gave up and retreated after suffering heavy losses.

The British brought in reinforcements and defeated the Zulus at the Battle of Khambula fought at the end of March. In July, the Zulus suffered a final defeat at the Battle of Ulundi, which ended Cetshwayo's plans to expel the whites from Natal.

RORKE'S DRIFT—ELEVEN VICTORIA CROSSES AWARDED AT ONE BATTLE



Rorke's Drift, a British supply base in Zululand, located at a mission station, became one of the British Army's most renowned battlefields during the night of January 22, 1879. Only 150 British soldiers defended it against thousands of Zulus, who, despite their overwhelming numerical advantage, were unable to break the white soldiers' solid defense. Fighting went on all night, and by dawn, the Zulus were forced to retreat, leaving at least 351 of their number dead outside the British stockades. Eleven Victoria Crosses were awarded to the men who fought at the battle, the *largest number given to any single battle before or since.*

Second Boer Republic in Natal

The Anglo–Zulu War had an unexpected consequence for the British. The confusion in Zulu ranks following the downfall of Cetshwayo saw two contenders, Usibhepu and his nephew Dinizulu, each claim chiefdom of the tribe. Dinizulu called upon local Boers to support his claim and a group under the command of Lucas Meyer helped suppress Usibhepu's followers. The grateful Dinizulu gave the Boers a large piece of land in return for their services, and on August 16, 1884, Meyer proclaimed another Boer state, the *Nieuwe Republiek* ("New Republic") with the town of Vryheid ("freedom") as its capital. Four years later, the New Republic amalgamated with the ZAR.

The Second Anglo–Boer War 1899–1902

The 1886 discovery of gold in the south of the ZAR caused a new flood of British and Jewish fortune seekers to enter the Boer republic. In the town of Johannesburg, founded at the center of the gold bearing reef, British and other non-Boer elements soon greatly outnumbered the Boer population.

Fearful of losing political control, the Boer government refused to grant these new immigrants voting rights, classifying them instead as *Uitlanders* ("foreigners").

The *Uitlander* question proved to be the spark for the Second Anglo–Boer War of 1889–1902. Protracted negotiations between the British administration at the Cape, headed by Cecil John Rhodes, and the Boer president Paul Kruger, over the rights of the *Uitlanders* broke down and an armed rebellion broke out in Johannesburg in 1895. Simultaneously a small private militia under the leadership of one of Rhode's adjutants, Leander Starr Jameson invaded the ZAR to support the rebels.

The invasion and rebellion were suppressed by Boer forces, but the die had been cast. War between the Boer republics and the British was inevitable.

KOOS DE LA REY—LEGENDARY BOER GENERAL AND GUERRILLA

General Jacobus Herculaas de la Rey (1847–1914), known as Koos de la Rey, was the leading Boer military figure of the Second Anglo-Boer War and the major leader of the guerrilla war against the British. Despite his successes in the field, the Boers were forced to surrender after the British interned their women and children in concentration camps. De la Rey took part in the peace negotiations which ended the war, and in 1907 was elected to the new self-governing Transvaal Colony government. He retained his military rank, and commanded the government forces which put down strikes in Johannesburg in 1914. In September of that year, he was killed in a shooting at a police roadblock while on his way to consult with leaders of the Boer Rebellion, with a view to possibly joining in. The 1914 Rebellion broke out shortly after his funeral. Above, a photograph of De la Rey in the field during the Second Anglo-Boer War.

Boers Strike First

Tensions heightened over the next three years, and in 1899, the British moved large numbers of troops up to the borders of the Boer republics in preparation for an invasion. ZAR President Kruger sent an ultimatum to the British administration in the Cape saying that it would be regarded as an act of war if the troop build-up was not halted. The ultimatum was ignored, and in October 1899, the two Boer republics jointly launched pre-emptive strikes against British forces in Natal and the Cape Colony.

At this stage the total white population of both Boer republics was just over 200,000. Of this number they produced an army which at its strongest totaled around fifty thousand men. To this figure was added another two thousand Boer sympathizers recruited from the Natal and the Cape Colony.

The British had 176,000 soldiers in the Cape Colony alone at the end of 1899. By the end of the war, the British had deployed around 478,725 soldiers in the campaign, more than twice as many as the entire Boer population, men, women, and children included.

Initial British Defeats

At first the war went well for the Boers. Several British defeats followed in quick succession and the Boers laid siege to the towns of Mafikeng and Kimberley in the Northern Cape, and Ladysmith in Natal. It was these sieges, however, which cost the Boers the initiative and ultimately the war.

Initially, the Boer plan had been to strike deep into Natal and seize the port of Durban, while simultaneously seizing the large ports in the Cape: Port Elizabeth and eventually Cape Town. However, the Boer forces became bogged down in the strategically unimportant sieges which were far from their original targets, and the British were able to land large numbers of reinforcements.

Nonetheless, the British suffered a number of defeats in the initial phases of the war, particularly in the period December 10–15, which was known as the “Black Week.” The battles of Stormberg, Magersfontein, and Colenso took place during this time and all were marked by huge losses for the British and victories for the Boers.

MASSIVE NUMERICAL SUPERIORITY ENSURES BRITISH VICTORY IN SECOND ANGLO–BOER WAR 1899–1902

The British invade the Orange Free State with a main column of forty-two thousand men and 117 guns in May 1900. This was part of a force which eventually saw more British soldiers deployed than the entire Boer population: men, women, and children, combined. Against such odds, the Boers stood no chance.

Inevitable British Victories Due to Overwhelming Numbers

The British had in the interim reinforced their South African army and pressed home their overwhelming military advantage. The Boer sieges were lifted and a series of engagements pushed the Boers back into their home territory.

By March 1900, the capital of the Orange Free State, Bloemfontein, had fallen to the British commander, Field Marshall Lord Roberts. The Orange Free State was formally annexed on May 28 and renamed the Orange River Colony.

By September 1900, the main British column took Pretoria, which was surrendered without a fight. The ZAR was formally annexed on September 3, and renamed the Transvaal Colony. The fall of Pretoria convinced Roberts that the war was now over. He was wrong.

The remaining Boer forces, now numbering only some twenty-six thousand, launched a hit-and-run guerrilla war which lasted another two years. Their soldiers operated in commandos in the open *veld* and could rely on supplies provided by the rural Boer community. The British first attempted to break the Boer guerrilla war by erecting a series of blockhouses across the country connected with barbed wire. This only proved to be a minor hindrance to the mobile Boer units, and provided a new target for sabotage attacks.

Scorched Earth and Concentration Camps

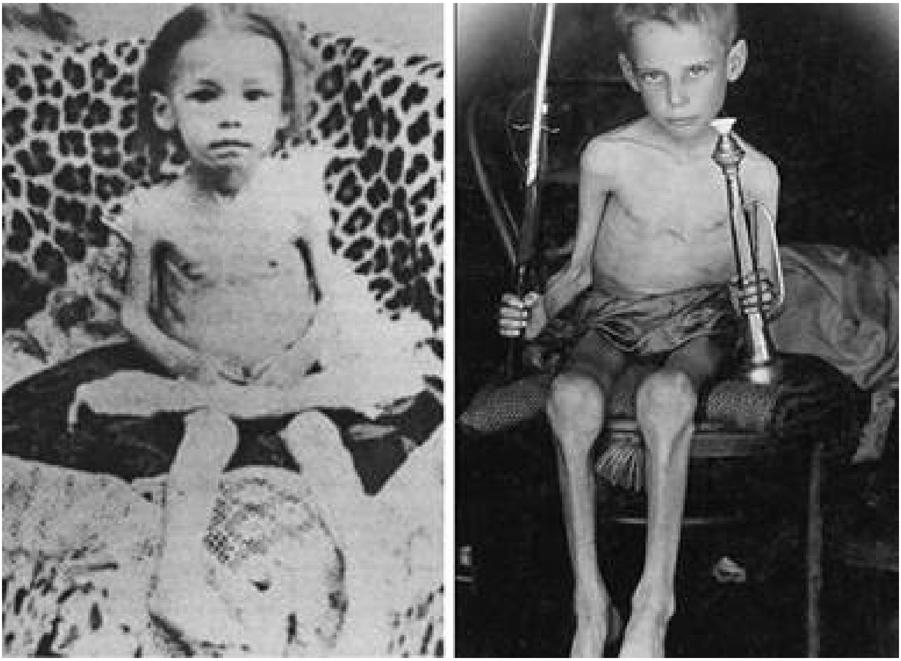
The ongoing war started to take a financial toll on the British government. Eventually it was to cost £191 million, a fortune by 1901 standards, and many hundred times that amount in modern times.

The Boers' guerrilla campaign also took a military toll on the British. Losses mounted and the failure of the blockhouse system to stop the attacks became a serious problem.

Exasperated, the British military decided that the only way to halt the Boers' campaign was to cut off their supplies. To this end, the British built what eventually became forty-five concentration camps, designed to detain the rural Boer population, women and children alike. In addition, the farms were burned down in a scorched earth policy designed to break Boer resistance for once and for all.

The internment policy resulted in the unintended deaths of large numbers of Boer women and children. By the end of the war, some 27,927 deaths were recorded in the camps, 22,074 of whom were children under the age of sixteen. This death toll mean that just under 15 percent of the Boer population of both republics had died in the camps.

27,927 BOER WOMEN AND CHILDREN DIE IN CONCENTRATION CAMPS



The British authorities erected concentration camps in South Africa to cut off the rural support base of the Boer guerrilla armies during the Second Anglo–Boer War (1899–1902). Large numbers of Boer women and children died in these camps of hunger, malnutrition, and typhus. One survivor, Alie Badenhorst, wrote in her diary: "Worst of all, because of the poor food, and having only one kind of food without vegetables, there came a sort of scurvy amongst our people. They got a sore mouth, and a dreadful smell with it; in some cases the palate fell out and the teeth, and some of the children were full of holes or sores in the mouth. And then they died . . . the mothers could never get them anything . . . there were vegetables to be bought outside, but the head of the camp was strict and did not allow them to go out of the camp . . . For it was this day, the 1st December, that old Tant Hannie died . . . I never thought with my eyes to see such misery . . . tents emptied by death. I went one day to the hospital and there lay a child of nine years to wrestle alone with death. I asked where could I find the child's mother. The answer was that the mother died a week before, and the father is in Ceylon (a prisoner of war) and that very morning her sister of 11 died. I pitied the poor little sufferer as I looked upon her . . . there was not even a tear in my own eyes, for weep I could no more. I stood beside her and watched until a stupefying grief overwhelmed my soul . . . O God, be merciful and wipe us not from the face of the earth" (Alida Badenhorst, translated E. Hobhouse, Tant Alie of Transvaal: Her Diary 1880–1902, *George Allen and Unwin, London, 1923).*

Threat of Extermination Forces Boer Surrender

Although the guerrilla war was reasonably successful (with one commando under the leadership of Boer General Jan Smuts raiding so far behind British lines that they came within sight of Cape Town), the pressures brought to bear by the concentration camps forced them to surrender or face extermination.

The decision was taken to halt the guerrilla war and formally surrender, an act which was formalized by the 1902 Treaty of Vereeniging.

Some 7,091 British soldiers were killed in the war, compared to 3,990 Boer soldiers. The military losses were therefore eclipsed by the camp deaths, and it is estimated that the white population of South Africa would have been three times as large as it eventually became.

British Endorse Boer Policy

The Boer policy of denying citizenship and voting rights to blacks was endorsed and maintained by the British administrations in the former republics. The only exception to this rule had been in the Cape Colony, where a small number of Cape Coloreds qualified for the franchise under a strenuous property-owning qualification system.

Racial segregation was the norm across the country to such an extent that it was not even considered necessary to legislate on the matter. In this way the administration of the four colonies was carried out exclusively by whites, and, in the two former Boer republics, even by civil servants who merely returned to their prewar jobs.

The Union of South Africa 1910

In 1909, talks were started between the administrations of the four colonies about unification into one country. After protracted discussions, a constitution was agreed upon and the Union of South Africa was created in 1910. This state was a dominion under the British monarchy in a manner identical to the other dominions of Canada and Australia.

Cape Town was selected to be the legislative capital, Pretoria the administrative capital, and Bloemfontein the judiciary capital. The new country's constitution specifically kept the already established policy of only allowing Europeans the vote, a clause which could only be changed by a two-thirds majority vote in the parliament.

Black "Homelands" Created Based on Traditional Territories

The Union of South Africa attempted to come to grips with the issue of land and the native population by passing the 1913 Land Act. This law divided the country into white and black areas, with the black tribes being apportioned land based on their areas of occupation before the advent of European colonization.

The British-ruled territories in Southern Africa which were not part of the Union, were also defined on a tribal basis. The Sotho tribe was given Lesotho, the Tswana tribe was given Botswana, and the Swazi tribe was given Swaziland. All three of these nations were eventually given independence and are still separate nations.

In a similar manner, the tribal homelands inside South Africa were formally identified and defined: Zululand was allocated to the Zulus, Transkei to the Xhosa, and so on. The previously unoccupied areas which had been colonized by the European settlers were designated as white territory.

Black resistance to the Union of South Africa's racial policies emerged soon after its creation. In 1912, the African National Congress (ANC) was founded and for the next eighty years was the main opposition to white rule.

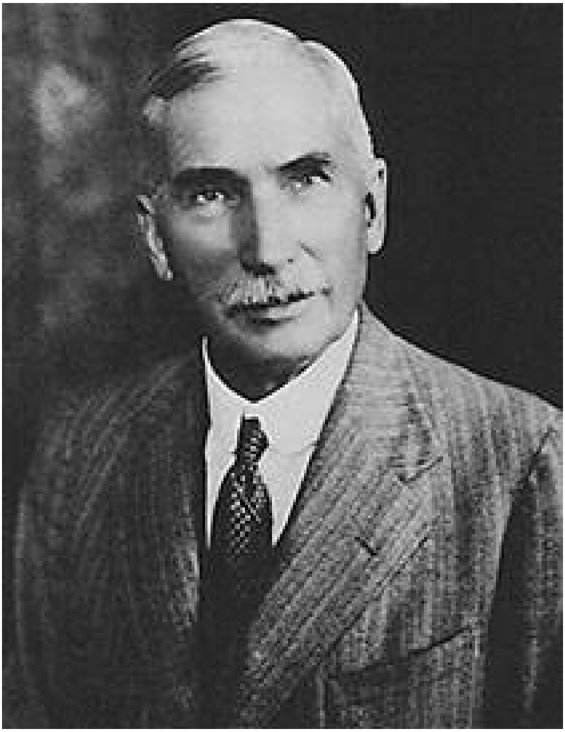
Attempts at Boer–Brit Reconciliation Fail

The largest party in the new Union's parliament was called the

South African Party (SAP), and was led by former Boer War General Louis Botha. The SAP had as one of its polices a program of reconciliation between "Boer and Brit," as the divide was known. This attempt to create a racial unity led to the creation of a new generic term for all whites living in the Union, "South Africans," and the terminology "Boer and Brit' gradually faded away.

The Old Dutch language spoken by the Boers had been formalized into a more distinct dialect in the Cape during the last part of the nineteenth century, and had taken on the name Afrikaans. As it replaced Old Dutch, those who spoke it were called "Afrikaanders" and later just Afrikaners, no matter if they were originally Boers from the former republics or not.

BOER WAR GENERAL J.B.M. HERTZOG FORMS NATIONAL PARTY



General J.B.M. Hertzog, the Boer War hero who founded the National Party (NP) in 1914 as a voice for Afrikaner nationalism. The NP first came to power in 1924. In 1934, Hertzog agreed to merge the NP with the rival South African Party of fellow Boer War General Jan Smuts to form the United South African National Party. A hard-line faction of Afrikaner nationalists, led by D.F. Malan, refused to accept the merger and split off into a "Purified National Party" (PNP). When Smuts brought South Africa into the Second World War on Britain's side, Hertzog resigned from *government and retired. The PNP and its allies defeated Smuts' United Party in 1948. After the election victory, the PNP merged with some smaller allies and became the National Party once again. This was the party which remained in power until 1994, when, after accepting the demographic realities of South Africa, it handed the country over to black majority rule.*

National Party Founded in 1914

The attempt to create white unity was rejected by a significant number of English and Afrikaans speakers alike, who hived off into separate parties with different geographical bases. Natal played host to the pro-English party, while support for the pro-Afrikaans faction was concentrated in the Transvaal and Orange Free State.

In 1914, another of the Boer War generals, James Hertzog, broke with the SAP and founded a new group which he called the National Party, or NP. It was this party which was to dominate South Africa for most of the twentieth century and become famous for its association with Apartheid, or racial segregation.

At the time of its founding, however, the NP's policy toward nonwhites was identical to that of the SAP and the pro-English faction, in that black political rights were not even considered an issue. The NP was founded to bring about equality between Afrikaans- and English-speakers, and then ultimately to reestablish Afrikaner rule.

World War I and the 1914 Boer Rebellion

The outbreak of the First World War split the whites politically even further. Many Afrikaners, still smarting after the Second Anglo–Boer War and the terrible memory of the British concentration camps, instinctively backed Germany against Britain.

The SAP government, even those former Boer leaders who dominated that party, were however loyalists, and declared war on Germany in support of Britain. The newly-formed Union Defence Force (UDF) was tasked with seizing the neighboring German colony of German South West Africa (later called South West Africa and today known as Namibia). The decision to go to war on the side of the British was a step too far for many Boers, and a rebellion broke out, led by a number of former Boer War generals, including the famous Christiaan Beyers, Koos de la Rey, Jan Kemp, and Manie Martiz. Kemp and Maritz were senior figures in the UDF and the latter was in command of one of the large army units entrusted with attacking the Germans across the border.

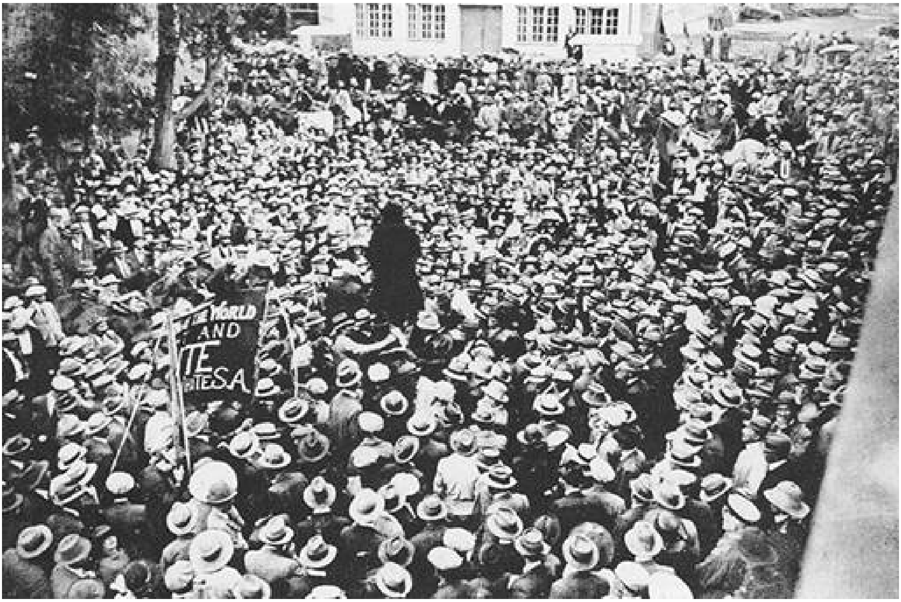
Maritz and a large number of his soldiers deserted to the Germans. He then issued a proclamation of independence for the Boer republics and invaded the Northern Cape. De Wet raised a commando and seized the town of Heilbron in the Orange Free State, while Beyers gathered a commando outside Pretoria.

Eventually over twelve thousand Boers rallied to the rebel cause, and the government was forced to postpone the invasion of German South West Africa to suppress the uprising. The better equipped UDF defeated all the rebel forces and arrested the surviving ringleaders, who all received light prison sentences and were then released. De la Rey had been shot dead at a police roadblock in an unrelated incident at the start of the rebellion, and Beyers drowned in the Vaal River while fleeing government forces.

The suppression of the rebellion allowed the UDF to proceed with the invasion of German South West Africa, a task which was completed by July 1915. The UDF was also deployed in the seizure of the colony of German East Africa (modern Tanzania) and served with distinction on the Western Front in France.

German South West Africa was mandated to South Africa by the League of Nations after the end of the war, with the intention that it be prepared for eventual independence. The NP polled well in the 1915 election, although the SAP still held onto a slim majority in parliament after drawing more support from the English-speaking sector of the population which supported the decision to go to war on Britain’s side.

THE RACIST COMMUNISTS AND THE RAND REVOLT OF 1921



In 1922, the South African Communist Party (SACP) seized upon white working-class discontent with the mining houses that had imported nonwhite labor to replace "expensive" white workers. The SACP fomented a violent revolution centered in Johannesburg, in the hope of emulating the Soviet Union's Communist Revolution of October 1917. To this end, an uprising took place in March 1921, called the Rand Revolt, led initially by the SACP with the official slogan of "Workers Unite for a White S.A." A banner with this slogan can be seen in this crowd in Johannesburg.

Racist Communists and the Rand Rebellion

The Communist revolution in Russia which created the Soviet Union served as an inspiration to Communist supporters all over the world, and South Africa was no exception. The South African Communist Party (SACP) was launched by a number of prominent South African Jews in Cape Town (where Karl Marx's sister had made her home and where a local newspaper had been the world's first commercial publication to publish any of Marx's articles) and soon became committed to revolutionary activity.

At this time, however, no one, not even the Communists, gave serious consideration to black political involvement. As a result, when the gold mining industry decided to replace white laborers with black and Chinese workers in 1921, the SACP was one of the first to stand up for the rights of the white workers. Tensions between the miners and the captains of industry heightened and the involvement of the SACP added a political dimension which elevated the conflict to more than just an industrial dispute. A miners' strike escalated into a major uprising, which involved an attempted *coup d'etat* by armed workers.

The rebellion was launched by the SACP under the banner "Workers Unite for a White South Africa." The slogan was for long afterward a great source of embarrassment for the SACP, which later became one of the strongest proponents for black rule. The Rand Rebellion was suppressed by the army and the police in a major military operation which involved the bombing of rebel strongholds in Johannesburg by the fledgling South African Air Force—the only time in history that city was bombarded from the air.

National Party Wins Power in 1924

Although the Rand Rebellion was crushed, its message reverberated throughout South African politics. The National Party (NP) and James Hertzog fought the next general election on an undertaking to protect white workers from encroachment by nonwhites through the imposition of a color bar.

The policy was endorsed by the electorate, and the NP won the election, displacing the SAP which was seen to have supported the mining bosses. Race had entered South African politics for the first time, and the NP was determined to be associated with the topic from then on. The new NP government was as good as its word: it duly introduced the first color bar legislation soon after taking office. It also extended the franchise to white women in 1930, and removed property and education restrictions on the right to vote. Hertzog's government made Afrikaans into South Africa's second official language in 1925, and introduced the famous orange, white, and blue national flag which would only be disposed of when white rule ended in 1994.

The NP remained in power until 1933, when the effects of the Great Depression forced it into a coalition government with the SAP which was then under the leadership of another Boer War general, Jan Smuts. The following year, the NP and the SAP amalgamated to form the United South African National Party, or United Party, as it became more commonly known.

The United Party coalition governed South Africa until the advent of the Second World War in 1939. Hertzog advocated neutrality, once again not wishing to enter a war on the side of Britain, while his deputy, Smuts, advocated declaring war on Germany. Parliament voted narrowly in favor of going to war and Hertzog resigned.

A small faction of NP hardliners under the leadership of D.F. Malan refused to join the 1933 coalition with the SAP, and remained in opposition as the Gesuiwerde Nasionale Party ("Purified National Party" or PNP). Hertzog and his supporters joined the PNP when they resigned from the coalition, and the party reformed itself into the Herenigde Nasionale Party ("Reunited National Party").

Ossewa Brandwag leader Johannes van Rensburg arrives at a mass rally of supporters, circa 1940.

Militant Afrikaner Opposition

Militant Afrikaners, whose political opinions varied from the pro-Nazi to the anti-British, were organized into a movement known as the Ossewa Brandwag ("Ox Wagon Sentinel"). This group engaged in numerous acts of sabotage and violence in a successful program to keep large numbers of Union Defence Force's soldiers deployed inside the country's borders, rather than against the Germans. The OB was disbanded after the war.

Despite the Ossewa Brandwag's efforts, the UDF took part in the campaigns in Abyssinia, North Africa, and Italy. Jan Smuts won the 1943 election, and was made a field marshal by the British Army.

Smuts went on to be instrumental in the founding of the United Nations, a development which marked him as a politician with international standing. His racial policies ultimately were little different from that of his compatriots.

PURIFIED NATIONAL PARTY LEADER CAMPAIGNS IN SOUTH

WEST AFRICA 1947

VEG HARD, VEG SKOON, VEG

Dr. D.F. Malan (standing right), leader of the Purified National Party, on the campaign trail in South West Africa in 1947. His party took power in the election in 1948, and was only dislodged in 1994 when the first all-race election was held.

Reunited National Party Wins 1948 Election

The 1948 general election was won by the Reunited National Party even though Smut's United Party polled the most votes (the result was skewed by the first-past-the-post electoral system which delivered more seats to the RNP). The party amalgamated with a minor election partner and changed its name once again into the "National Party." It was this iteration of the NP which remained in power until 1994.

The NP formalized the system of racial segregation in South Africa, but it was not the originator of that idea. As outlined earlier, racial segregation had been implemented from the time of the first European settlement. Even the policy of black homelands predated the 1948 NP. The tribal territorial areas were acknowledged as such in the nineteenth century and given formal legal recognition by the 1913 Land Act. Nonetheless, it was the NP's formalization of the policy and the use of the word apartheid, or in English, "separateness," which exemplified South African segregation.

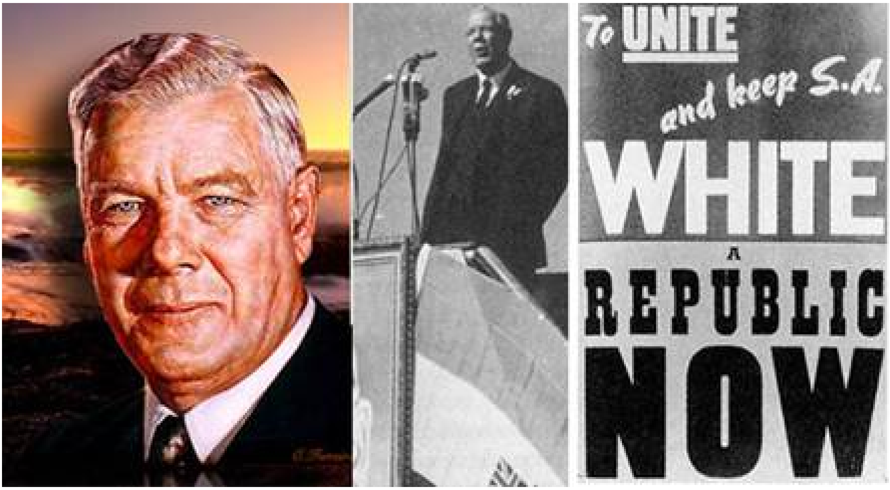
The NP implemented a series of laws which formed the basis of their policy. The Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act of 1949 outlawed interracial marriages; the Immorality Amendment Act of 1950 outlawed sex across the color line; the Population Registration Act of 1950 classified all inhabitants according to race, and created a Classification Board to make a final decision on a person's race in disputed cases; the Group Areas Act of 1950 delineated separate racial residential areas; and the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953 enforced the segregation of all public facilities.

The South African Communist Party had in the interim renounced its racist past and worked against the white government. It organized trade unions, strikes, and general unrest, with the result that the NP passed the Suppression of Communism Act in 1950 which outlawed the SACP.

Black resistance to the imposition of these laws grew as well. This resistance was initially peaceful, but after it became clear that the white government was not going to be persuaded by any other means, the African National Congress and other smaller resistance groups opted for a campaign of violence. This decision was given impetus after the ANC was banned following the shooting of a large number of black demonstrators outside a police station in Sharpeville, south of Johannesburg, in 1960.

The ANC launched its campaign of violent resistance the same year and maintained it, with varying degrees of success for another thirty years. The real power of black resistance lay, however, not in the limited program of violent resistance, but rather in their ability to bring the economy to a halt through strikes and industrial unrest. Once again, as in Haiti and the American south, the white population fell victim to its own reliance on black labor.

HF VERWOERD AND THE WHITE REPUBLIC 1961



Dr. HF Verwoerd, the Dutch-born National Party Prime Minister, who is widely, but incorrectly, credited with creating apartheid. In reality, the groundwork for the policy of segregation had been laid more than a century before the advent of the NP. Verwoerd was regarded as white South Africa's greatest prime minister, and was twice a target for leftist assassins. The first assassination attempt, in which he was shot in the face, failed, but the second, carried out by a mixed-race orderly working in the South African parliament, was successful. Verwoerd was stabbed to death at his seat in the parliamentary building in September 1966. Center: Verwoerd addresses a large crowd in Johannesburg after returning from London where he announced South Africa's withdrawal from the Commonwealth. Right, a poster issued during the 1961 referendum when white voters were asked if they wished to make South Africa a republic or not. The poster made the issue at stake very plain: either stay in the British-led Commonwealth and be forced to accept black rule, or break away and become a white-ruled republic. A slim majority of voters chose the white republic option. The government and its supporters simply ignored the fact that the vast majority of the population was already nonwhite.

The White Republic 1961

The era of decolonization in Africa, which started in the 1950s and 1960s, set the white rulers of South Africa at odds with Britain. The NP took advantage of the increased political tension to achieve another long-term Afrikaner nationalist aim, and declared South Africa a republic, free of the British crown and Commonwealth, in 1961. The country's name was changed from the Union of South Africa to the Republic of South Africa.

The republic was noted for many things apart from the policy of apartheid. The world's first heart transplant was performed by an Afrikaner surgeon, Chris Barnard, in the segregated hospital of Groote Schuur in Cape Town in 1962, and the world's first truly successful oil-from-coal conversion plant was created at Sasolburg in the Orange Free State.

South Africa became self-sufficient in a large number of sophisticated manufacturing processes, including arms, and developed its own nuclear weapons.

"Grand Apartheid" and the Black Homelands

It was during the 1960s that the policy known as "Grand Apartheid" was formulated by the NP under the direction of its leader and Prime Minister Hendrik Verwoerd. This policy entailed taking the already recognized traditional black tribal areas and turning them into independent states, in exactly the same way that Britain had created tribal states for the Tswana, the Swazi, and the Sotho people.

The critical difference, however, which Verwoerd and the NP ignored, was that vast numbers of blacks in South Africa did not live in these tribal areas. The huge back city of Soweto, for example, which provided the labor force upon which Johannesburg and many of the Rand mines depended, was created by the Verwoerd government at the same time as the black homelands.

Eventually there would be more blacks in Soweto and other black settlements around Johannesburg than all the whites in South Africa put together.

The attempts to create independent black homelands met, therefore with failure on the demographic front, and on the political front as well. No other country in the world recognized the handful of homelands which opted for independence as legitimate, and the leaders of those territories were uniformly rejected as puppets by the vast majority of blacks.

APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA BUILT ON NONWHITE LABOR

DIAGONAL 44c STREET
B.C. TAI
SAUERSTR

Central Johannesburg in the mid-1970s. A white policeman checks a black laborer's "passbook"—a document which entitled the holder to be present in the white urban areas of South Africa, provided that he or she had a job. Nothing better illustrated the inherent flaw in apartheid than this bizarre situation where black workers were specifically granted permission to live and work in the so-called "white" areas of the country, while supposedly simultaneously trying to create a separate white society.

The Failure of Apartheid

Apartheid was doomed from the beginning as it refused to acknowledge the reality of demography and race. This ideology was based in archaic white supremacism, which advocated paternalistic rule over blacks rather than separatism.

Apartheid was designed to use millions of blacks as labor and to integrate them into the economy, but then to segregate them politically and socially. The white government refused to adjust the size of the black homelands to be in accord with the demographic reality, and stubbornly insisted that their land area—some 13 percent of the country's surface—could accommodate 80 percent of the total population.

At the same time, Western medicine was made available to the black population on a massive scale. The largest hospital in the Southern hemisphere was built, financed, and subsidized by the white government in Soweto, and infant mortality rates among blacks plummeted while their reproduction rates remained constant.

In addition, white South Africa’s fate was sealed with their insistence upon the use of black labor. Nearly every white household employed at least one black servant, and often more.

The Afrikaner farmers often had dozens, if not hundreds, of laborers on their farms, and the mines, which were the economic heart of the country, employed hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of blacks over the decades.

One of the laws introduced by the apartheid government illustrated perfectly the inherent contradiction in the application of its policy. The Pass Laws Act of 1952 stipulated that all blacks over the age of sixteen had to carry what was called a “passbook” with them at all times. This passbook contained individual endorsements as to where, and for how long, that black person could remain in an area. A black who obtained employment in a “white area” would have his or her passbook endorsed as such. The law stipulated where, when, and for how long a person could remain.

No one in the government appeared to appreciate that the Pass Laws Act made the swamping of the “white areas” inevitable, given the complete reliance of all industry, farming, and labor upon the black population.

The end result of all these factors was predictable: the white population of South Africa was overrun demographically by a racial time bomb of their own making. By 1990, there were less than five million whites in South Africa and more than forty million nonwhites.

The maintenance of segregation under these circumstances was impossible and could not be maintained even by force of arms.

TWENTY-TWO-YEAR BORDER WAR IN SOUTH WEST AFRICA

South Africa gained control of the German colony of South West Africa (today called Namibia) during the First World War and retained authority there until 1990. This led to an insurgency by the black South West African People's Organization (SWAPO). The collapse of the Portuguese colonial empire in 1975 allowed SWAPO to launched guerrilla attacks on South African forces from neighboring Angola, and a border war erupted between the South African Defence Force and the Soviet- and Cuban-backed Angolan army, which lasted from 1966 to 1989. The South African Army penetrated deep into Angola in pursuit of SWAPO and the Angolan forces, but neither side managed to clinch a definitive victory. In 1990, the South Africans withdrew and turned South West Africa over to SWAPO rule.

The Race War in South West Africa

German South West Africa had, it will be recalled, been handed to South Africa by the League of Nations after the First World War to prepare it for independence. However, successive South African governments had no desire to hand that territory over to its natives. By the 1960s, South West Africa had been de facto incorporated into South Africa, had representatives in the Cape Town parliament, and had the policy of apartheid enforced within its boundaries.

Native resistance had been founded and grew steadily in the form of the “South West African Peoples’ Organization” (SWAPO). A campaign of violence was started which eventually required the deployment of the republic’s South African Defence Force (SADF). As was also the case with the South African black resistance, SWAPO received considerable support from the Soviet Union and other Communist bloc countries. In addition, the black resistance movement operated with the overwhelming support of the native population and was also able to exert considerable economic influence.

The war in South West Africa grew in intensity after the Portuguese withdrew control from their colony of Angola, which lay directly to the north. Freed of the anti-colonial combat in Angola, SWAPO and its allies were able to use that nation as a base from which to attack the South African forces in South West Africa.

In response, the SADF invaded Angola in 1975, and for many years thereafter maintained a military presence in the south of that country in what would ultimately be a futile attempt to halt SWAPO’s military campaign. Eventually some 1,200 SADF soldiers were to die in the war in South West Africa and Angola before South Africa finally admitted defeat and handed over power to SWAPO in 1990.

Internal Security Crisis Worsens

Despite the South African military establishment being the most powerful in Africa, the low level guerrilla war and campaign of economic sabotage could not be countered with a conventional army. As the white government refused to acknowledge the racial demographic reality, it resorted to ever more extreme security measures in an attempt to keep control of the country.

In 1976, a black student uprising in Soweto marked an upsurge in violent civil unrest. Although the unrest was initially suppressed with the loss of over five hundred black lives, the “Soweto Riots,” as they became known, marked a watershed in the racial divide in South Africa.

From then on, international opinion was mobilized against white South Africa and the black resistance was able to maintain mass civil unrest in almost every urban center for the next fifteen years.

In response to this development, the South African Police were given the right to hold people indefinitely without trial and implemented numerous other draconian measures, which included covert assassination and anti-terrorist teams.

The state was forced to declare an almost continuous state of emergency after 1976 but this did nothing to halt the ever-increasing waves of civil unrest, armed conflict, and economic sabotage which reached an all-time high in the 1980s.

1976 SOWETO UNREST MARKS TURNING POINT

White South African riot police remove the body of a black demonstrator shot dead during the famous 1976 Soweto Riots. From that year onward, the sixty thousand-strong South African Police fought an untenable and unsustainable war against continuous riots and an ever-intensifying African National Congress campaign of violence and sabotage. Ultimately, the South African security forces would simply be overwhelmed by numbers.

The NP attempted partial reforms of apartheid as a means of alleviating some of the building pressure. A new constitution introduced in 1983 created a mixed-race parliament to which Indians and Cape Coloreds could be elected—albeit on separate voters' rolls—and by the mid-1980s many apartheid laws, such as the Pass Laws Act, the Mixed Marriages Act, the Immorality Act, the Group Areas Act, and the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act, had been repealed.

These reforms did nothing to halt the ANC's campaign for complete political reform, and the increased freedoms accorded by the repeal of many of the apartheid laws only resulted in greater unrest as the underground resistance found it easier to move around the country and organize.

The campaign of violence actually increased in intensity in direct proportion to the repeal of the restrictive laws.

Power Handed over to ANC 1994

Finally, the white government was forced to confront the reality of the demographic disaster which had been created over the previous century.

Faced with the choice of fighting a no-hope race war and ultimately being defeated by sheer numbers, or giving over without a fight, the NP chose the latter.

In 1990, the ANC and its allied organizations (the SACP included) were unbanned, its imprisoned leader Nelson Mandela freed, and negotiations started to bring about the end of white minority rule. Within four years, the first election based on universal suffrage was held and the ANC took power with nearly two thirds of the vote. White rule was finally at an end. The decision to surrender power was contested by white hard-liners, who formed a number of opposition groups both inside and outside parliament during the 1980s. None were, however, able to defeat the NP in either the elections or the two referendums that were held during the reform years.

The most prominent extra-parliamentary group was called the Afrikaner Weerstandsbeweging (Afrikaner Resistance Movement, or AWB), which launched an extended campaign of violence and terrorism in 1994 just prior to the first universal suffrage elections. The white militants were all quickly arrested and the campaign failed to prevent the inevitable.

The Failure of White Supremacy

The white population of South Africa went into dramatic decline in the years following 1994, and official figures show that one-third had emigrated within the first ten years.

Factors which caused this massive white flight included a serious black crime problem, affirmative action which discriminated against whites, and economic decline as South Africa started its inevitable shift to Third World status.

The rise and fall of white South Africa serves as the premier modern example of the power of racial demographics as a final determinant in the rise and fall of any civilization or culture. It is also conclusive evidence that white supremacy, or white attempts to rule over masses of nonwhite people, is a recipe for disaster.

The reality remains that the only guarantee for any individual civilization's survival is separatism.

WHITE SOUTH AFRICA'S NUCLEAR BOMBS—SYMBOLIZES TECHNOLOGICAL ACHIEVEMENT AND FAILURE OF APARTHEID

Possibly the greatest display of white-ruled South Africa's technological capability came with its development of nuclear weapons. White South Africa built six atom bombs by 1989 at the Pelindaba nuclear research facility which was to the west of Pretoria. In 1989, the ruling National Party decided to hand power to black majority rule, but did not wish to see the weapons handed over to either a black government or one of the African National Congresses' allies such as Libya. The nuclear weapons project serves as testament to two important facts about white South Africa. Firstly, it is yet another proof, if any was needed, of the falsity of the "environmental" theory of development. South Africa did not develop nuclear technology "just because" of its geographic location. The development was possible because of the race of the people who lived there, and had nothing to do with the geography, climate, or any other factor.

Secondly, the fact that white South Africa developed these weapons for supposed use against its enemies, shows the delusion under which the apartheid leaders lived. The policy of apartheid guaranteed that white South Africa would inevitably be overrun with blacks, and the possibility of using these weapons in any operational theater was, therefore, nonexistent. White South Africa's reliance on black labor meant that no matter where such a weapon might be aimed, whites and blacks alike would be targeted. The nuclear weapons project stands as a tribute to Afrikaner technological and scientific ability, but was an exercise in political self-delusion, just like apartheid. Above: The casings for South Africa's nuclear weapons, photographed at the Advena facility, near Pelindaba facility. It was planned to have eight weapons in total. Six were completed.

CHAPTER 56: May It Be Worthy of the Name—the Story of Rhodesia

The white colony of Rhodesia, today known as Zimbabwe, serves as a conclusive example that colonization is only successful when the colonizers ensure that they demographically replace the native population. Anything less than this will cause the colonial experiment to fail.

No attempt was ever made by the British colonizers of Rhodesia to form the majority population and replace its native inhabitants. Instead, the European colonizers were firmly trapped into the colonial mindset which maintained that simply because whites were technologically superior, the blacks would be perpetually in awe of, and subservient to, the white intruders. The failure to grasp the reality that demography is destiny cost many white Rhodesians their lives, and ultimately destroyed their country.

Rhodesia Founded by Cecil John Rhodes 1888

The territory which now makes up Zimbabwe was, in 1888, not formally incorporated into any state. Lying just to the north of the Boer republics, over the Limpopo River, the open land was inhabited by two closely-interrelated black tribes, the Matabele and the Shona.

The Matabele were originally part of the Zulu tribe, but had split away during the nineteenth century. They had rampaged through the interior of Southern Africa before being driven north across the Limpopo River after a defeat at the hands of the Trekkers in 1836.

CECIL RHODES—FOUNDER OF RHODESIA

Cecil John Rhodes, the British-born entrepreneur and prime minister of the Cape Colony, after whom the country of Rhodesia was named. He considered the territory valuable for its mineral wealth and its strategic position. The creation of a British colony over the Limpopo River encircled the Boer republics and prevented their further expansion.

The Matabele king, Lobengula, was approached by the British-born prime minister of the Cape Colony, Cecil John Rhodes, for a mining concession in 1888. Rhodes was the founder of the De Beers diamond company, which is still to this day one of the world's largest diamond-dealing enterprises. Rhodes used his already considerable wealth to fund the creation of a new enterprise, known as the British South Africa Company (BSAC), to exploit Lobengula's mining concession.

It was not only the desire for greater mineral rights which featured in Rhodes's thinking. He was an ardent British imperialist as well who wished to extend Britain's colonial possessions as far as possible. A British post to the north served three purposes: it encircled the Boer republics, prevented their further expansion, and opened up more of the interior of Africa to British colonization.

The First Matabele War 1893–1894

Rhodes's political objectives meant that the white presence in the territory would inevitably entail far more than just a mining settlement. Ultimately, he realized, the land would have to be annexed, and the decision was taken to do this by stealth.

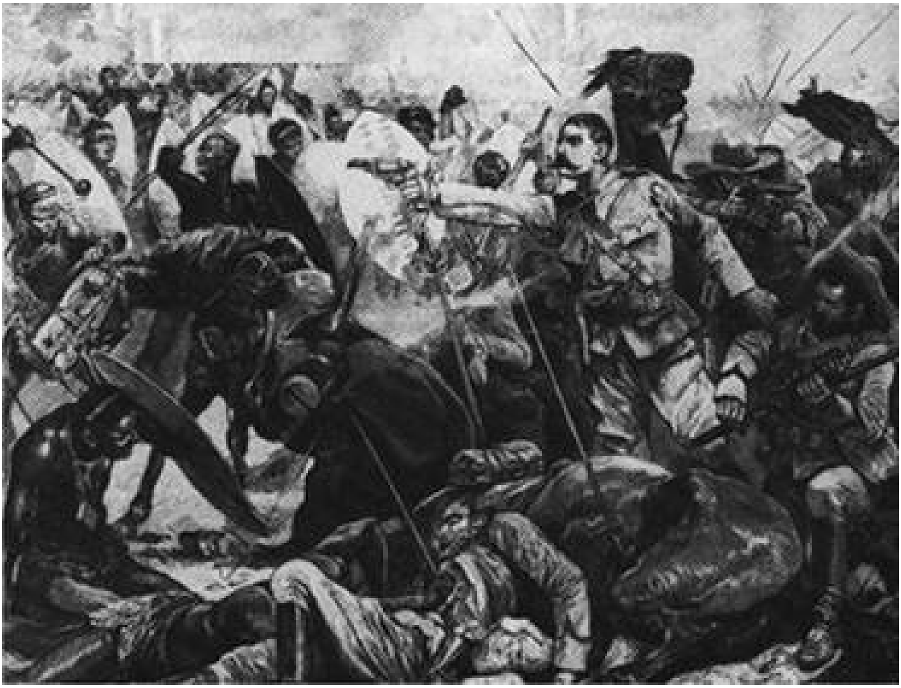
Rhodes organized a group of just under five hundred white men to act as an occupation force, which later became known as the "Pioneer Column." This column marched into the Matabele and Shona territory in June 1890, and set up three towns: Fort Victoria, Fort Charter, and Fort Salisbury. The British flag was hoisted at Fort Salisbury on September 13, 1890. This settlement later become the capital of Rhodesia, better known as Salisbury, and today named Harare.

The fact that these towns were originally named "forts" indicates that the Pioneer Column expected resistance. Surprisingly, none came—at least not initially. Local chiefs launched minor attacks on isolated white settlers, but Lobengula held back out of fear of the weaponry which the white colonists possessed. However, a clash between two Matabele chiefs in 1893 escalated into the First Matabele War, which was based on Lobengula's objection to the whites telling him how he should conduct his own tribal affairs.

The Matabele attacked a BSAC camp on November 1, 1893, near the Bembesi River. Lobengula hoped that his numerically superior army of thousands would sweep away the 670 British soldiers. The whites had, however, a new secret weapon at their disposal: the Maxim gun. This was the world's first self-powered machine gun, which had been invented in 1884. The resultant slaughter, known as the Battle of the Shangani, saw the Matabele assault decimated.

A new column set off in pursuit of Lobengula, who had fled his capital of Bulawayo with the main body of his army. An advance patrol of thirty-two men, under the command of Allan Wilson, unexpectedly caught up with the entire Matabele army at the Shangani River on December 3. A desperate attempt to reinforce Wilson's group failed due to a flash flood of the river, which also trapped the patrol on a small rise of high ground. Wilson and his men were surrounded and massacred by the Matabele and entered Rhodesian folklore as the heroes of the "Shangani patrol."

ALLAN WILSON'S LAST STAND



During the First Matabele War (1893–1894), a party of thirty-two mounted British soldiers under Allan Wilson, unexpectedly came across the main army of the Matabele chief, Lonbengula. Wilson's group was cut off from the main British column by a flash flood and surrounded by thousands of tribesmen. With no possibility of escape, the little party made its last stand on a small hill and were massacred. Wilson and his men entered Rhodesian folklore as heroes of the original pioneering movement.

Lobengula died the following January, and Matabele resistance slowly crumbled. This enabled Rhodes to step up the colonization process. On May 3, 1885, the BSAC's territory was officially named "Rhodesia" and, within a year, over two thousand white settlers had moved to Bulawayo and established it as the fourth largest white-occupied town.

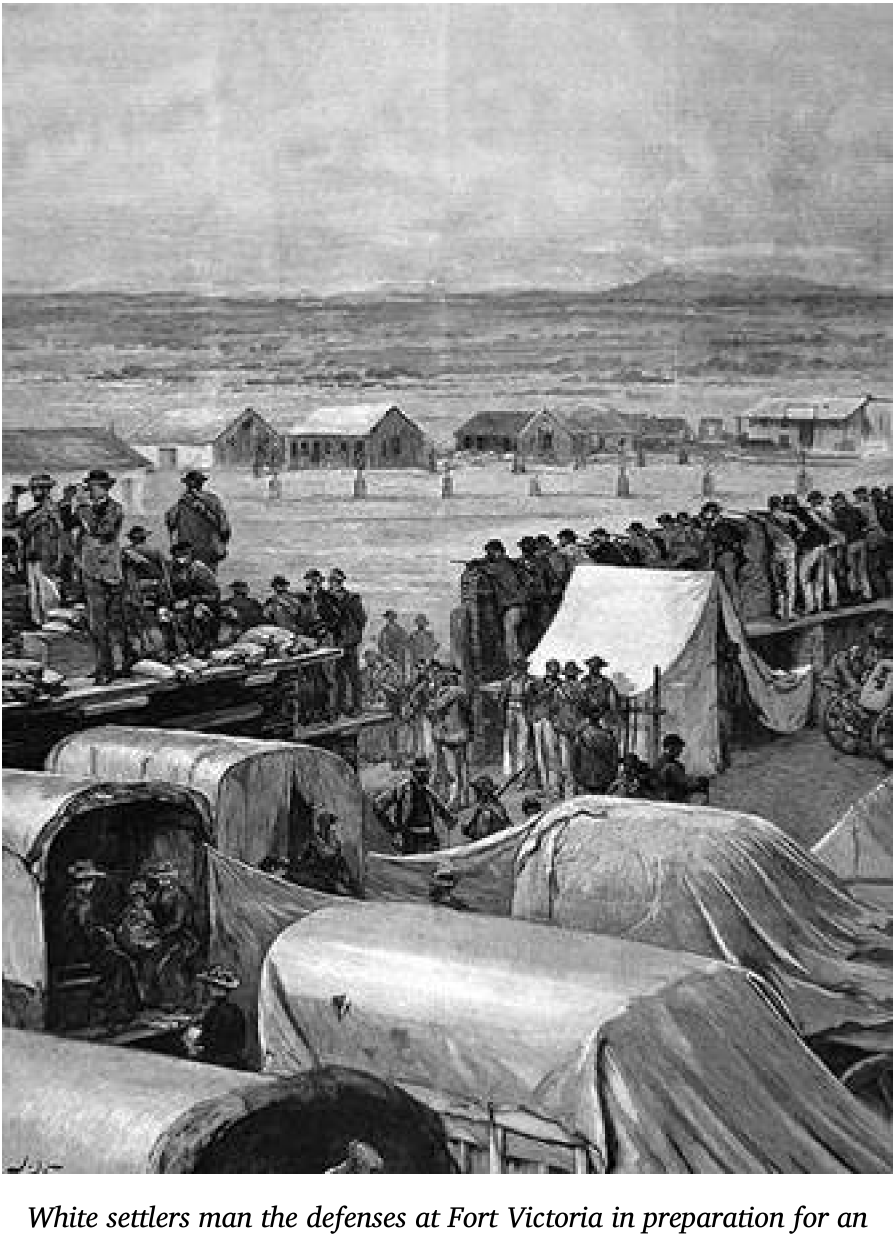
The Second Matabele War 1896–1897

The Second Matabele War broke out in March 1896, after a witchdoctor named Mlimo persuaded both the Matabele and Shona tribes that the white settlers were responsible for a drought, locust plagues, and a disease called rinderpest which had killed many cattle. The black tribes rose in rebellion and, within a week, over 240 whites had been killed around Bulawayo. Thousands of tribesmen laid siege to the town, where the white defenders drew up defensive positions made up of wagons and barbed wire. The blacks, fearing the Maxim guns, did not launch a frontal assault, and instead hoped to wear the whites down by a lengthy siege. They had not, however, realized that the telegraph wires which ran from the town provided the whites with communication to the outside world. As a result, the besieged town was able to summon aid from as far afield as the Cape Colony. After a six week siege, relief columns arrived, one under the command of Rhodes in person, and drove off the blacks.

Two whites, one an American named Frederick Burnham who was serving the British Army, and the other the BSAC's Native Commissioner, Bonnar Armstrong, then set off to find Mlimo after being tipped off as to the witchdoctor's whereabouts by a black informant. Burnham shot Mlimo dead in a cave, and the two scouts made good their escape despite being pursued by hundreds of angry tribesmen.

With their guiding witchdoctor leader gone, Rhodes rode into the middle of the Matabele camp and, in a remarkable act of bravery, sat down and negotiated a peace with the black tribe. This peace treaty was implemented in the northern and central parts of the territory, but in the south the uprising continued in fits and starts until 1898, when the last of the rebels were captured.

FORT VICTORIA—SETTLERS PREPARE FOR MATABELE ATTACK



White settlers man the defenses at Fort Victoria in preparation for an attack by blacks during the Matabele Wars. Fort Victoria was one of three strongholds established by the first Pioneer Column to formally settle Rhodesia.

White Presence Boosts Black Numbers

The number of whites in Rhodesia still only numbered in the thousands. At the same time, the black population underwent a dramatic increase in numbers because the white settlers provided food, medicine, and employment which stabilized tribal society. In

1890, it was estimated that the black population was anywhere between 100,000 and 200,000. Within fifty years, this number had grown into the millions.

A census carried out in May 1921 found that Rhodesia had a total population of 899,187. Of this number, some 33,620 were Europeans, 1,998 were of mixed races, 1,250 were Asiatic, and 761,790 were "Bantu natives," and a further 100,529 were "bantu aliens" (that is, not native to the territory). By 1955, the white population reached 150,000. It was never more than 300,000 at its height in the 1970s. By that time, the black population had reached upward of seven million. As the census figures showed, the blacks formed an ever-increasing proportion of the population.

White rule was only maintained through a firm policy of military subjugation and surprisingly large-scale black acquiescence. The black population would not, however, indefinitely accept white supremacy.

BSAC Loses Control of Rhodesia in 1923

In 1923, the British government refused to renew the BSAC's charter to govern Rhodesia and called a referendum among the white population in which they were asked if they wished to be amalgamated into the Union of South Africa. The referendum produced a definitive "no" vote.

The British then split Rhodesia into two regions, north and south. The south was granted self-government as "the British Colony of Southern Rhodesia," while the north was retained as a directly-ruled colony named the "British Colony of Northern Rhodesia." The self-governing territory of Southern Rhodesia still restricted the franchise to whites only, with a small number of nonwhites—mostly Indians or mixed-race people—granted the vote after meeting certain property qualifications.

The BSAC was plunged into a financial crisis as a result of the move, and ten years later sold its mineral rights in Southern Rhodesia to that country's government. The BSAC's mineral rights in Northern Rhodesia were maintained until 1964 when they were nationalized by the newly-appointed black government after that region had been renamed Zimbabwe.

Rhodesians Fight for Britain

As a loyal British colony, Southern Rhodesia called up 5,500 young white men—a significant proportion of that age group in the country at the time—and sent them to fight for Britain on the Western Front in France.

During World War II, double that number served in the British forces, with eleven Rhodesian Air Force pilots given "ace" status. Ian Smith, a Rhodesian-born pilot who served in the Royal Air Force as a fighter pilot during the Battle for Britain, later became prime minister of Rhodesia.

The Rhodesians also supplied men and material in 1951 to the British-led anti-Communist guerrilla war in Malaya while other units saw service in the 1951 Suez Emergency when British control of the Suez Canal zone was threatened by Egypt.

Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland Created

Britain embarked on a policy of decolonization throughout Africa at the end of the Second World War. In preparation for this process, the British Foreign Office amalgamated its three colonies north of the Limpopo River—Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, and the territory of Nyasaland—into a formal union known as the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (also known as the Central African Federation).

The British fully intended to bring the region to full independence under a system of universal franchise, which would mean majority rule. By now, however, the white minority in Southern Rhodesia was far too ensconced to accept rule by the black majority, and openly declared its opposition to such a move. The white inhabitants of Northern Rhodesia agreed to black rule without question as they were far fewer in number, and, for the most part, consisted of transient miners and others who left the country almost as quickly as they had arrived.

As a result, Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia were granted full independence by Britain in 1964. The new black governments in those territories immediately renamed them Malawi and Zambia and embarked on an Africanization program which quickly drove out most of the whites. These moves were taken by the Southern Rhodesian administration as evidence of the necessity to maintain white rule.

KARIBA—WORLD'S LARGEST HYDRO-ELECTRIC DAM 1959

Kariba Dam was built between 1955 and 1959 on the Zambesi River which divides Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) from Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). It is one of the largest dams in the world, and supplies hydroelectricity. The contract to build the dam was awarded to the Italian company Impresit, who completed construction in record time. The main wall is 420 feet high and 1,900 feet long.

Unilateral Declaration of Independence 1965

Negotiations between the British government and the self-governing Southern Rhodesian administration broke down over the issue of black majority rule. The Rhodesian government then called a referendum among white Rhodesians in which they were asked if they supported independence under white rule or not.

The vote was overwhelmingly in favor, and on November 11, 1965, Ian Smith, as prime minister of Southern Rhodesia, issued a Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI). Smith based the wording of the UDI document on the American Declaration of Independence and deliberately chose the timing of its release to coincide with Britain's official World War I and II annual Remembrance Day, to remind the British that the Rhodesians had loyally stood by them in the wars. The country's name was changed to Rhodesia, and although Smith declared loyalty to the British monarchy in the UDI document and wished to remain a member of the Commonwealth, both these overtures were rejected.

As a result, by 1970 Rhodesia declared itself a republic and changed its name once again to the Republic of Rhodesia. It also adopted a new flag which contained the now-famous phrase: *Sit Nomine Digna*, or "May It Be Worthy of the Name."

IAN SMITH SIGNS UNILATERAL DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

The leader of white Rhodesia, Ian Douglas Smith, signs the Unilateral Declaration of Independence, surrounded by his government colleagues. Born in Rhodesia to British parents, Smith joined the Royal Rhodesian Air Force and, after completion of his flying training, was seconded to the Royal Air Force with the rank of Pilot Officer during World War II. He served with distinction in the Royal Air Force. Back home after the war, he became leader of the Rhodesian Front party and was instrumental in creating the independent Republic of Rhodesia. A combination of international pressure and insurgent attacks forced him to hand over power to a black majority government in 1979.

Black Resistance Turns Violent in 1972

The new Rhodesian republic kept the previous voting system in place, which granted the franchise to whites and a tiny minority of nonwhites, on a separate voters' list known as the "B Roll."

Nonwhites who owned property or who were tribal chiefs were allowed to vote, but those who did were universally rejected by the rest of the black population as sellouts.

Black Resistance Turns Violent in 1972

Rhodesia was placed under international sanctions, but with the aid of white-ruled apartheid South Africa, circumvented most boycotts and actually grew economically, and in terms of its white population, in the period immediately after UDI.

However, the rise of nationalism which had swept through the rest of Africa had reached Rhodesia by the later 1960s, and on December 21, 1972, the Rhodesian bush war started in earnest with a series of attacks by black insurgents on rural farms. The guerrillas were based in the neighboring country of Zambia (formerly Northern Rhodesia), and were split into two major units, the Zimbabwe People's Revolutionary Army (ZIPRA), and the Zimbabwe African National Liberation Army (ZANLA). The latter army consisted only of recruits from the Matabele, while ZIPRA recruited mainly from the Shona.

ZIPRA and ZANLA were ideologically Marxist and Maoist organizations. ZIPRA was supplied and armed by the Soviet Union and its allies, while ZANLA was aided by Red China. There is no doubt that the black guerrilla war would never have been able to get off the ground without this massive boost from the Communist bloc. Although the arming of the black guerrilla organizations was part of an overall Communist strategy of opposing what it regarded as "racist colonialists," the Communist world also saw Rhodesia as another chance to bring yet one more African country into their circle of influence. Rhodesia then became a victim of the Cold War which set the US and its allies against the Communist bloc.

The insurgents also took advantage of the fact that the majority of the black population was well-disposed to the cause of majority rule, and that the white farmers all had thousands of black laborers, many of whom were only too eager to betray their masters.

The racially-segregated Rhodesian army was never defeated in any conventional military engagements with the black resistance. However, most of the war was fought on an unconventional basis, complicated by the fact that the guerrillas could blend in with the black civilian population who, for the most part, were enthusiastic supporters of either ZIPRA or ZANLA. Those blacks who were apathetic, or collaborated with the white minority, were routinely subjected to a number of appalling atrocities at the hands of the black guerrillas.

During 1973, the first of what became many "operational areas" within Rhodesia's borders was established. Code-named "Operation Hurricane," this counteroffensive was highly successful and the number of black insurgents dropped to less than one hundred within a year.

This success, however, was temporary. In 1974, the Portuguese withdrew from their colonial empire, which included Rhodesia's neighboring state of Mozambique.

The black government there allowed the insurgents in Rhodesia to set up bases and renew their offensive. As a result, five new operational areas had been opened inside Rhodesia by 1977.

The code names given these regions: Operations Thrasher, Repulse, Tangent, Splinter, and Grapple, gave the surest indication that the war now covered the entire country and was not going to be an easy victory like the nineteenth century Matabele Wars.

RHODESIAN ARMY—UNDEFEATED IN BATTLE

A picture of an airborne Rhodesian Special Air Services unit on their way to raid an insurgent base in Zambia at the height of the bush war. Rhodesia's superb fighting force was never defeated militarily, but this helped little when the demographic war had been lost.

Blacks Fight for and against White Rule

One of the more successful Rhodesian army units created to fight the black insurgency was, ironically, majority black in its makeup. The famous Selous Scouts, named after one of the Pioneer Column heroes, consisted of white officers and black troops.

The latter were mostly former ZIPRA and ZANLA insurgents who had been captured and "turned." The white officers were disguised in blackface makeup and they and their troops were put into the field, where they pretended to be insurgents.

There they would make contact with real insurgents and transmit their locations back by radio to the Rhodesian army, which would then send out conventional units from the all-white Rhodesian Light Infantry or the all-black Rhodesian African Rifles to deal with the "real" guerrillas.

The fact that so many blacks fought for the white minority government is most likely due to a combination of political ignorance and basic economics: the army was a good career and provided a decent standard of living beyond the reach of many other blacks.

By the mid-1970s, the war had intensified to the point where it was no longer safe for whites to travel in anything except convoys across the country, and the isolated white farms were besieged each night. Dirt roads were regularly mined, and the Rhodesian state became, ironically, the world's leader in the development and construction of mine-proof vehicles. In an attempt to relieve the internal pressure, the Rhodesian government authorized the first cross border raids into Mozambique and Zambia in 1976. The rationale of these raids was to strike at the guerrillas in their bases before they entered Rhodesia. At first, these raids were extremely successful from the Rhodesian military's point of view, and thousands of guerrillas were eliminated over the course of the next three years in this manner.

The Rhodesian Air Force (RAF) played a critical role in the war and the cross border raids. Equipped mainly with 1950s-era British aircraft, the RAF dominated the skies for the entire conflict, wreaking havoc as far afield as Zambia's main international airport during a famous cross border raid in 1978.

The black insurgency scored some notable successes, including the September 1978 shooting down of two civilian Air Rhodesian airliners by ZIPRA forces using Soviet-supplied heat-seeking missiles in 1978 and 1979. ZIPRA guerrillas machine-gunned the survivors of the first crash. Following those two attacks, Air Rhodesia modified the exhaust pipes of its aircraft to reduce their heat signature, and painted the aircraft with low-radiation paint in an attempt to prevent further such attacks, but by this stage the war was almost at an end.

Rhodesia Buckles under Demographic and International Pressure

The massive racial demographic disparities finally dawned upon even the most stubborn of Rhodesian politicians by 1979. A realization that the ever-increasing black population would never be satisfied with anything less than full political rights forced Rhodesian Prime Minister Ian Smith to accept the inevitable.

Smith's hand was also forced by the South African government's decision to withdraw material support to Rhodesia, something upon which the rebel state had been almost completely reliant. The white South Africans had taken this step in an attempt to relieve growing international pressure against its own internal policies —which was a misguided assumption.

With only three days' supplies of fuel and ammunition left, Smith called a referendum among the Rhodesian whites as to whether they wished to fight on or try and reach a settlement with the black majority. The referendum result endorsed Smith's view that a settlement was the only way forward.

The Rhodesian government then drew up a new constitution which reserved 20 of the 102 seats in its parliament for whites, and turned the remaining 70 over to black majority rule on the basis of universal suffrage. Despite an invitation from Smith to the leaders of ZIPRA and ZANLA to take part in the resultant election, these groups refused on the basis that the reservation of seats for whites did not amount to true majority rule.

A number of "moderate" blacks did take part in the election, which saw 1.8 million blacks participate out of a total 2.9 million on the electoral roll. The leader of the biggest party, Abel Muzorewa, was sworn in as the new prime minister, and the country was renamed Rhodesia–Zimbabwe. ZIPRA and ZANLA rejected the results, rejected Muzerowa as a puppet of the whites, and continued with the war.

The British government then invited all the parties to a conference in London. There, on December 21, a new constitution and a ceasefire were agreed to by all the parties. In terms of the settlement, known as the Lancaster House Agreement, twenty of the seats in the new parliament remained reserved for whites.

New elections were held in February 1980 which saw the Patriotic Front, made up of an alliance of the political wings of ZIPRA and ZANLA, take power with an overwhelming majority. The constitutional clause which reserved twenty seats in parliament for whites was abolished in 1986. Rhodesia was renamed Zimbabwe and launched an extensive Africanization program which ultimately resulted in the expulsion of almost all white farmers and the destruction of the economy. By 2010, the number of whites left in Zimbabwe had dwindled to a few thousand.

WHITE RHODESIANS LIVE UNDER SIEGE

The white Rhodesians failed to understand the relationship between demographics and political power. As a result, they were forced to live in siege conditions and often unable to venture into their own gardens for tea unless heavily armed, as illustrated above.

The Lesson of Rhodesia—White Supremacy Impossible to Maintain

The lesson of Rhodesia proves that no matter how technologically proficient, no matter how militarily-capable, no matter how determined, no minority can indefinitely resist the power of demographics. Rhodesian whites were imbued with the nineteenth century white supremacist belief that they had a paternalistic right to rule over nonwhites "for their own good." In this manner, white rule caused an explosion in black numbers as Western medicine, education, and technology boosted black numbers way beyond their natural reproduction levels. As a result, white supremacism created a racial demographic time bomb which swept away all vestiges of Western rule.

This reality underlines the truth that demographic replacement is the sole driver of cultural change and that the majority of the population determines the nature of the society.

It is a lesson that the Western world, which has imported vast numbers of nonwhites through mass immigration policies which started in the last part of the twentieth century, must learn. Failure to do so will result in them sharing the fate of the white Rhodesians.

CHAPTER 57: The Iron Law of Demographics—the Story of Australia

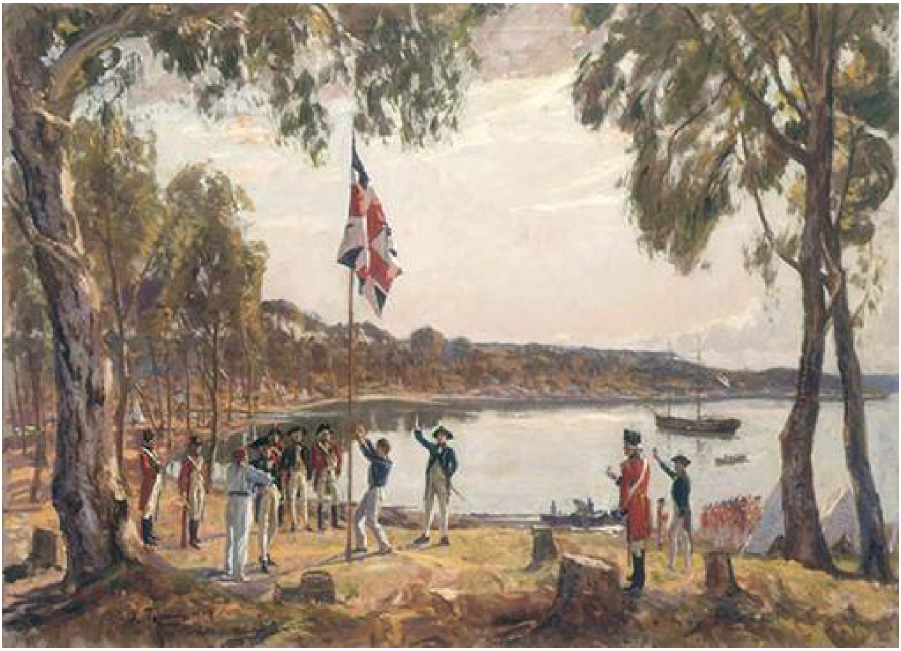
Australia and New Zealand were unique among the European colonies because they were the only areas of the New World where nonwhite slaves were never imported as part of the colonization process.

The result of this significant difference was that the new colonies in Australia and New Zealand were homogenous in their early years and for this reason, established a record for stability and progress virtually unmatched in history.

The racial history of Australia and New Zealand until the last quarter of the twentieth century is therefore focused on the interaction between the white immigrants and the native populations of the Aborigines in Australia and the Mãori in New Zealand.

It was only in the last part of the twentieth century that significant numbers of nonwhites from elsewhere in the world entered these territories. That development, even more than the existence of the original native populations, once again altered the racial dynamics of Australia and New Zealand—and not in favor of the Europeans.

CONVICTS MAKE UP FIRST WHITE SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA



Admiral Arthur Phillip, first governor of colony of New South Wales, the first European settlement on the Australian continent. Here, Phillip is shown stepping ashore in what became the city he founded, Sydney, named after the British Foreign Secretary.

First White Settlement—Penal Colonies

For many years, Australia was not regarded as an attractive place for white settlement even though it had been discovered as early as 1606. It was only after Britain lost her colonies in North America during the American War of Independence that serious consideration was given to the landmass as a potential colony.

As a result, the British authorities announced in 1786 that a penal colony would be established in Australia. The first wave of eleven Royal Navy ships carrying 759 convicts and 400 crew set sail from Portsmouth in May 1787. In January 1788, the British fleet dropped anchor in present-day Port Jackson on Australia's east coast.

Australia Day Celebrates First Landing

On January 26, the first permanent settlement was officially founded ashore, and named Sydney after the British Home Secretary Lord Sydney, whose idea it was to established the colony. January 26 is celebrated each year as Australia Day. The settlement was incorporated as the colony of New South Wales, which was based on the name given to the area by the explorer Captain James Cook in 1770.

These first settlers in New South Wales faced many difficulties, the most important of which was finding arable land to plant crops. As a result, for a long time, the only major natural food came in the form of fish and kangaroo.

The nearest viable agricultural land was on Norfolk Island, nearly one thousand miles away and, as a result, that island was duly adopted as the venue for a second settlement in February 1788.

PORT ARTHUR, TASMANIA—AUSTRALIA'S MOST FAMOUS PENAL COLONY

Port Arthur, located on Tasmania (then called Van Diemen's Land), was established in 1830 and shortly thereafter identified as a perfect location for a maximum security penal colony. A special prison was built (above) in which many of the worst offenders from Britain and Ireland were incarcerated, sometimes for decades at a time.

New South Wales Corps Established

In 1792, the British government created a new army regiment, the New South Wales Corps, with the specific intention of sending them to Australia to boost the settlement. As an additional incentive, the men were offered large tracts of land upon which they could establish farms.

This policy proved successful and soon a thriving agricultural community was established. The only real problem the farmers experienced was in the establishment of a suitable livestock population, as most of the animals imported from Britain failed to survive the harsh climate.

The administration's decision to import South African-bred sheep in 1810 transformed the farming community. Bred especially for a hot climate, the Merino thrived in Australia. Sheep farming has remained a major economic activity in Australia to the present day.

The New South Wales Corps were also used for peacekeeping duties in the sometimes rough-and-ready society of pioneer Australia. In 1804, they put down a rebellion by Irish convicts.

In 1821, the Corps were sent back to Britain, but many individual members bought their discharge and stayed on, choosing the relative freedom and prosperity of the New World to Britain which was still economically-depressed after the Napoleonic Wars.

Most convicts who had been deported to Australia stayed on when their sentences were completed. Many reformed and became respectable members of society. One of the first and most prominent examples was Francis Greenway, an architect who was sent to Australia after being convicted of forgery. Many of the forty-nine public buildings he designed became Sydney landmarks.

White Settlement Increases after Napoleonic Wars

The white settler population grew rapidly after the end of the Napoleonic Wars due to the economic recession which afflicted Britain at the conclusion of that conflict. The British government's offer of free land to settlers also drew a large number of volunteers. Ironically, the influx caused tension between the newcomers and the existing population of ex-convicts, who also wanted land. A British Foreign Office report into the situation from 1819 recommended a number of constitutional reforms which saw greater power being handed to the settlers. In addition, the report called for the establishment of penal colonies in more remote areas to reduce the tensions.

By 1850, Britain had sent 150,000 convicts to Australia. Twenty percent were women (a major factor in the resultant white population increase) and about one third were Irish. Most, like the prisoners and white slaves sent to early America, had been drawn from the lowest social strata in Britain's slums, which had been created in the wake of the Industrial Revolution. The deportation of criminals was halted after 1850, and all immigrants thereafter were voluntary.

Name of Australia Formally Adopted in 1824

The 1819 report on constitutional reform was also notable for the first use of the word Australia in a formal document to describe the territory. Although it had been called *Terra Australis* (or “land of the south”) by Matthew Flinders, the explorer who was the first to circumnavigate the landmass in 1802, it was only in 1818 that Governor Lachlan Macquarie requested that the name Australia be officially adopted. This recommendation was given formal effect in 1824 and from then on, the continent became known as Australia, although the colonies in different parts still retained their own constitutional institutions.

Rapid Growth across all Australia

A pioneer column visited Western Australia in 1827 with the intention of identifying potential sites for settlement. Two years later, ten thousand convicts and their supervisors were sent to establish the town of Perth. Despite this influx, the settlement was not a success, and it was only after the discovery of gold in 1890 that Western Australia became viable.

The first colony to be established exclusively by volunteer settlers was created in 1837 in South Australia. The region, which developed into a grain-producing area, took the town of Adelaide as its capital.

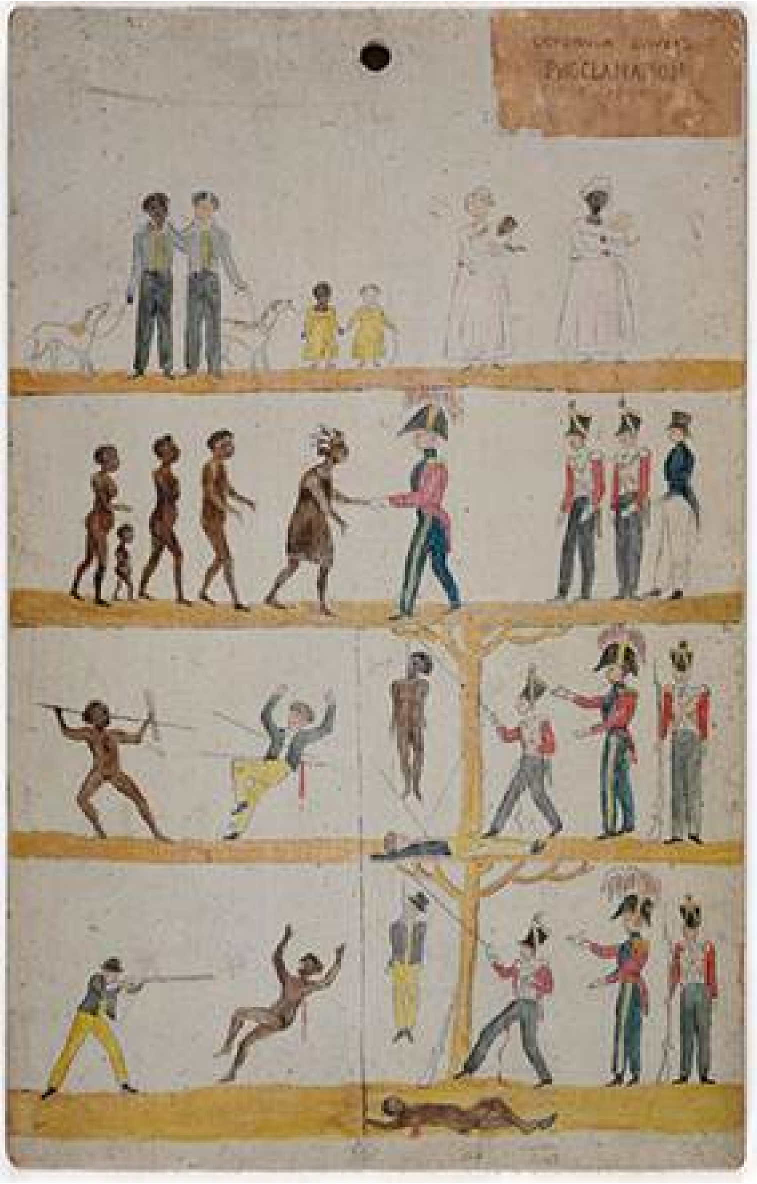
In 1836, the town of Melbourne was founded. The settlements surrounding this town grew rapidly, and by 1850 there were enough settlers there to establish the colony of Victoria. Meanwhile, the population growth in the original colony of New South Wales had been so great that it was broken in two, with the second part making up the colony of Queensland in 1859. The town of Brisbane was chosen as the new colony’s capital.

By the mid-1850s, an embryonic democratic form of government had been created and sanctioned by the British government in Australia. Each colony had a popularly elected parliament and state government, a format which has remained intact to the present day.

The dramatic rate of growth was illustrated by the population count. By 1861, the number of whites in Australia had reached 1.2 million. This was a massive increase over the 1850 population of just

400,000.

ABORIGINES TREATED EQUALLY UNDER LAW BY BRITISH



The British government launched many efforts to protect the Aborigines. Above is a pamphlet handed out to Aborigines in 1816, designed to promote friendship between whites and the natives. The illustrations were meant to show equality of all before the law.

British Authorities Take Steps to Protect Aborigines

Several clashes took place between the white settlers and the Aborigines within the first ten years following the European landing at Sydney in 1788. These engagements were very one-sided as the Aborigines were an extremely primitive people of barely Stone-Age level.

The white settlers, on the other hand, had the benefits of Western technology and civilization, which included clothes to protect themselves from the elements, the wheel which enabled rapid transport, ships, guns, building technology and agricultural knowledge.

The British authorities recognized the inferior and weak position of the Aborigines, and made every effort to protect the natives. This included the creation of the very first school for Aborigines, set up by Governor Lachlan Macquarie in the mid 1810s—long before any state schools were set up for white settlers in Australia. The British governors also laid down strict rules of conduct for the settlers in their interaction with the Aborigines, and would severely punish any white colonist found guilty of abusing a native.

As a result, very few acts of violence took place against the Aborigines, and when they did, the incidents could more often than not be linked to criminal acts committed by the natives. Later it was falsely claimed that the white settlers had "stolen" land from the Aborigines, but they had no concept of the private ownership of land, and were nomadic in existence.

This political naivety also explained why there was never any coordinated anti-colonization resistance among the Aborigines, unlike that given by the American Indians, Africans, and New Zealand Mãoris to their colonizers. The Aborigines were simply overwhelmed on every level by the arrival of the whites, and for the greatest part, meekly retreated into the vast interior of Australia.

Aborigine Apologists Invent Myth of Resistance to Colonization

Aborigine apologists, in the late twentieth century, attempted to claim that there was resistance to the colonization of Australia, and point to so-called rebellions led by the natives Pemulwuy (1790–1801) and Yagan (1831). However, a study of these "uprisings" reveals that they were actually just criminal gangs rather than racial resistance to white incursions.

This was proven beyond doubt in the 1797 "Battle of

Parramatta" when Pemulwuy led one hundred men, including a number of escaped white Irish convicts, into a fight with British soldiers. It is therefore fatuous to claim that there was any organized resistance to the European colonization of Australia, and all attempts to create this illusion are the product of political correct revisionism and have no basis in fact.

Aboriginal Population Declines after White Settlement

The Aboriginal population declined dramatically within the first hundred years of the white settlers' arrival, largely as a result from exposure to European diseases to which the natives had no resistance. The total number of Aborigines is also open to endless speculation, as there were, of course, no Aboriginal records of any sort. It is claimed that there were upward of 250,000 Aborigines in 1800, but a 1920 count put their numbers at around 60,000. It is theoretically possible that they could have dropped by so many in 120 years.

The white settlers found the presence of Aborigines near their settlements to be a nuisance: antisocial behavior in the form of petty crime and a rapidly-developed serious alcohol addiction often provoked the Europeans to exact severe punishments on the natives. These incidents sometimes escalated into a tit-for-tat series of reprisals, some of which assumed reasonably serious proportions.

About thirty such "serious" incidents were reported during the period 1790 to 1920, which, although they involved the loss of life into the double figures, was still comparatively few given the time period and number of people involved.

Tasmanian Aborigines Decimated by Disease

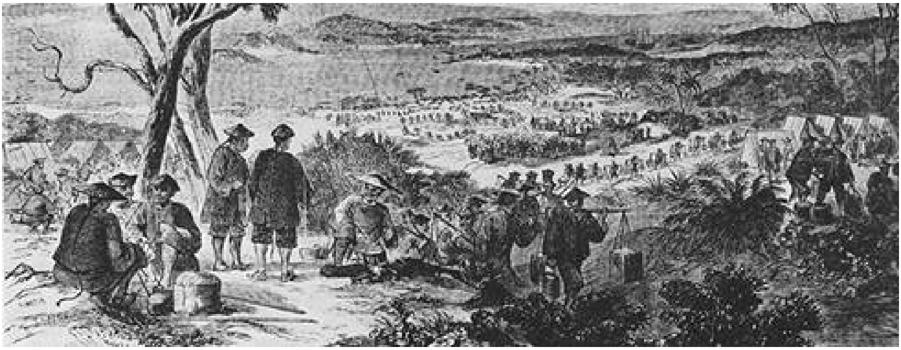
In 1825, the British government formally declared a new colony, Van Dieman's Land (which changed its name to Tasmania in 1854), on an island off the south coast of Australia. Van Dieman's Land had first been occupied as a penal colony in 1803.

The Aborigines living there were particularly afflicted by the advent of European diseases. The contagion was made even worse by the fact that the Aborigines were unable to move large distances precisely because they lived on an island.

Conflict with the European settlers also broke out early in 1801, and the combination of disease and war reduced the Aborigine numbers from around two thousand in 1800 to a few hundred by the

1830s. Although it has been claimed that the Europeans committed genocide by killing all the Tasmanian aborigines, official reports from the time and later research showed that disease was the true cause of their demise.

CHINESE INFLUX PROVOKES BACKLASH—“WHITE AUSTRALIA” POLICY DEVELOPED



The arrival of thousands of Chinese immigrants to work in the goldfields of Australia provoked a backlash, and from the mid-1850s, the government of Australia formally adopted a “White Australia” policy and specifically forbade nonwhite immigration. This policy was only revoked a century later.

“White Australia” Policy Started in 1856 after Chinese Influx

The discovery of silver and copper in South Australia in the 1840s led to the creation of the mining industry in that colony. However, it was the discovery of gold in 1851 near Ophir, New South Wales, and in Victoria, that sparked off a massive influx of fortune seekers from across the globe.

Among these new incomers were masses of Chinese who poured into Victoria to work on the newly-discovered goldfields.

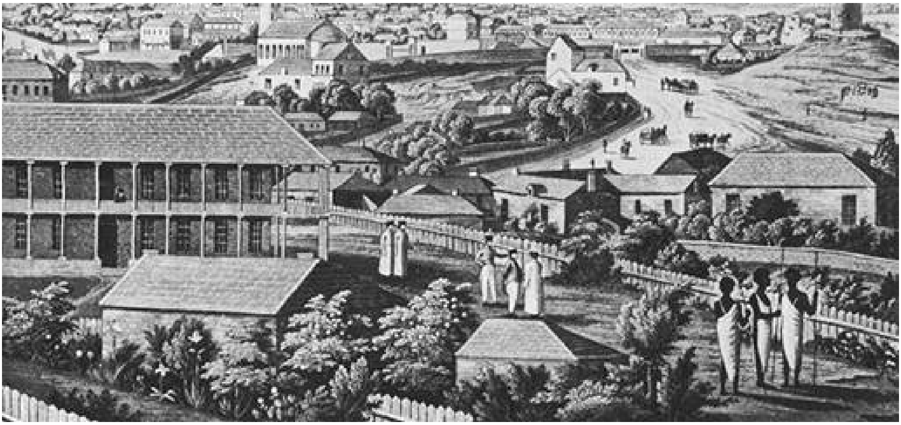
The number of Chinese grew rapidly, and in a short space of time the authorities found themselves trying to deal with Triad gangs, drug smuggling, and a host of crimes which the more unsavory elements had brought with them.

Public agitation against the Chinese influx increased and, in 1856, the state of Victoria passed a law which prohibited Chinese people from entering its territory. This exclusion law was then adopted by every other colony in Australia.

In the 1860s, the Government of Queensland imported

Polynesians to work on sugarcane plantations. Another public outcry followed, and the Polynesians were sent back. After this debacle, the Chinese exclusion laws were extended to include all non-Europeans. It was these laws which became known colloquially as the "White Australia" policy.

EUROPEANS BUILD CITY OF SYDNEY IN LESS THAN THIRTY YEARS



An ink sketch of the city of Sydney in the early 1820s shows how the colony had developed within thirty-five years of the first white settlements in Australia. What the Aborigines (bottom right of the picture) must have thought of the city, which seemed to spring out of nowhere, is not recorded, but requires little imagination to guess.

Unification of Australia

The need for a common immigration policy, as underlined by the ready acceptance of the "White Australia" policy, made many realize that the time had come for political unity between the colonies. In addition, the establishment of trade unions and organized labor movements created a need for common social policies.

As a result, negotiations were started in the last few years of the nineteenth century on the formation of a political union and, by 1898, representatives from all the colonies had thrashed out a constitution and submitted it to the British Parliament for ratification.

The new state, known as the Commonwealth of Australia, was given sanction by the British Parliament in 1900 and officially implemented on January 1, 1901.

1901 Australian Constitution Excludes Aborigines from

Census

Aborigines remained on the sidelines of Australian society, and were only mentioned briefly in the new constitution. In terms of Section 127 of that document, headed "Aborigines not to be counted in reckoning population," the natives were specifically excluded from the census as follows: "In reckoning the numbers of the people of the Commonwealth, or of a State or other part of the Commonwealth, aboriginal natives shall not be counted."

In addition, section 51, paragraph 26, of the 1901 constitution specified that the central parliament could not make any laws concerning the Aborigines, and that the individual states had the sole prerogative in this regard.

The section read as follows: "The Parliament shall, subject to this Constitution, have power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of the Commonwealth with respect to . . . [t]he people of any race, other than the Aboriginal race in any State, for whom it is deemed necessary to make special laws."

These clauses were added in order to exclude Aborigines from the central federal political process. Each state was allocated seats in the parliament according to the size of its population, and those states with few Aborigines sought to prevent those states with large native populations from claiming a greater share of the central government's finances. As a result, official Australian population statistics excluded "full-blood aboriginal natives" from the census until 1967, when a referendum was held to amend sections 15 and 127.

Aborigines were in theory granted the right to vote along with all other adults in terms of section 41 of the constitution. However, this was interpreted by Australia's first Solicitor-General, Sir Robert Garran, to mean that the right to vote for the federal government was given to those who were already state voters before the union.

A period of confusion followed until 1949, when the Australian government introduced a law aimed at creating a separate Australian citizenship for the first time (until then, all Australians had been British citizens). Included in this new law was a clause which spelled out that voting rights at the federal level were granted to all those who could vote at state level.

This clause was amended once again in 1962 with the Commonwealth Electoral Act, which ruled that Aborigines had the right to vote in federal elections even if they did not have that right at state level. This passage of this law meant that in some areas at least, Aborigines were still not on the voters' roll, for reasons which have never been clear.

This right to vote in state elections was confirmed in law in 1962 in the state of Western Australia and in 1965 in the state of Queensland.

Early Immigration Laws Give Practical Effect to "White Australia" Policy

Two acts passed by the new Australian parliament gave practical effect to the "White Australia" policy. The first was the Immigration Restriction Act, which did not specifically mention race but contained a "dictation clause" that had the practical effect of excluding anyone who was not fluent in a European language.

This required a would-be immigrant to write out a fifty word sentence read to them in any European language selected by the immigration officer. The official was given complete discretion as to who had to take the test, but in reality it was only ever given to non-Europeans. The dictation could also be conducted in any European language, so, for example, a German-language test could be given to a Chinese would-be immigrant and so on. By 1909, only fifty-two individuals managed to pass the dictation test, and after that year, none were able to pass it at all.

One of the most famous refusals was that of the Austrian Jewish Communist Party founding member, Egon Kisch, who fled the rise of Nazi Germany and attempted to visit Australia in 1934. Kisch was given several dictation tests and passed them all until a final test was applied in Scottish Gaelic, which he failed. He then brought a High Court case against the state and claimed that the Gaelic test was not within the fair meaning of the act. The court agreed with him, and overturned the order barring him from visiting Australia.

The dictation test was only abolished in 1958 when a new law, the Migration Act, was passed which introduced a quota system for all new immigration into Australia.

The second law which gave force to the "White Australia" policy was the 1901 Pacific Island Labourers Act. This law was drawn up after concerns were raised over the ten thousand Polynesians and other natives from New Guinea, Tonga, Fiji and a number of surrounding islands, all of whom had entered Australia as laborers before 1900.

The act declared that all these people were to leave Australia by December 31, 1906 and prohibited their further immigration after March 31, 1904. The law also ruled that any Pacific Islanders who entered Australia between the enactment of the law and March 1904, had to obtain a special license.

The number of licenses granted was set at a figure which was always lower than the number of Pacific Islanders who had left the country the previous year. Finally, the law ruled that any persons covered by the act who were found in Australia after 1906, were to be deported without delay.

GALLIPOLI DISASTER FORGES THE NATION

Australian and New Zealand participation in the disaster of the Gallipoli Campaign—which was an attempted invasion of the Turkish mainland during World War I—forged the antipodean nations into a heightened sense of national consciousness. The brutality of the battle, which ended in an Allied defeat, is illustrated by this makeshift burial ceremony during a lull in the fighting.

World War I—Australian Contribution to Allied Victory

Australia sent just over a third of a million soldiers to fight on Britain's side during the First World War. The Australian divisions won renown in many of the most horrendous battles of the Western

Front, but will always be remembered for their part in the aborted invasion of Ottoman Turkey at Gallipoli in 1915.

The Gallipoli campaign saw Allied soldiers land on the Dardanelles in an attempt to bring an early end to Turkey's participation in the war on the side of Germany and Austro–Hungary. The Turks were, however, well-prepared for such an invasion. When the landing parties came ashore on April 25, 1915, they were met by a devastating counterattack which trapped them on the beaches. After a murderous nine months in which the Allied forces never advanced much past their landing positions, they were withdrawn. More than eight thousand Australians were killed in the campaign and another nineteen thousand injured. Gallipoli was more than just another battle: it marked a change in the psyche of the Australian nation and was regarded as their coming of age.

The day of the Gallipoli landings, April 25, is still celebrated in somber remembrance ceremonies every year in Australia as the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) Day.

The Gallipoli disaster dented Australian enthusiasm for the war and a 1917 attempt to introduce conscription in Australia was rejected after popular protests broke out.

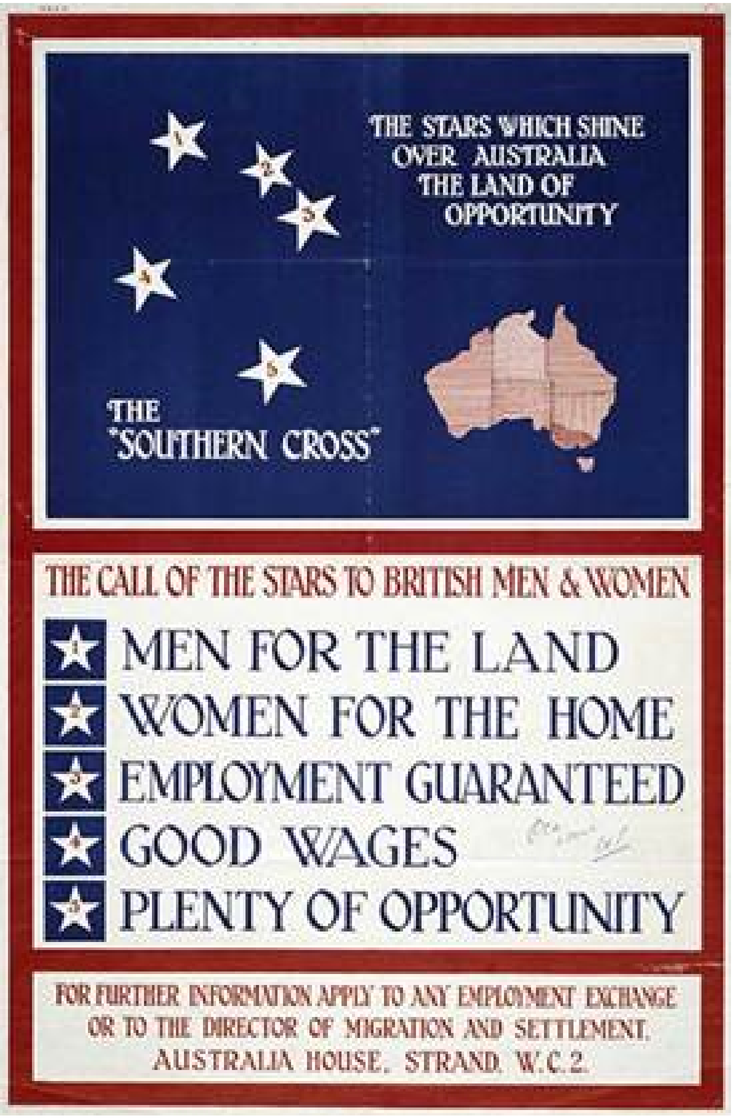
World War II—Japan Threatens Invasion

Despite the grievous losses of the First World War, Australians volunteered once again in their hundreds of thousands to come to the support of Britain in the Second World War. At least 575,000 Australian troops served in the European and Asian theaters of war.

The war was brought to Australia by Japan's entry into the conflict in December 1941. The Japanese occupied a number of island states in South East Asia during the early part of 1942 which brought their aircraft within operating range of Australia. The northern town of Darwin was first bombed by the Japanese air force in February 1942. At least 240 people were killed in that raid. Dozens of further attacks on Darwin and other northern towns took place through to November 1943.

In addition, General Douglas MacArthur, the supreme commander of US forces in the Pacific, and his staff used Australia for their base of operations after being expelled from the Philippines by the Japanese.

ONE MILLION "TEN POUND POMS" ENTER AUSTRALIA


THE STARS WHICH SHINE OVER AUSTRALIA THE LAND OF OPPORTUNITY
THE "SOUTHERN CROSS"
1
2
3
4
5
THE CALL OF THE STARS TO BRITISH MEN & WOMEN
1 MEN FOR THE LAND
2 WOMEN FOR THE HOME
3 EMPLOYMENT GUARANTEED
4 GOOD WAGES
5 PLENTY OF OPPORTUNITY
FOR FURTHER INFORMATION APPLY TO ANY EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE OR TO THE DIRECTOR OF MIGRATION AND SETTLEMENT, AUSTRALIA HOUSE, STRAND, W.C.2.

A poster issued by Australia House in London calling on "British men and women" to emigrate to Australia as part of a subsidized program to increase the white population after World War II. The "ten pound" label comes from the cost of the ship fare.

Massive White Immigration after World War II

The threat of an Asiatic invasion during the Second World War underlined the "yellow peril" propaganda and spurred the Australian government on to start a program which encouraged European immigration to Australia. As a result, thousands of whites who had fled the Soviet Union's military seizure of most of Eastern Europe, moved to Australia. In addition, many thousands of Greeks settled in Australia after the war and established large communities in the western cities.

In the 1950s, a new wave of British immigrants, known as the "ten pound poms" entered Australia. This was the last of the officially sponsored and preferential emigration programs entered into between the British and the Australian governments, and lasted until 1972. In terms of the program, the British and Australian authorities arranged the immigrants' transportation by ship upon payment of a ten pound fare, hence the name.

Around one million white British people settled in Australia during the course of the program. The sudden increase in white numbers ushered in a new age of prosperity for Australia known as the "long boom."

"White Australia" Policy Abandoned

The period of peace and prosperity in Australia following the end of the Second World War created a more liberal society, and in 1966, the "White Australia" policy was largely abandoned when parliament adopted a new Migration Act. This law removed most of the restrictions on non-European immigration and introduced immigration rules which sidestepped the issue of the racial or national origin of all newcomers.

After it appeared that immigration officials were still using the amended rules to make it difficult for non-Europeans to settle in Australia, a law was passed in 1973 which ordered all immigration officials to disregard race as a factor in the selection of migrants. This law marked the formal end of the "White Australia" policy and, as a result, the majority of immigrants since the last quarter of the twentieth century have been non-European in origin. The long-term effects of this are discussed later in this work.

Australia Act Ends Britain's Constitutional Role and the 1999 Referendum

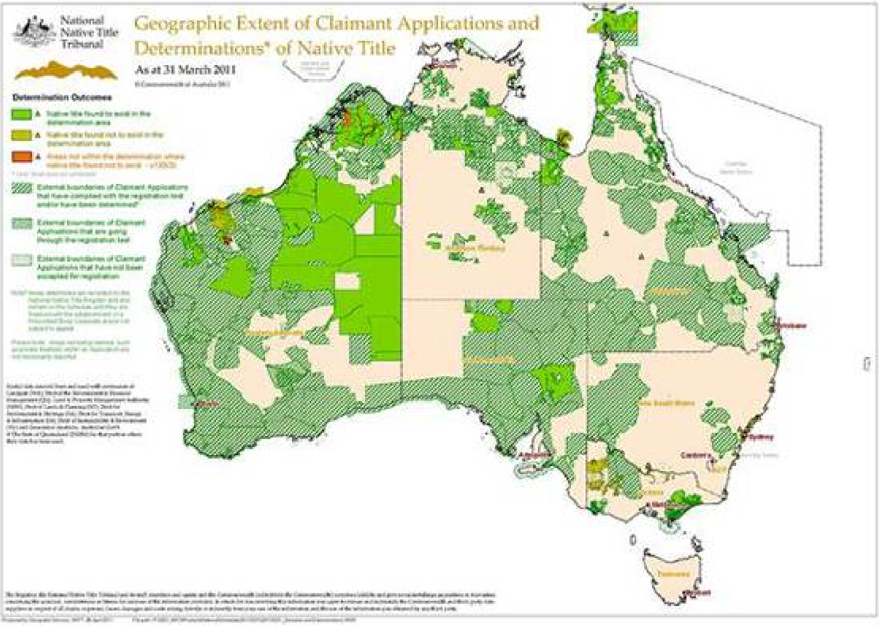
Since the union of the colonies in 1901, Australia has been a Commonwealth with the British monarchy as its head of state. Support for this has never been complete, especially given the large Irish-origin part of the white Australian population. As a result, there has always been a significant pro-republican element in Australia.

In addition, the abolition of the "White Australia" policy, which gave preference to British immigration, loosened the bonds between later immigrants and Britain. All these factors combined to produce a set of laws known collectively as the Australia Act of 1986. These laws ended the powers of the British parliament over Australia which had been in place since the 1931 Statute of Westminster. In addition, the law made the Australian High Court the final court of appeal. Prior to this, the highest court of appeal was the Privy Council in London.

The demand for a republic did not go away and, in 1999, the government held a referendum in which the voters were specifically asked to vote on the question of whether or not Australia should become a republic. The results produced a slim majority in favor of keeping the link with Britain. Some 5,273,024 votes were cast for a republic, as opposed to 6,410,787 against.

It was no coincidence that the only places to return overwhelming "yes" votes in this referendum were the major cities and the two big New South Wales provincial industrial areas of Newcastle and Wollongong. In all these areas, the population makeup had been significantly affected by Third World immigration, which unquestionably boosted the pro-republican vote.

ABORIGINE LAND CLAIMS TOTAL 65 PERCENT OF AUSTRALIAN LANDMASS


National Native Title Tribunal
Geographic Extent of Claimant Applications and Determinations* of Native Title
As at 31 March 2011
Determination Outcomes
Native title found to exist in the determination area
Native title found not to exist in the determination area
External boundaries of Claimant Applications that have complied with the registration test and/or have been determined*
External boundaries of Claimant Applications that are going through the registration test
External boundaries of Claimant Applications that have not been accepted for registration
Brisbane
Sydney
Canberra
Adelaide
Melbourne
Hobart
Perth

This official map issued by the Australian National Native Title Tribunal early in 2011 reveals the territories either already apportioned to Aborigines, or under claim by that community. The land allocations have speeded up since the Mabo v Queensland High Court of Australian decision in 1992 which rejected, for the first time in Australian law, the terra nullius *("land which belongs to no-one) concept and specifically approved Aborigine claim to land ownership. This was a highly doubtful decision, given the lack of sophistication among Aborigines and the total lack of understanding of private land ownership prior to the European arrival. However, the decision has stood unchallenged, mainly due to the pressures of political correctness.*

Aboriginal Land Claims on 65 Percent of Landmass

The early 1970s saw an upsurge in Aborigine rights' organizations and a demand for what was called "native title" or land ownership. This concept was, of course, completely foreign to the original Aborigines, but decades of liberal propaganda convinced Aborigines—and large numbers of white Australians—that the "native title" had basis in some legal history.

This distortion aside, it is a fact that according to common law, basic morality, and the United Nations' Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, the Aborigines do indeed have a claim on land. Determining the nature and extent of these claims, however, has proven troublesome. Furthermore, the large number of mixed-race people of part-Aboriginal descent who have been classified as Aborigines since the 1970s, has further complicated matters. For example, does someone who is a quarter Aborigine have the same land rights as someone who is a full-blooded Aborigine? This problem has never been solved.

The Australian legal system has sidestepped these issues by simply declaring that anyone who claims to be an Aborigine is one, and has granted that person the right of "native title." This concession was made in terms of a law called the Native Title Act of 1993, which specifically referred to parliament's ability to "make special laws for peoples of the aboriginal race."

According to the 2006 Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) census, the "Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander" population in Australia stood at 517,200 or 2.5 percent of the total Australian population. The ABS ascribed the growth in numbers to high fertility levels. The amount of land claimed by the Aborigines, as of early 2011, encompassed nearly 65 percent of the total landmass of

Australia. Some fifteen percent of Australia has already been apportioned to sole Aboriginal control. The remainder is, in theory at least, likely to be reassigned to Aboriginal control in terms of the Native Title Act.

The Australian government "leases" the Aboriginal land back from that community. These payments take the form of cash handouts, welfare, subsidies, and a host of special arrangements which amount to a *de facto* subsidized existence for the Aboriginal population.

The Aboriginal land claims serve, however, to illustrate once again the reality that demographic occupation holds the key to determining the nature of the civilization in any area. The land might very well legally belong to Aborigines, but they do not have the numbers to majority occupy it. This means that the dominant culture in Australia will never be Aboriginal, even if they have legal title to the territory.

Attempts to Create Aboriginal Representative Council Fail

In a move which would have been dismissed as "racist" if white Australians had attempted it, the Australian government created the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ASTIC) in 1989 by an act of parliament. This body was instructed to hold elections for thirty-five regional councils in 1996, with only "registered" Aborigines allowed to vote. Despite wide promotion in the Aboriginal community, only about 25 percent bothered to vote in the resultant elections.

In 2003, the ASTIC's serving Aboriginal chairman, Geoff Clark, was removed from office after accusations were made that he had been involved in gang rapes as a youth. Shortly afterward, ASTIC was plunged into a major corruption crisis and was disbanded in 2005.

The attempt to create a racially-exclusive Aboriginal governing body failed and all administrative functions were transferred to the Office of Indigenous Policy Coordination (OIPC) which is a division of the Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs.

Troubled Aborigine Community

Over a century of aid programs and subsidies to the Aborigines by the white Australians have failed to substantially uplift that community. These policies included a controversial program in the first part of the twentieth century of removing Aboriginal children from wayward parents’ control and putting them under white foster care. This policy has, quite incorrectly, become known as the “stolen generation” program. Although this policy was no different to steps taken by the department of welfare to protect vulnerable children with wayward parents in white communities, the racial undertones have been exploited by Aboriginal activists and liberals alike as evidence of “racism.” No accurate figures even exist on how many Aboriginal children were removed to foster care, and the program was implemented haphazardly from state to state.

Aborigines have consistently performed worse at school and higher education than all other Australian residents, including recent Asian immigrants. According to the official government figures released in 2004, the performance of indigenous students in national literacy and numeracy tests conducted in school years three, five, and seven was inferior to that of their peers. In 2006, unemployment among Aborigines was 46 percent.

Aboriginal hospitalizations for what the Australian Human Rights Commission has described as “mental and behavioural disorders due to psychoactive substance use” were, in 2008, five times higher than the rest of the population. In addition, hospitalization rates for “intentional self-harm” among Aborigines were three times higher than the rest of the population.

Aboriginal Imprisonment Rates Highest in World

In 2009, Aboriginal imprisonment rates were fourteen times higher than the rest of the population, and a 2004 report found that Aborigines were eleven times more likely to be in prison. Although they form around 2 percent of the population, Aborigines have consistently made up over a quarter of Australia’s prison inmates.

Finally, the levels of substance abuse, including alcohol, “fuel-sniffing,” and other drugs, are extraordinarily high among Aborigines. In the Northern Territory, alcohol-free fuel, called Opal, has been introduced at great cost by the Australian government in an attempt to halt the epidemic.

None of these social ills can be blamed on “racism” or their environment, which is now, thanks to decades of subsidies and handouts, identical or even better than that of many white Australians. A more likely explanation can be found in the fact that the Aboriginal IQ is the second lowest in the world at 62 (compared to East Asians who have a mean IQ of 105, Europeans who have a mean IQ of 100, and sub-Saharan Africans who have an IQ of 67. Only the

Bushmen of the Kalahari Desert and the Pygmies of the Congo rain forests have lower IQs—54—than the Aborigines). This unpalatable fact is dismissed and ignored in politically-correct present-day liberalism.

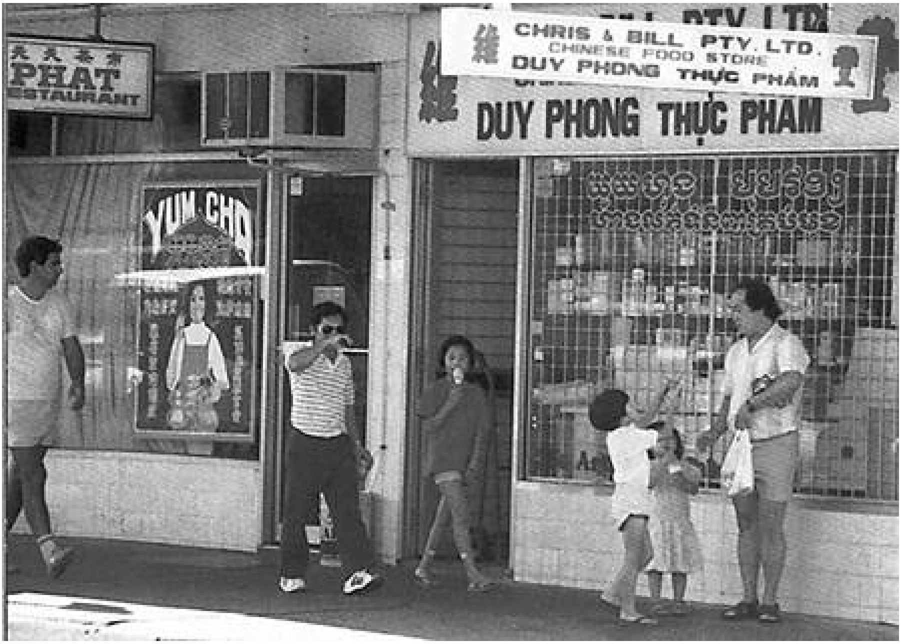
Homogeneity Key to Stability

The development of Australia into a modern First World nation contrasts dramatically with countries which were, in some cases, established hundreds of years earlier. If, as the liberal worldview claims, time, geography, or other environmental factors were the sole determinant of the development of a society, it would be logical to assume that a nation such as Haiti, which has been independent since 1804, would be more developed than Australia, which was only formalized into a union in 1901. The fact that the levels of development in these two countries differ so vastly can only be ascribed to the populations of these regions—and to no other factor. This is particularly so if it is borne in mind that, by any measure, Australia is a far less hospitable place than Haiti.

The present-day state of Australia has developed as fast as any European nation and is classed as First World even though it was only created during the early part of the nineteenth century. It is living proof that any society is only a reflection of the people who live in it, rather than exclusively a product of the environment.

Australia’s rapid development is also due to the fact that it remained relatively racially homogenous for most of its growth period. This situation changed with the abolition of the “White Australia” policy, and by the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century, Asian immigration in particular had substantially altered the face of many cities. This development and its implications are discussed later in this work.

ASIAN INFLUX INTO AUSTRALIA


PHAT
RESTAURANT
YUM CHA
CHRIS & BILL PTY. LTD.
CHINESE FOOD STORE
DUY PHONG THỰC PHẨM
DUY PHONG THỰC PHẨM

Asians make up one of the major present-day immigrant streams into Australia, as reflected in this Sydney street scene from early 2002.

CHAPTER 58:Murderer’s Bay: The Race War in New Zealand

The European settlement of New Zealand differed greatly from that of Australia because the native population, known as the Mãori, offered real, violent, and determined resistance to white encroachment.

The Mãori first entered New Zealand around the year 1280 AD, which meant that they had been there for less than four hundred years before the first Europeans arrived. Nonetheless, they are fully accepted as the indigenous population of that country.

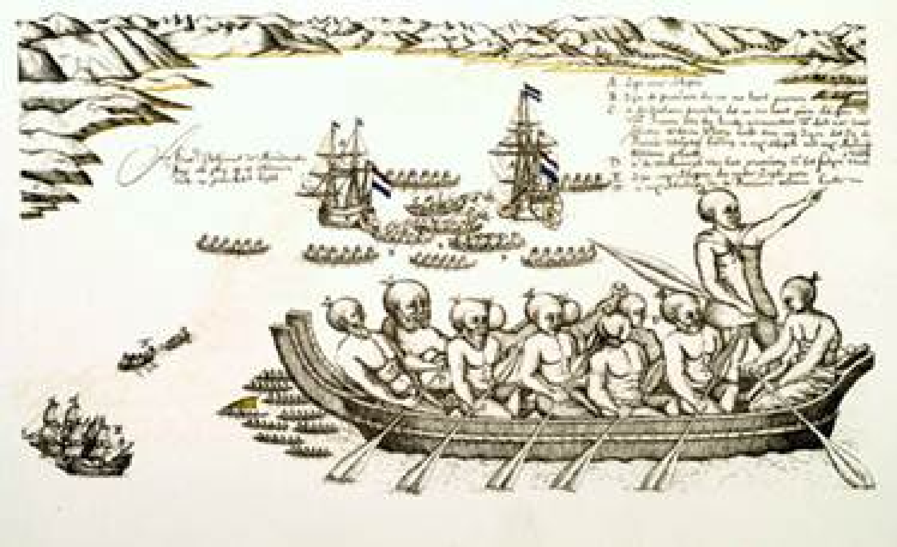
First European Contact with the Mãori

The first European explorer to reach New Zealand was the Dutchman Abel Tasman, who anchored his small fleet of ships off what is today the South Island’s GoldenBay on December 17, 1642. The next day, four Mãori canoes approached the Dutch ships, and according to Tasman, “blew several times on an instrument . . . we then ordered our sailors to play them some tunes in answer.” The Dutch then fired a cannon out to sea, at which the Mãori fled in terror.

The next day, another Mãori canoe approached the Dutch ships, but returned to land. Tasman ordered his ships closer inshore, because, as he wrote, “these people apparently sought our friendship.” Tasman ordered two smaller boats into the water to meet another two Mãori canoes which had set off from the shore. Without warning, one of the Mãori canoes rammed one of the small Dutch boats and attacked the crew with clubs and spears. The attack killed four white men, and the Mãori took one of the bodies back to the shore with them.

Tasman ordered the Dutch ships to leave “since we could not hope to enter into friendly relations with these people, or to be able to get water or refreshments here.” As they were leaving, a number of Mãori canoes paddled out once again, but the Dutch fired upon the natives and chased them away. Tasman named the bay *Moordenaersbaai* (“Murderers Bay”) and wrote in his journal that the encounter “must teach us to consider the inhabitants of this country as enemies.”

This unfortunate event would set the tone for many future interactions between white settlers and the Mãori—and contrasted strongly with the reaction of the Australian Aborigines to European settlement.



A sketch of natives in a boat by one of the crew of Dutch explorer Abel Tasman, made at the time of the attack on the white explorers at what is today Golden Bay in New Zealand. The original Dutch caption reads: "A view of the Murderers’ Bay, as you are at anchor here in 15 fathom."

England’s Captain James Cook Meets with the Mãori

The next European contact with the Mãori occurred in 1769 when the British explorer Captain James Cook, in his famous ship the *Endeavour,* anchored off what is today known as PovertyBay on New Zealand’s NorthIsland. Smoke was observed rising from the coastline, and Cook took this to mean that the country was inhabited. He and a number of crewmen went ashore in two small boats to explore. Once landed, the Europeans set off on foot, leaving four sailors to guard the boats on the beach.

A group of Mãori appeared out of the bushes and attacked the four sailors guarding the boats. The white men were prepared for an attack, and fought off the tribesmen, killing one with a gunshot which terrified the others into running away.

Cooks’ party heard the gunfire and returned quickly to the beach and, from there, back to the Endeavour. The next day, more Mãori were sighted on the beach, and a new attempt was made to establish contact with them. Cook had taken two Tahitians onboard at an earlier stop in his voyage, and their language was fairly similar to

Mãori. They were thus able to provide a basic translation service, and the Tahitians accompanied Cook and some members of his crew who went ashore once again to meet with the Mãori.

This tense second meeting on the beach descended into a fight when one of the Mãori suddenly attempted to grab a sword from one of the sailors. The whites were forced to open fire on the natives, and after the sword thief was shot dead, the Mãori fled.

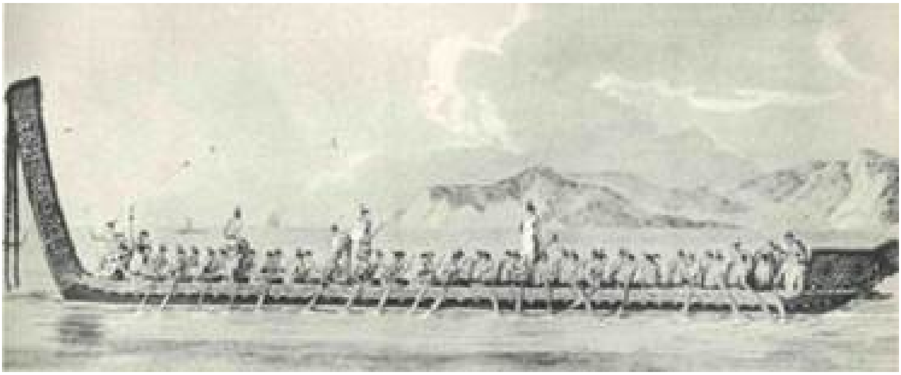
Cook and his men retreated back to their ship again in order to consider their next move. Then they noticed that two Mãori canoes had entered the water and approached the ship. Cook determined to bring the Mãori on board, gain their trust by offering them gifts, and let them go in the hope that they would tell the other tribesmen that the Europeans were friendly.

This plan nearly came to naught when the Mãori attacked one of the small boats sent out to meet them. Once again, the whites were forced to open fire, and several more Mãori were killed. However, some Mãori who jumped overboard to avoid the gunfire were captured and taken on board the British ship.

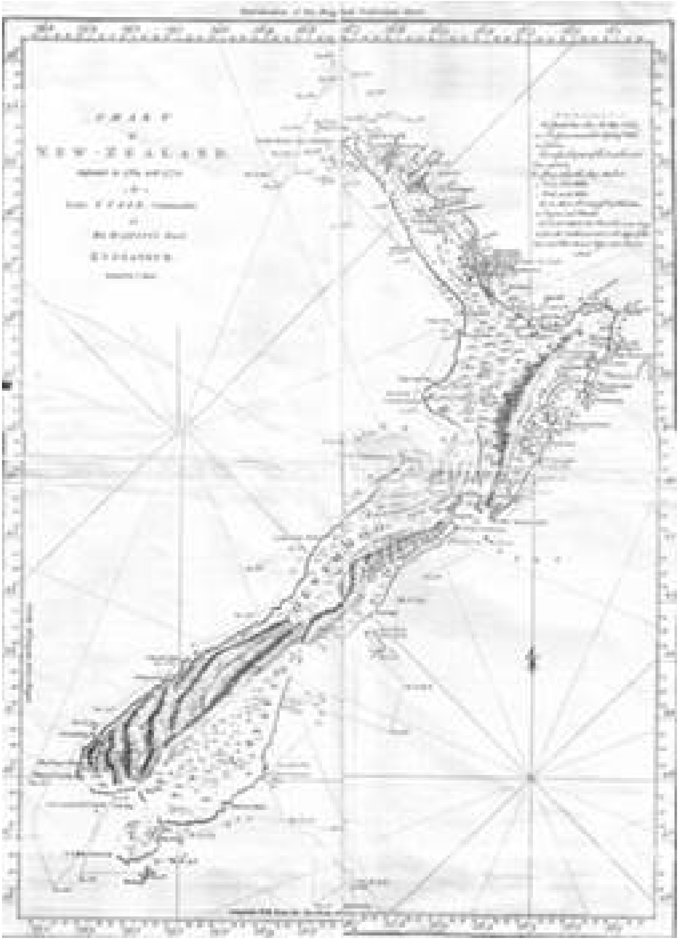
There, Cook put his plan into effect. He offered them gifts, food, and drink, and in a short while the Mãori accepted that the white men were friendly. They were taken back and handed over to a large group of fellow tribesmen gathered on the shore, in the first ever nonviolent encounter between Europeans and the Mãori. After this, Cook ordered his ship to leave.

The *Endeavour* continued on to what is today Hawkes Bay on the east coast of the North Island where contact was made with a new Mãori tribe. Cook’s men had almost completed a trade for fish when the Mãori seized one of the Tahitian translators. The kidnappers attempted to paddle away with their prisoner, but the Europeans opened fire. Another Mãori was killed, and in the melee, the Tahitian escaped and swam back to the British boat. Cook named the area Kidnapper's Bay, and so ended yet another attempt to make contact with the Mãori.

Finally, on January 14, 1770, a group of friendly Mãori were found at an inlet which Cook named Queen Charlotte's Sound on the South Island. There, the Europeans were able to peacefully interact with the Mãori and engaged in trade for fish and vegetables. Cook sailed back to Britain to bring news of his discoveries, and on his second voyage two years later, circumnavigated and charted New Zealand.



Above: A Maori war canoe, drawn by Captain James Cook's official artist, William Hodges, who accompanied the explorer on his second visit to New Zealand. Stationary European vessels were often attacked by Mãori boats such as these. Below, the first map of New Zealand, drawn by Cook after he circumnavigated the islands on his second journey.



European Weapons Spark Musket Wars among Mãori

For forty years after Cook's visit, trading ships from Britain,France, and America were the main form of European contact with the new lands. The Mãori were particularly interested in acquiring items such as metal knives, axes, and guns.

The latter weapon had a huge influence on tribal warfare in New Zealand, particularly when employed by tribesmen against their enemies who had never seen a musket before. The Musket Wars were a series of intertribal wars which raged between 1807 and 1842 in which guns were deployed for the first time by bands of Mãori.

Although records are sketchy (as the Mãori kept none and the only accounts were picked up as hearsay by white pioneers), it appears that there were five major wars during this time, and very heavy casualties were inflicted. Some tribes, such as the Moriori on the Chatham Islands, were completely exterminated by other Mãori in this conflict, and it is speculated that the entire Mãori population halved as a result of these wars.

Marc-Joseph Marion du Fresne and Assassination Cove

Cannibalism was a standard feature of Mãori warfare, a fact which the Europeans had already discovered in the eighteenth century. One of the first recorded episodes occurred on the North Island of New Zealand in 1772. Explorer Marc-Joseph Marion du Fresne had been sent to explore Australia and New Zealand by the French administration of Mauritius.

He anchored at the Bay of Islands and initially established friendly contacts with the few Mãori his expedition encountered. However, a group of Mãori attacked the French explorers while they were fishing in Manawaora Bay. Du Fresne and more than two dozen of his men were killed and then eaten by the Mãori. This act provoked a furious response from the rest of the French expedition, who launched a revenge attack in which hundreds of tribesmen were killed. The French named the bay *Anse des Assassinats* ("Assassination Cove"), a name it has kept to the present day.

The Boyd *Massacre*

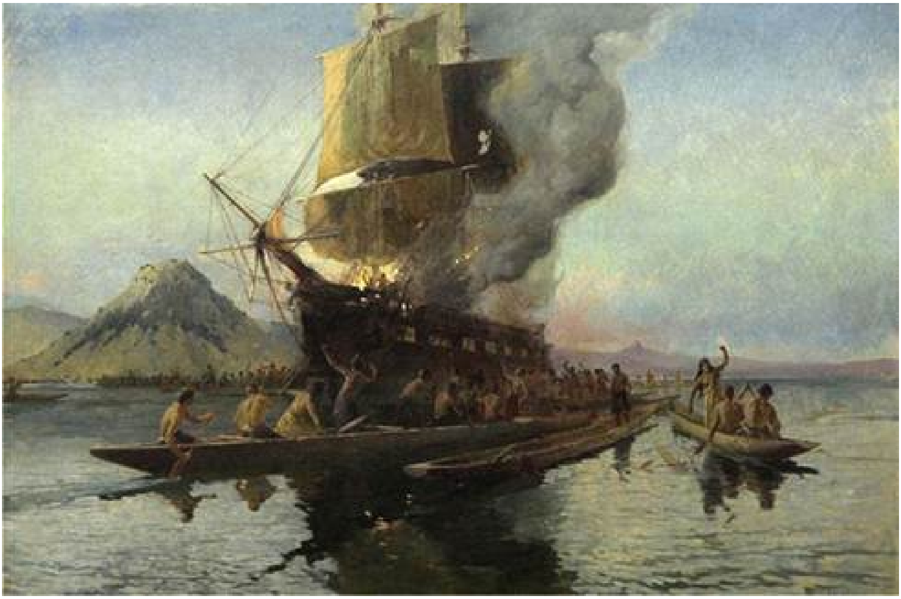
In 1809, a British ship named the *Boyd,* under the command of Captain John Thompson, anchored off WhangaroaHarbour on the North Island after sailing from Australia to collect samples of a type of tree called the Kauri. The local Whangaroa Mãori appeared friendly and offered to take Captain Thompson and his crew to find suitable trees. Thompson and four others took up the offer and left in a longboat with the Mãori guides.

However, as soon as they were ashore, the Mãori attacked and killed Thompson and his men. Some Mãori dressed up in their clothes, and using the evening darkness to aid their disguise, manned the Europeans' longboat, and drew alongside the unsuspecting *Boyd.* The Mãori boarded the ship and murdered the sleeping crew one by one. The passengers were then forced to assemble on the deck, where they were all killed after Mãori reinforcements arrived by canoe. Five Europeans hid in the ship's rigging, and watched in silent horror as the Mãori murdered and dismembered their victims in preparation for a cannibalistic meal which was later held ashore.

The attackers left the ship with their gruesome meal, and the five survivors attempted to escape the next day when a canoe, which belonged to another Mãori tribe unconnected with the perpetrators of the massacre, drew alongside. This escape attempt ended in failure when the canoe was attacked by the Whangaroa Mãori and all but one of the fleeing Europeans were caught and killed.

A few other Europeans survived the massacre by hiding on board. These included a woman and her baby; a two-year-old girl orphaned in the attack, and two men. All were captured and held prisoner by the Whangaroa Mãori.

The *Boyd* was then towed away by a number of Mãori canoes, but ran aground a short distance away. The tribesmen spent several days ransacking the ship and when they discovered the gunpowder store on board, they made an attempt to fire some of the weapons. Their ignorance of the dangers of gunpowder resulted in an explosion on board which killed dozens of Mãori and burned out the ship.



The Boyd *catches fire after natives set off the gunpowder store. Almost the entire crew had been killed and eaten in one of the most notorious cannibal attacks by the Mãori.*

News of the massacre reached the European crew of another ship at the Bay of Islands, the *City of Edinburgh,* under Captain Alexander Berry. They organized a revenge raiding party which went ashore and seized the two Mãori chiefs responsible for the *Boyd* incident. Berry offered to exchange the chiefs for the white survivors—a deal which was accepted. All of the survivors bar one of the men, who had been killed and eaten after he had been forced to make a number of steel fishing hooks, were released.

The crew from the *City of Edinburgh* found piles of human bones on the shoreline, and Berry reported that: “We had seen the mangled fragments and fresh bones of our countrymen, with the marks even of the teeth remaining on them” (From Tasman to Marsden: A History of Northern New Zealand from 1642 to 1818, by Robert McNab, Dunedin, 1914).

News of the *Boyd* massacre spread throughout Europe and, as a result, the islands of New Zealand became known as a refuge of “cannibal savages” and were avoided by all travelers for many years thereafter.

The New Zealand Company and the Treaty of Waitangi

The islands of New Zealand were officially incorporated under the jurisdiction of the colony of New South Wales in Australia in 1788, but it was only in the early nineteenth century that any serious attempt was made to settle the country with Europeans.

In 1839, a group of English entrepreneurs set up the New Zealand Company, a private enterprise whose aim was the colonization of New Zealand. Officials were dispatched to buy land from the Mãori for this purpose. These deals were highly dubious from a moral and legal point of view, given that the natives had no understanding of private land ownership. Nonetheless, the company claimed to have successfully purchased land from the natives and started encouraging settlers to emigrate.

Internal controversies dogged the New Zealand Company, including the revelation that much of its advertising material aimed at recruiting new settlers was false or based on incorrect information. The British government quickly intervened and sent its own representatives to New Zealand with the instruction to displace the New Zealand Company from authority in the islands.

About five hundred tribal chiefs entered into invitations for discussion with the British government's representatives, and in 1840, all the parties signed what became known as the Treaty of Waitangi. In terms of this agreement, Britain formally took sovereignty over the islands, appointed a governor, and recognized the landownership rights of the Mãori, who placed themselves under the protection of the British government as British subjects.

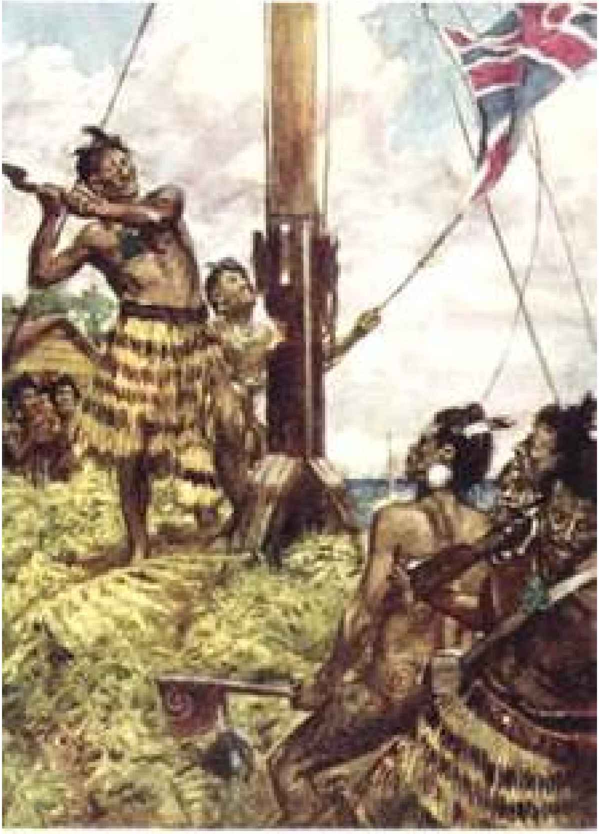
However, given that none of the Mãori chiefs could read or write and would have had a very limited understanding of the implications of international treaties or international politics, the Treaty of Waitangi has been mired in controversy since its signing. Another problem was the fact that there was no written Mãori language (the written version which is still in use today was invented by Professor Samuel Lee of Cambridge University in 1820) and, as a result, the written English and Mãori versions of the treaty differ substantially.

These difficulties aside, the Treaty of Waitangi is now regarded as New Zealand's official founding document.

The Mãori Wars 1845–1872

The Treaty of Waitangi did not, however, stop the conflicts between the Europeans and the Mãori, particularly after it became apparent that white immigration was on the increase. As a result, a series of wars, originally called the Maori Wars (but now renamed, for the sake of political correctness, into the "New Zealand Wars") started in 1845 and continued in phases until 1872.

The wars were preceded by what became known as the Wairau Affray on South Island when white settlers, who had purchased land from a Mãori chief, came under attack and had their small settlement burned down. An attempt to raise a local militia led to a battle between the two sides, which resulted in twenty-two whites being killed and eaten by the Mãori. As news of this massacre reached Britain, the rush of white settlers dried up for nearly three years.



The Flagstaff War

The first conflict in the Mãori Wars came in 1845, in what is known as the Flagstaff War. One of the original signatories to the Treaty of Waitangi, a tribal chief named Hone Heke, became unhappy with increased European immigration, and, using an alleged insult to his person by a Mãori female married to one of the white settlers, ransacked the town of Kororareka (now known as Russell, which was the first permanent European settlement in New Zealand on the North Island). During this attack, Heke cut down the flagpole which flew the British flag, an act which gave the war its name. British troops rushed to Kororareka in a show of force. Heke backed down and replaced the flagpole.

However, the truce was short-lived. Other Mãori, notably the chief Kawiti, encouraged Heke to continue with his rebellion, and he ordered the flagpole cut down for the second time. British troops replaced it, but within a day, Mãori had cut it down again. The British built a fourth flagpole and posted guards around it. This proved a tempting target for the Mãori and the guard post was attacked by a large group of warriors. The guards were killed and the flagpole cut down once more while another large Mãori force attacked and burned the town. The entire white settlement was forced to retreat onto ships moored offshore.

New British troops were dispatched to retake Kororareka. In April 1845, an attempt to take Heke's earthen and wood fort (called a pa in Mãori) failed, because the British did not have artillery which was powerful enough to penetrate the structure's walls.

In the interim, an intertribal Mãori war between Heke's group and another tribe under the chief Waka Nene, resulted in Heke being driven from his pa. Waka Nene then declared himself to be in support of the British and against Heke and the other Mãori rebels. A renewed assault on a second rebel pa nearly ended in disaster for the British and their Mãori allies, who were saved only by the timely arrival of a thirty-two pound cannon which bombarded the pa and persuaded its defenders to flee.

Heke and his allies built a third pa at Ruapekepeka. This was one of the largest and most sophisticated native forts ever built and was designed to provide maximum resistance to cannon fire. The fort was only taken in 1846 after its front palisade was left unguarded and seized by an adventurous British forward patrol. Once inside, the British were able to defeat its defenders and seize the entire complex.

With their last major fortification lost, Kawiti and Heke were forced to ask for peace. Waka Nene advised the British to grant them clemency, and the two rebels were pardoned. The flagstaff at Kororareka was not re-erected, but apart from this symbolic change, nothing else changed as a result of the war.

The Hutt Valley Campaign

The Mãori tribes living in the Hutt Valley in the North Island were the next to rebel against European encroachment, although the war which followed was complicated by an intertribal war. This resulted in some tribes allying themselves to the British authorities against the rebels.

Disputes over land deals in the Hutt Valley had been ongoing since 1842, and had seen tensions rise between various tribes, European settlers, and combinations thereof. One of the tribes, under the leadership of Chief Nga Rangatahi, prepared a war party in 1846. The British responded by moving troops into the area, an act which was seen as a declaration of hostilities by the Mãori.

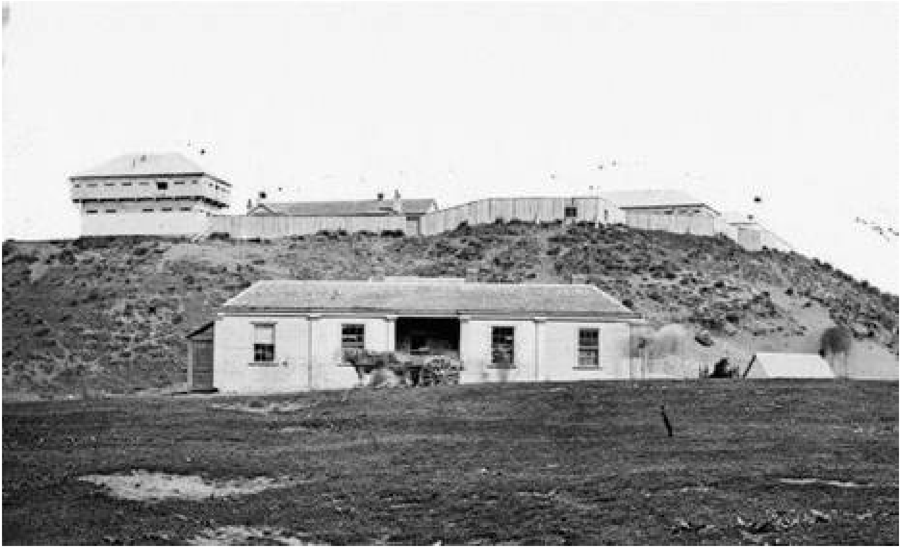
A Mãori attack on a British camp was defeated, and in return, the Europeans attacked and destroyed a Mãori settlement at Maraenuku. The Mãori then marched up and down the Hutt Valley, destroying every white settlement and farmhouse in their way. By March, unrest had reached such a level that martial law was declared and more British troops were deployed in the area.

Several battles followed, notably at Boulcott's Farm and Battle Hill, both of which drove off the Mãori attackers. After these defeats, the Mãori withdrew further inland and left the main centers in the Hutt Valley alone. The British built a blockhouse in Upper Hutt to prevent further incursions into the valley, and this phase of the conflict came to an end.

The Wanganui Campaign

The conclusion of the war in the Hutt Valley did not end tensions on the North Island. The nearby white settlement of Wanganui, which had been established in 1841, had only two hundred residents and was threatened by one of the tribal chiefs involved in the Hutt Valley campaign, Te Mamaku.

The British authorities were forced to deploy troops to the area, where they built a ford, known as the Rutland Stockade, in April, 1847. The fort was completed just in time. An accidental shooting incident that month sparked off a mass Mãori uprising. Within the space of a few days, a number of farms were attacked, numerous settlers killed and the Rutland Stockade besieged.



A nineteenth century photograph of the massive Rutland Stockade, a fort purpose-built to protect the white settlers of the Wanganui District. The fort was attacked in May 1847, shortly after its completion, but was never taken.

On May 19, the Mãori launched a fierce assault on the British fort. They were unable to break through and were driven off with heavy losses. The tribesmen withdrew and started building a pa outside the town. The British decided to attack the pa before it was completed, and engaged the Mãori in the open outside their fort. The tribesmen were driven back into the half-prepared fortifications and awaited what they presumed would be the inevitable final assault.

By now, however, the British military had learned that a frontal assault on a well-prepared pa was tantamount to suicide, so they withdrew to their fort to await developments. After several days of inactivity, Te Mamaku advised the British that he was withdrawing from the battle and as far as he was concerned, the war was over. The British pardoned him upon his undertaking that he would not take up arms again, and this phase of the Mãori Wars came to an end.

The First Taranaki War 1860–1861

The outbreak of the conflict called the First Taranaki War in March 1860 was the first major campaign of the Mãori Wars which involved thousands of troops. A dispute over land ownership erupted into violence after a local chief, Pokikake Te Teira, sold land to the British in the Taranaki district of New Zealand's North Island, despite being specifically instructed not to do so by his senior chief, Wiremu

Kingi.

The British moved troops into the area to secure the purchase, and in response, Kingi and a force of warriors erected a pa at a strategic point on the disputed land and ripped out the British surveyors' boundary markers. The British troops moved to meet the Mãori and ordered them to surrender. The natives refused and a fight broke out which saw the British use cannon against the pa. After several hours of bombardment, the Mãori abandoned their fort and fled.

It was not the end of the uprising. Isolated farms in the area came under attack from roving Mãori gangs and half a dozen whites were killed. Invigorated, the Mãori reassembled, acquired new reinforcements, and built another pa. British troops stormed the fort and drove the natives out once again. Flushed with their victory at Waireka, the British attacked another pa at Puketakauere, but were this time driven off by a skillful Mãori defense. For the next two months, Mãori forces carried out hit-and-run harassment attacks on white settlers, killing several dozen Europeans and burning a number of farms.

The defeat at Puketakauere made the British governor appreciate the seriousness of the situation, and over two thousand troops were deployed in the region to crush the uprising. Given that the Mãori forces were never more than eight hundred at their absolute maximum, the British deployment indicated their desire to bring matters to a head. Several Mãori settlements and a number of new pas were destroyed in quick succession.

The British forces, under the command of Major-General Pratt, began a slow, measured advance toward Te Arei, the main Mãori base. Each step of the way was covered by the construction of a purpose-built fort designed to secure their flanks and rear. Finally, faced with imminent destruction, the Mãori asked for a ceasefire. The British agreed and the war officially ended on March 18, 1861.

The Invasion of Waikato 1863–1864

By 1860, the number of whites in New Zealand had reached sixty thousand, a figure which equaled the number of Mãori. The demographic tide had turned and the Mãori leadership, determining that the opportunity to retain control over their lands was slipping from their grasp, formed an alliance of tribes known as the King Movement, or Kingitanga.

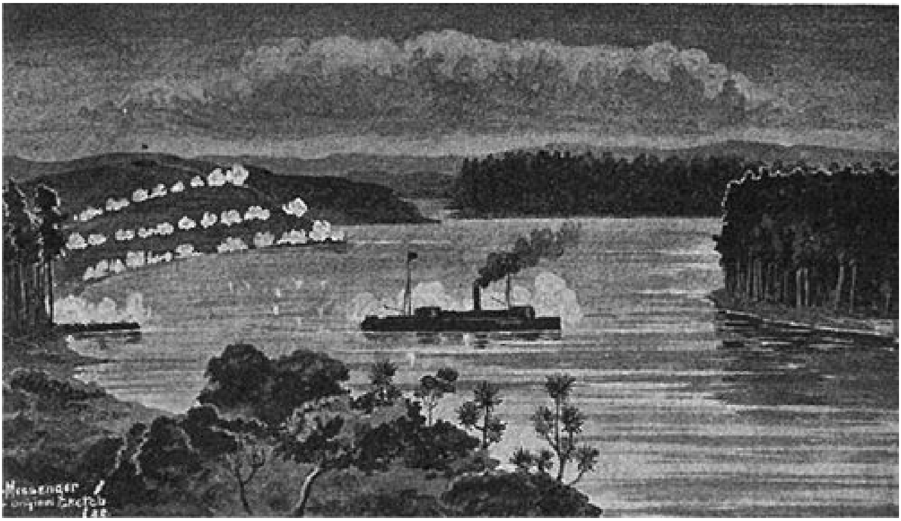
This alliance was meant to be a supreme Mãori authority which would oppose all further sale of land to the Europeans. Its influence soon spread, and the Kingitanga openly flaunted British authority and was found to be behind an ever-growing number of disorders and criminal attacks upon whites.

The Kingitanga stronghold was to the south of Auckland on the North Island. After a significant troop buildup, Governor Sir George Grey expelled all the Mãori from the area around Auckland on July 9, 1863, and then engaged the main Mãori force—and defeated them—at the Battle of Koheroa.

Despite the overwhelming British numbers, the Mãori tribesmen proved cunning foes, and for the next two months carried out a series of attacks which killed a number of Europeans. They also seized a supply depot at a small settlement named Camerontown in an engagement which saw a Mãori tribe, the Ngati Whauroa, pretend to be British allies but then switch sides at a critical moment.

In mid-September, a Mãori attack on the British fort at Tuakau was repulsed, but this did not stop the tribesmen from attacking white settlers in the countryside at random. Nearly two dozen Europeans were killed in less than two weeks, and across the region, settlers were advised to retreat into fortified locations until the Mãori had been suppressed. One of the more famous incidents of this period included a Mãori attack on the fortified church at Pukekohe. The Mãori were routed at this battle, and forty tribesmen were killed but there were no settler casualties.

By now, British preparations for the war had been finalized. Thousands of soldiers were brought in and the next Mãori defense line at Mere Mere was broken after a savage bombardment from the British ships. The Mãori retreated to another defensive line they had built a distance away at Rangiriri. The series of defeats had demoralized the Mãori forces, and hundreds deserted, leaving just a few hundred to fight off the British advance.



The British deployed gunboats against the Mãori stronghold at Mere Mere in October 1860, as depicted above. Two ironclad ships, the Avon *and the* Pioneer, *and four armored barges brought more than 1,200 British soldiers to bear against the Mãori defenses, which were broken after a bombardment from the sea.*

By November 20, the Rangiriri line had also fallen to the Europeans, and by early December, the Mãori settlement of Ngaruawahia, the center of the Kingitanga movement, had been taken. The British pursued the fleeing rebels further south and defeated them once again at the settlement of Rangiawahia.

The Mãori prepared one last defensive pa, at Orakau. This fortification, however, was taken by the British after a three-day siege in which nearly two hundred of the Mãori defenders were killed. After this defeat, the Mãori formally surrendered and peace was declared. The area to the south of Orakau was marked off by another Mãori line and left under tribal control until 1885.

The Tauranga Campaign 1864

The Kingitanga received supplies and warriors from the Mãori tribes at Tauranga in the Bay of Plenty, and as a result, British troops were dispatched there to secure the area and prevent further reinforcements from reaching the rebels to the west.

Upon the British force's arrival, the Mãori began construction of a pa which overlooked Tauranga Harbour. This defensive position was cunningly built to provide the maximum protection against British artillery, and contained deep bunkers in which the Mãori warriors could shelter. It was called the Gate Pa, because the center of its construction resembled a gate.

The British forces comprised 1,700 men, while the Mãori defenders were only a few hundred strong. The Europeans expected an easy victory, especially after an eight-hour bombardment by some of the heaviest cannon yet deployed in New Zealand. The Mãori, however, were safe in their bunkers, and when the British stormed what they expected to be a devastated pa, they were instead ambushed, and over one hundred men were killed. It was the worst defeat ever suffered by the British forces in New Zealand.

The Mãori defenders fled, and even though the British forces had suffered grievous losses, they pursued the tribesmen and defeated them at the Battle of Te Ranga, a few miles away from the GatePa, on June 21, 1864. During this battle, the Mãori suffered over one hundred dead and were utterly demoralized.

By the end of August, the uprising in the area was at an end. The British punished the Mãori by confiscating the one thing which both sides wanted: land. Some fifty thousand acres were seized and handed over for white settlement.

The Second Taranaki War 1863–1866

The confiscation of Mãori land which followed the end of the First Taranaki War laid the basis for the outbreak of the second war. The Mãori had never accepted the unilateral seizure of their land and disputed the land claims south of the settlement of New Plymouth, and in the Waitara area.

The ongoing unrest provoked the legislative assembly of New Zealand, which had been created in 1852, to pass the New Zealand Settlements Act in December 1863. In terms of this law, Mãori land which was under the control of those tribes who engaged in “rebellion” could be confiscated. The law was given immediate force in Taranaki and before the end of the following year, some 1,800 square miles of land had been seized and distributed to white farmers.

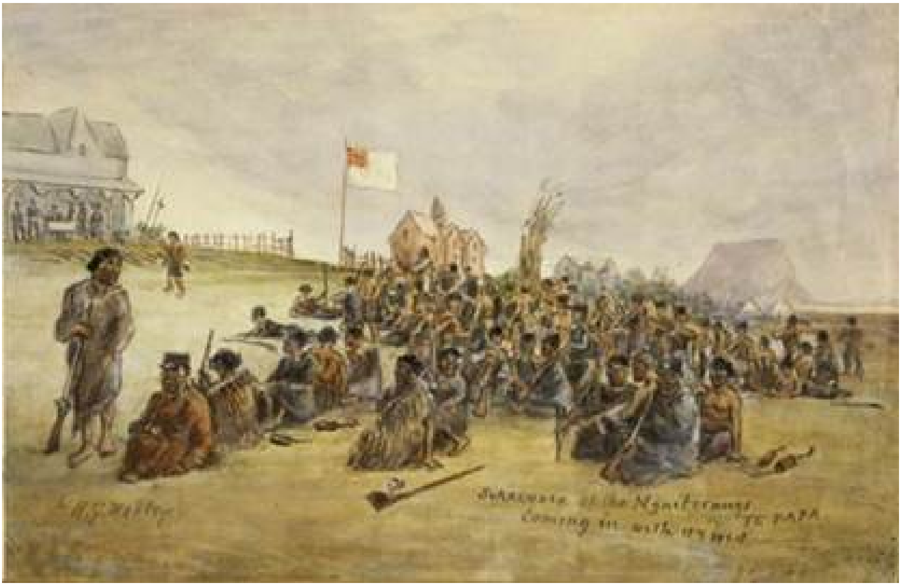
In the interim, a virulent religion, known as the Hau Hau Movement, emerged among the Mãori. It advocated violence against the hated pakeha, or white people. The Hau Hau Movement made use of ritual slaughter, castrations, beheadings, the removal of hearts and other body parts, and traditional Mãori cannibalism. In addition, the Hau Hau priests taught that their incantations and spells would provide protection against bullets. The religion spread rapidly throughout the North Island and was dominant among the tribes by 1864.

These factors combined to spark a new conflict, centered on the disputed land at Waitara. The British governor, Sir George Grey, announced on May 11, 1863, that the land would be returned to the Mãori, but he simultaneously deployed troops in the area to protect the white settlers. The Mãori responded by attacking the British soldiers, an act which Grey used to declare a new Taranaki war. A series of small engagements took place, most of which ended with the Mãori fleeing—but not until dozens of European settlers and soldiers had been killed.

The British forces took pa after pa from the Mãori through 1863 and 1864, and at one stage employed a warship to shell Mãori positions from the sea. At the same time, detachments of locally recruited militia from the ever-growing European settler population swept though Mãori settlements, destroying villages and seizing land. The Mãori scored some successes, and in one notable incident captured and killed seven British soldiers. They were beheaded and the heads paraded around the island to gain recruits for the Hau Hau Movement.

The violent struggle continued all through 1864, but by now the British had perfected the art of using the wars as a way of taking more land from the Mãori. After each skirmish, they would build a series of forts, and the land would be cleared of Mãori and settled by white farmers. The progress was slow but relentless, and the Mãori were steadily pushed back.

By April 1865, most of the coast eighty miles north of New Plymouth had been seized in this way. Despite a British offer of peace in September, the war continued into 1866. Ultimately, the white settlers and the British troops proved too powerful to overcome, and after several engagements where the bulletproof incantations failed with disastrous consequences for the Mãori warriors, disillusionment with the Hau Hau religion and successive defeats forced the rebellion to end. In November 1866, a peace treaty formally ended the war.



The Ngai Te Rangi tribe surrenders at Tauranga following their defeat at Te Ranga in June 1864. The tribesmen surrendered both their weapons and those they had captured from the British at the earlier Battle of the Gate Pa. This sketch was made by a British soldier at the scene.

Hau Hau Civil War Breaks out among Mãori

Not all the Mãori tribes on the North Island acknowledged the peace of 1866, particularly those who were still involved in the Hau Hau Movement. Those Mãori who had come to understand that the violent religion was a hoax, became strongly opposed to it. This caused many Taranaki Mãori to join government forces and take part in suppressing uprisings by Hau Hau-supporting tribes.

As a result, when government forces were deployed to hunt down the murderers of a German Christian missionary, Carl Völkner (who was ritually killed and had his eyeballs publicly eaten by a Hau Hau leader, Kereopa Te Rau, in March 1865), Taranaki Mãori were deployed alongside colonial militia and together they waged a highly effective campaign against the local Mãori in Opotiki. The Hau Hau-related uprising was crushed within a few weeks.

S Carnell
Photo
8/12/71

From left to right: the Mãori leader Kereopa Te Rau, photographed just before he was hanged; the church where the event occurred; and Carl Völkner, the victim. The German missionary had built a church in Opotiki and drawn a number of Mãori adherents to Christianity by 1865. In February that year, Kereopa Te Rau arrived in Opotiki and quickly converted Völkner's congregation to the Hau Hau religion. The next month, Völkner was seized by his former flock and decapitated. Kereopa Te Rau? then held a Hau Hau service inside Völkner's church, with Völkner's head in the pulpit. During the Hau Hau service, Kereopa Te Rau plucked both eyeballs out of Völkner's head and ate them. The atrocity provoked a new campaign from the British to stamp out the Hau Hau rebels in the area, an objective which was achieved some seven years later. Kereopa Te Rau was hanged in 1872.

A mini-civil war then erupted among the Mãori on the North Island, fought between Hau Hau adherents and nonbelievers. The sceptics called on the white government for help, which was duly forthcoming. The whites armed "loyal" Mãori who then took part in a series of battles with Hau Hau-supporting tribes at Poverty Bay, Hawke's Bay, Napier, and Tauranaga. In many of these clashes, colonial white militia fought alongside the "loyal" Mãori forces. The Hau Hau tribes were utterly defeated, their traditional Mãori military craftiness submerged in reckless open charges driven by their belief that they were impervious to bullets.

The last phase of the Mãori civil war took place during an anti-white uprising led by the charismatic chief Te Kooti in 1868. Te Kooti established yet another religious cult and led his supporters in a killing spree which murdered dozens of whites. He often killed other Mãori as well, and eventually a combination of government forces and Mãori opponents destroyed his power base. Eventually, Te Kooti's cult ran out of followers, and he faded into insignificance after being granted amnesty in 1883.

The Third Taranaki War 1868–1869

The Third Taranaki War was the final stage in the race wars in New Zealand. Often called Titokowaru's War, after its chief protagonist, this conflict was a revival of the Second Taranaki War. Titokowaru had, in fact, been a warrior in that earlier war—and had converted to the Hau Hau religion when it swept the North Island.

In June 1868, Titokowaru launched a series of attacks against white settlers along the Waingongoro River. Shortly afterward, news of a cannibalistic feast and ritual murders reached the ears of the white authorities, and government troops were mobilized to defeat the new menace. However, Titokowaru was an experienced fighter and, although a Hau Hau adherent, did not believe in the bullet immunity legend. The Mãori leader prepared his defenses well and routed the colonial forces (which included a small detachment of “loyal” Mãori) in a series of clashes at Turuturu-Mokai and Te Ngutu o Te Manu.

The defeated colonial forces were forced to retreat after suffering dozens of casualties. The defeats were made worse by the fact that the retreating European soldiers witnessed the ritual murder of white prisoners by Titokowaru’s warriors, who specialized in cutting out the hearts of the their enemies.

Titokowaru’s victories encouraged other Mãori tribes to join his uprising, and many “loyal” Mãori deserted the colonial forces. It took months for the government forces to recover from these defeats, and it was only in January 1869 that an attack was launched on Titokowaru’s new fort at Moturoa. The Battle of Moturoa, as it became known, resulted in yet another catastrophic defeat for the government forces.

At the height of his victories, Titokowaru suddenly lost his ability to motivate and direct his followers. The collapse of his formidable army is shrouded in mystery, but the most likely explanation is that intertribal conflict finally brought about his downfall. Whatever the cause, by the end of 1869, the last effective Mãori resistance to the Europeans had faded away.

Crown Colony of New Zealand Constituted in 1841

The growing number of white settlers in New Zealand and the country’s distance from New South Wales in Australia made the initial plan of administrative union between the regions increasingly cumbersome. As a result, New Zealand was reconstituted as a separate crown colony with Wellington as its capital in 1841.

In 1852, the British parliament passed the New Zealand Constitution Act, which enabled a representative government in the colony. The first elections were held in 1853, and the first meeting of members of Parliament took place in 1854. By 1865, the New Zealand Parliament had moved to Wellington.

Mãori Given Racially-Exclusive Seats in New Zealand Parliament

Although there was no specific clause which forbade Mãori from having the vote, the first New Zealand parliament was elected on a strict property-owning qualified franchise. This had the practical effect of disqualifying most Mãori because, even then, they had little concept of the idea of private ownership of property in the European sense. The closest concept to property ownership which the Mãori possessed was in the form of tribal lands which belonged to chiefs. As a result, about one hundred Mãori chieftains did have the vote at the time of the first elections. The qualified franchise was applied without racial prejudice, however, and even among white settlers, the total number of voters in 1853 was 5,749.

The ongoing wars with the Mãori convinced many Europeans that the natives had to be accommodated in one form or another in parliament. As a result, the New Zealand parliament created four seats reserved specifically for the Mãori, and for which all adult male Mãori could vote.

Even though it was on a separate voters' roll, the irony of universal male suffrage being granted to Mãori before it was granted to whites in New Zealand, was not lost on the rest of the population. In addition to the reserved seats, those Mãori who qualified for the franchise under the property-owning restrictions were given a second vote in the "ordinary" elections as well, effectively doubling their vote. This disparity was made even more glaring when the property qualification for obtaining the franchise was abolished in 1879.

The separate seats arrangement was meant to last for only five years, as it was presumed that the Mãori would soon own land on an individual basis as the Europeans did. This did not occur as expected, and the reserved seats were extended in 1872 and made permanent in 1876.

The Mãori have been given seven racially-exclusive seats in the New Zealand parliament, for which they alone can vote. While whites are specifically excluded from voting in the Mãori seats, all Mãori can vote in the "general" seats. This has inevitably led to the rise of Mãori ethno-nationalism, and the creation of a Mãori Party. Above: A Mãori Party demonstration outside the New Zealand parliament building in Wellington in 2004. The statue of New Zealand Prime Minister Richard Seddon was adorned with a Mãori Party flag for the occasion. Attempts by small groups of white New Zealanders to form racially-exclusive parties have been dismissed as "racist" but no such smear is used against the Mãori-only groups.

Mãori have been eligible to vote on both the Mãori roll and the “general” voters’ roll since 1879, and in 1893, a new law ruled that only full-blooded Mãori would automatically be put on the reserved seat election rolls. “Half–castes,” or mixed European-Mãori people, were given the right to choose if they wanted to be enrolled upon the Mãori-only voters’ roll.

The reserved Mãori seats have remained in place ever since, despite suggestions that they are racially discriminatory. The number of Mãori-only seats was increased to seven in 2002 after New Zealand switched to a proportional representation system of elections.

New Zealand also became the first country in the world to give the franchise to women in 1893, although bizarrely, females were forbidden from standing as candidates until 1919.

Gold and Sheep Farming Boost White Numbers

White population numbers in New Zealand were boosted after sheep farming was started in the 1850s and gold was discovered in 1852. For many decades, wool accounted for more than one third of

New Zealand's exports, and after the first successful transcontinental exportation of frozen meat in 1882, mutton and lamb became another major revenue stream.

Several gold rushes took place after 1852, all of which attracted a large number of fortune seekers to New Zealand. By 1866, the amount of gold produced reached a record 735,000 ounces, or more than twenty-two tons. Gold mining continued to play an important part in New Zealand's economy, and in 2000, the Macraes and Martha mines each produced their one millionth ounce.

New Zealanders Fight for Britain in Both World Wars

During the First World War, troops from New Zealand took part in the disastrous Gallipoli campaign against Ottoman Turkey. The campaign was the first combined mission carried out by the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC) and is widely credited with cementing New Zealand's national consciousness. ANZAC Day is still celebrated on April 25 each year to honor New Zealand's military dead.

Troops from New Zealand disembark at a French port after a sea journey around the globe to fight for the Allies in World War I.

An astonishing 103,000 New Zealanders served in the armed forces during the First World War—out of a total population of one million. Of this number, 16,697 were killed. This meant that 1.6 percent of all New Zealanders died in the conflict, one of the highest death rates per capita of any country in the war.

An even greater number of New Zealanders served in World War II. Some 140,000 soldiers fought overseas in Europe, North Africa, and in the Pacific during the war. Of this number, some 11,928 were killed, or just under 1 percent of the total population of New Zealand in 1939.

The Mãori—Social Disaster

According to the 2006 Census, Mãori made up 14.6 percent of New Zealand’s population. As is the case with the Australian Aborigines, the Mãori community has extremely high rates of unemployment, imprisonment, alcoholism, drug dependency, and violence. A report issued on Mãori crime in October 2005, for example, revealed that they comprised over half of New Zealand’s prison population and 45 percent of offenders serving community based sentences. This means that Mãori are responsible for more than 65 percent of all criminal offences in New Zealand.

The deplorable state of the Maori community overall led to the creation of the Ministry of Maori Development by the New Zealand government in 1992. This government department, devoted exclusively to Mãori upliftment programs, has a budget of millions of New Zealand dollars, promotes Mãori-only businesses, and provides scholarships and welfare funding. None of these measures appear to have had much effect.

New Zealand: First World Nation Because of First World Population

Despite only coming into existence in the mid-nineteenth century, New Zealand was regarded as a First World nation within a few decades of its creation. By the end of the twentieth century, New Zealand was so advanced that it provided foreign aid to thirty-two countries around the world, all of which are Second or Third World nations.

The obvious question which must spring to the mind of any objective observer is this: how could a small island nation barely 150 years old, become so advanced in such a short period of time that it now provides foreign aid to other nations, many of which were established long before New Zealand?

The answer, as politically incorrect as it may be, is simply that New Zealand became a First World nation because it was majority populated by First World people.

New Zealand serves as yet another example of how a territory's culture and civilization is determined exclusively by who makes up the majority population, regardless of environmental circumstances.

Auckland, New Zealand, was founded in 1840. By 1900, it was the largest city in the country. Within a century, Auckland became a mighty First World city, built literally out of the untamed bush. This and the many other achievements of present-day New Zealand are evidence that a culture is a reflection of the people who majority occupy a region. New Zealand became a First World nation because it was occupied by First World people.

Nonwhite Immigration Increases after 1980

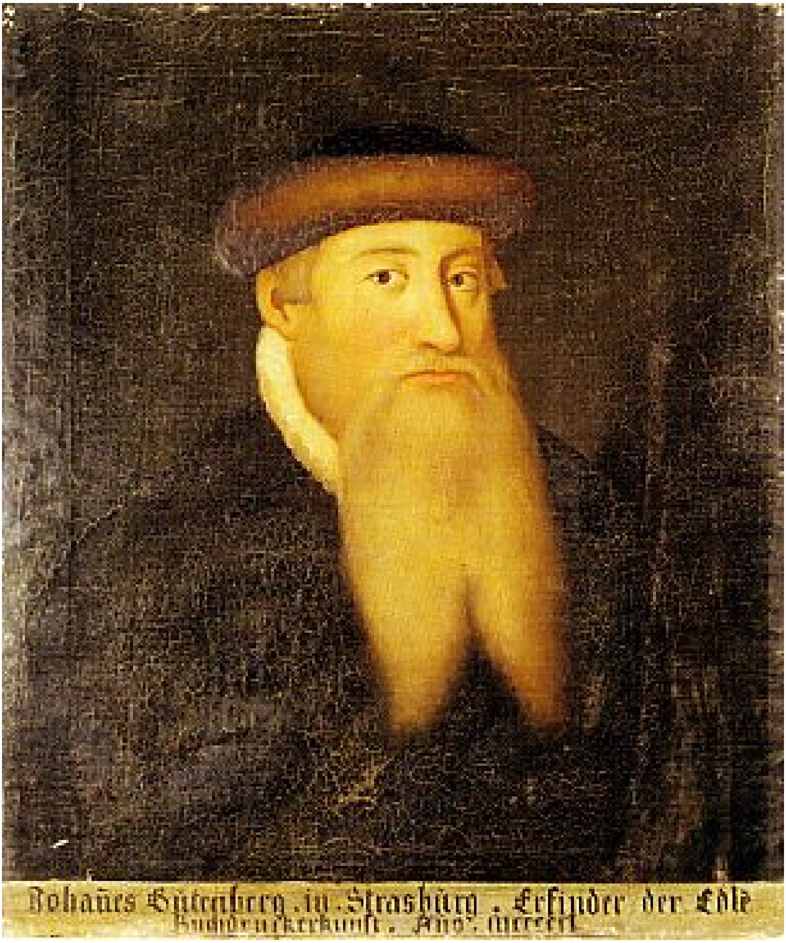
Third World immigration into New Zealand started in earnest in the last two decades of the twentieth century and has continued ever since. This influx, combined with the Mãori population, has reversed the Europeanization of New Zealand so that by the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century, less than two-thirds of New Zealand's population was white. The extent and implications of this development are discussed later in this work.

CHAPTER 59: Shaping the World—the White Technological Revolution

The world today is dominated by technology as never before. The innovations created as a result of the Industrial Revolution, in particular, dominate the entire planet and can be found across the four corners of the globe.

While this is commonly known, and countless books and works have been written on the subject, all have ignored one crucial feature of this astonishing technological revolution. These innovations, which have set the pace for the entire world, are exclusively the product of a tiny minority of whites. This fact, like so many other unpalatable truths in history, is ignored because of its political implications.

MAN OF THE MILLENNIUM—JOHANNES GUTENBERG


Johañes Gutenberg . in . Strasburg . Erfinder der Edle
Buchdruckerkunst . Ano .

Johannes Gutenberg (1400–1468) revolutionized civilization with his invention of the printing press in 1436. His device, based on the concept of a wine press, was the first form of printing to use molding and casting of movable metal type. No other invention did more to spread learning and knowledge than Gutenberg's, and to this German must go the credit for being one of the most significant inventors of all time. In the year 2000, he was chosen by an international panel as the Man of the Millennium for his earth-changing invention.

Ancient Origins of Technology

While it is often claimed that the modern technological age began with the Industrial Revolution, the reality is that many of the technologies which have shaped the modern world predate that time by a great many years. This is not to downplay the importance of the Industrial Revolution, which, in a period of perhaps two hundred years, saw science and technology leapfrog in terms of development.

Ancient Inventors

- Archimedes (287–212 BC) was a classical Greek inventor who defined the principle of the lever, and is credited with inventing the compound pulley. During his stay in Egypt, he invented the hydraulic screw for raising water from a lower to a higher level.

He is best known for discovering the law of hydrostatics, often called Archimedes' Principle, which states that a body immersed in water is buoyed up by a force equal to the weight of the fluid displaced by the object.

He also invented the catapult and the first "laser beam"—a system of mirrors he developed for the kingdom of Syracuse which focused the sun's rays on invaders' boats and set them on fire—the basic principle behind a magnifying glass.

- Ctesibius (third century BC) was a classical Greek inventor who won fame for his invention of a number of devices which used the pressure created by air and water. He also constructed an air-powered catapult using water weights (containers made heavy by being filled with water) and compressed air.

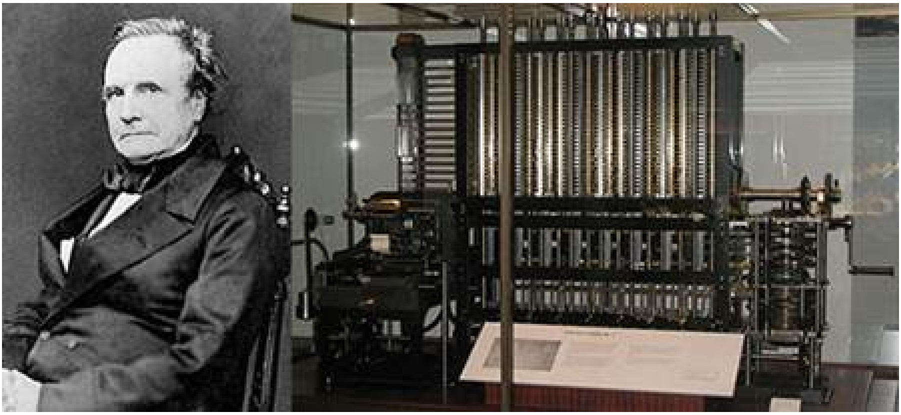
His most famous invention was the great improvement he made to the ancient Egyptian clepsydra, or water clock, in which water dripping into a container at a steady rate raised a float that carried a pointer to mark the hours. He equipped the float with a rack that turned a toothed wheel and made the clock work a number of adornments: whistling birds, moving puppets, ringing bells, and other gadgets.

The accuracy of Ctesibius's water clock was only eventually surpassed in 1657 by the pendulum clock of Dutch inventor Christiaan Huygens, but the spirit of Ctesibius's clock still survives in the cuckoo clock.

- Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519) was not only a great artist, but also an inventor, whose surviving documents and manuscripts are filled with designs for many of the machines regarded as nineteenth or twentieth century inventions, but which were in fact modeled in his sixteenth century plans.

These designs included: portable bridges, cannons, armored vehicles, a submarine, an underwater diving suit, and models for aircraft.

CHARLES BABBAGE AND MECHANICAL COMPUTERS



Charles Babbage and a working model of his mechanical computer, the Difference Engine.

Computers

The history of the computer serves as another excellent example of how some modern technology has its origins in the era which predates the Industrial Revolution.

- The first computer—a machine which could do mathematical equations—was built as early as 1623 by the German scientist Wilhelm Schikard. He built a machine that used eleven complete and six incomplete sprocketed wheels that could add and, with the aid of logarithm tables, multiply and divide.

- In 1642, the Frenchman Blaise Pascal invented a machine that could add and subtract, all the while using a system which automatically carried and borrowed digits from column to column. The seventeenth century German mathematician, Gottfried Leibniz, designed a special gearing system to enable Pascal's machine to do multiplication as well.

- The first programmable computer was developed in 1804 when the Frenchman, Joseph-Marie Jacquard, invented a spinning loom which used punched cards to program preselected patterns. Jacquard was rewarded by Napoleon Bonaparte for his work, but was forced to flee Lyon when he was attacked by weavers who saw their livelihoods endangered by his invention. His looms are still used today, especially in the manufacture of fine furniture fabrics.

- The British mathematician and inventor, Charles Babbage, started building, but never completed, two astonishing computers called the Difference Engine and the Analytical Engine. The latter machine laid the foundational concepts upon which all modern computers were developed. Although he completed all the plans, Babbage never managed to finish building his machines due to financial constraints.

Many of the ideas surrounding Babbage's computers were recorded by his friend, Augusta Ada Byron, the daughter of the famous poet Lord Byron. Ada's conceptual programs for the engines led to the naming of a programming language (Ada) in her honor.

Although the Analytical Engine was never built, its key concepts, such as the capacity to store instructions, the use of punched cards as a primitive memory, and the ability to print, were taken by others and can be found in many modern computers.

• The German American, Herman Hollerith, developed a device which could electronically create and read the punched cards developed by Jacquard. Hollerith's tabulator was used for the 1890 US census and cut the counting time by three quarters. The company he started, known as the Tabulating Machine Company, later merged with a number of other enterprises, and by 1924 became the world-famous International Business Machines Corporation, or IBM.

• The precursor to the modern digital computer came in 1936, when the British mathematician Alan Turing developed the Turing Machine—a device that looked like a typewriter and which could process equations without human direction. Computer keyboards were developed from this machine's buttons and key layout.

• In the 1930s, the American mathematician, Howard Aiken, developed the Mark I calculating machine, which was built by Hollerith's IBM. This electronic calculating machine used relays and electromagnetic components to replace mechanical devices. Aiken also introduced computers to universities by establishing the first computer science program at Harvard University.

• During the Second World War, computer technology leapfrogged. The British developed a massive analogue computer which was able to read encrypted German field signals sent by the famous "Enigma" device. These transmissions were considered unbreakable due to the large number of possible combinations involved, but the supercomputers at Bletchley Park, in Buckinghamshire, proved to be the undoing of the German codes.

• The first successful digital computer, the Electronic

Numerical Integrator and Computer (ENIAC), was invented by the American, John Mauchly, at the University of Pennsylvania in 1945. Many of ENIAC's first tasks were for military purposes, such as calculating ballistic firing tables and designing atomic weapons. Mauchly and a partner formed their own company, and produced the Universal Automatic Computer (UNIVAC), which was used for a broader variety of commercial applications.

• In 1948, at Bell Telephone Laboratories, American physicists Walter Houser Brattain, John Bardeen, and William Bradford Shockley developed the transistor, a device that could act as an electric switch.

The transistor had a tremendous impact on computer design, replacing costly, energy-inefficient, and unreliable vacuum tubes.

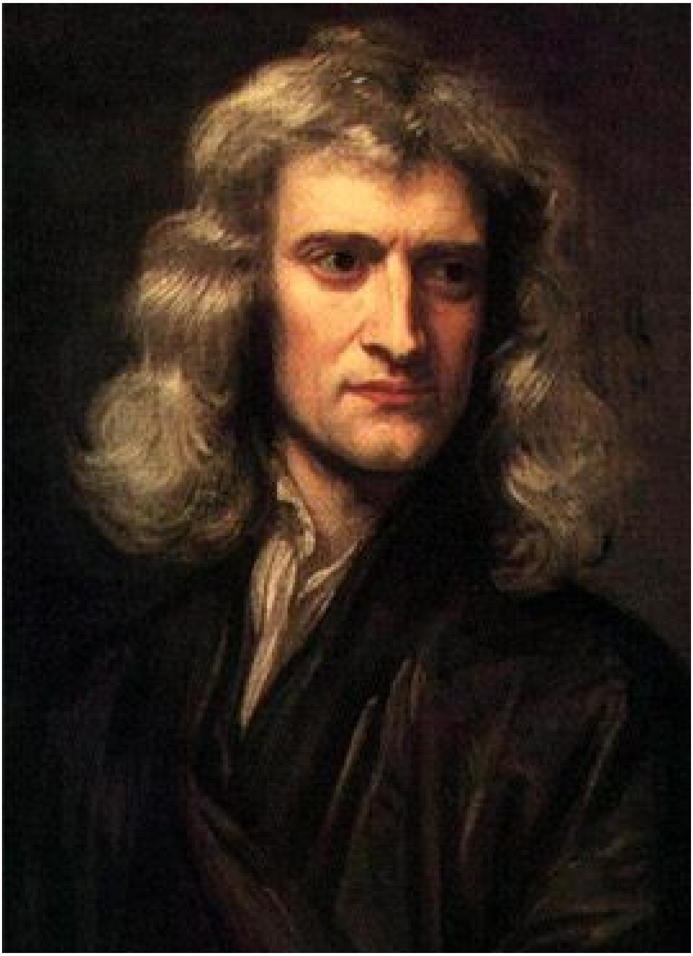
• Integrated circuits, pioneered in America in the late 1960s, enabled internal computer circuitry to be miniaturized. This breakthrough led directly to the present-day personal computer.

European Inventors and Their Inventions

• John Napier (1550–1617) was a Scottish mathematician who invented the first system of logarithms, described in his book *Canonis Descriptio* (1614). He also invented mechanical systems for performing arithmetical computations, described in his book *Rabdologia* (1617).

• Sir Christopher Wren (1632–1723) was an English architect, scientist, and mathematician who designed many great buildings, invented a weather clock which was the forerunner of the barometer, and undertook pioneering work in the development of blood transfusion.

ISAAC NEWTON



Isaac Newton (1642–1727) was a great organizer of classical physics and made many new discoveries in mechanics and astronomy. His ideas were so complete and far-reaching that nearly four hundred years after he lived, the laws which he laid down are still used in scientific calculations.

- Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1726) was an English scientist who worked out an all-encompassing mechanical explanation of the universe resting upon the law of universal gravitation. His work was so far reaching that it was still used in the twentieth century when space exploration was planned.

- Samuel Crompton (1753–1827) was an Englishman who invented the spinning mule, a machine that was able to spin cotton into thread finer and faster than was possible with hand spinning. Foolishly, he sold the design for the machine for a mere sixty pounds. While it became the most important machine in the British textile industry, Crompton lived in dreadful poverty until the British

Parliament voted to give him £5,000 in 1812, in recognition of his innovation.

- John Kay (1704–1764) was an Englishman who invented the Flying Shuttle in 1733 which increased weaving speed. He was attacked by weavers who saw his invention as a threat to their livelihoods and Kay fled to France, where he died in poverty.

- Sir Richard Arkwright (1732–1792) was a British inventor, who, in 1769, designed a spinning frame in which cotton fiber was spun into thread.

- Edmund Cartwright (1743–1823) was an Englishman who invented the power loom in 1785. Cartwright also invented a wool-combing machine (1789) and a steam engine fueled by alcohol (1797). He was awarded £10,000 by the British Parliament in recognition of his innovations, as the power loom laid the basis for the Industrial Revolution.

- James Hargreaves (1720–1778) was an Englishman who, in 1764, invented the Spinning Jenny (named after his daughter) which made possible the automatic production of cotton thread.

- James Watt (1736–1819) was a Scottish inventor who won fame for his development of the first viable steam engine, a device which had originally been invented by the English engineers Thomas Savery and Thomas Newcomen. The first steam engines were thundering devices which were used to pump water from mines. Watt's first patent, in 1769, fixed many of their mechanical flaws and provided for a host of innovations such as steamjacketing, oil lubrication, and the insulation of the steam generating cylinder. Watt also invented the rotary engine which drove various devices including the double-action engine (in which steam was admitted alternately into both ends of the cylinder), the steam indicator (which recorded the steam pressure in the engine), the centrifugal or flyball governor (which automatically regulated the speed of an engine), and an attachment that adapted telescopes for use as land surveying equipment. The latter device is still in use today. In honor of his achievements, the electrical unit, the "watt," was named after this prolific inventor.

- Edward Jenner (1749–1823) was an English physicist who pioneered the use of vaccines, most notably against smallpox.

- Louis Jacques Daguerre (1789–1851) was a Frenchman who invented the daguerreotype method of photography which used metal plates, which was, until the development of roll film, the most common form of photography.

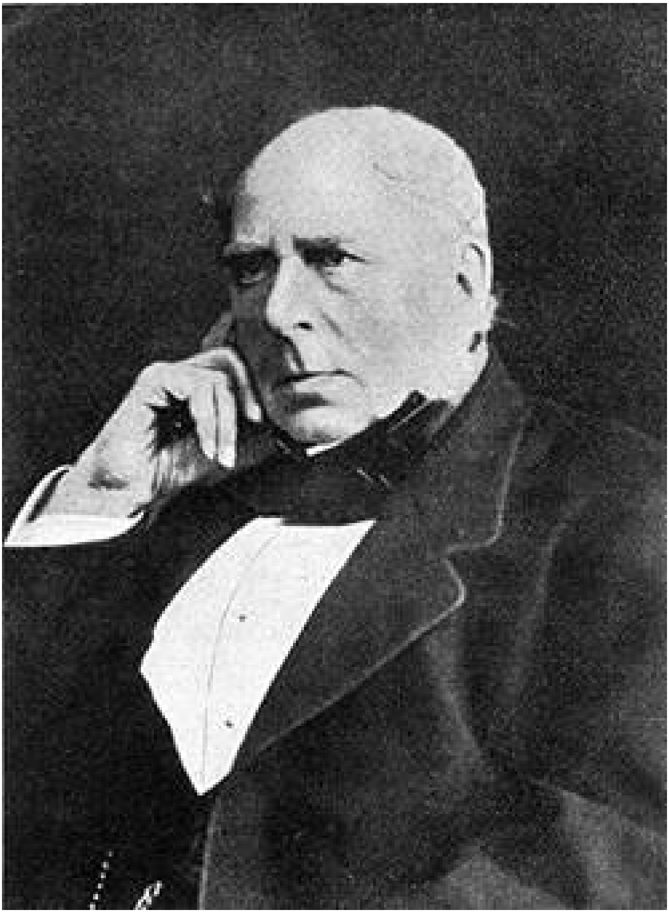
- Joseph Niepce (1765–1833) was a Frenchman who invented the first process for capturing permanent photographic images. In 1826, he successfully made the first surviving permanent photograph, of the courtyard of his house, using a bitumen-coated pewter plate.

- Robert Wilhelm Bunsen (1811–1899) was a German chemist who invented the spectroscope and discovered spectrum analysis which led to the discovery of the elements cesium and rubidium. Bunsen also discovered that iron oxide hydrate could be used as an antidote for arsenic poisoning. Although his name was given to the Bunsen burner, he did not develop that device. He did, however, invent a number of other instruments, including the ice calorimeter, the filter pump, and the zinc-carbon electric cell.

- Ernst Werner von Siemens (1816–92) was one of a family of German engineers who founded the firm bearing his name. He invented the electric dynamo and pioneered the use of gutta-percha, the rubberlike substance which insulates electric cables. He also built the first electric streetcar (cable car), which made its debut in Berlin in 1879, and the world’s first electric train.

- Michael Faraday (1791–1867) was a British physicist who invented the gas burner (later known as the Bunsen burner), still used today in scientific laboratories. His other great innovations included the development of benzene and electromagnetic induction. He also formulated the laws of electrolysis which bear his name.

HENRY BESSEMER—MODERN STEEL WIZARD



Sir Henry Bessemer (1813–1898) was a British industrialist and metallurgist who, in 1856, developed a technique for the production of strengthened quality steel, called the Bessemer process. The Bessemer method spread rapidly all over the world, and Bessemer was awarded many foreign honors for his breakthrough, including the Order of Franz Josef of Austria and a medal from Napoleon III of France. He was also knighted in Britain.

- Sir Henry Bessemer (1813–1898) was the British inventor of a revolutionary process for the manufacture of steel, patented in 1856.

- Richard Trevithick (1771–1833), the father of railway travel, was a British mechanical engineer and inventor who developed the first mobile steam engines. He improved James Watt's steam engine design and, by 1801, had developed the first passenger-transporting trains. Three years later, the first railway tracks were laid and the age of train travel started.

- George Stephenson (1781–1848) was a British engineer who designed a new locomotive which could carry passengers and cargo. This engine, known as the *Rocket,* was unveiled in 1829 and stimulated the railway building industry even more than Trevithick's work.

The first locomotive engine was sent to North America from England the same year that the *Rocket* was unveiled.

- Alfred Nobel (1833–1896) was a Swedish inventor who devised military weapons such as mines, torpedoes, and dynamite.

- Guglielmo Marchese Marconi (1874–1937) was an Italian electrical engineer who won fame with the first practical radio-signaling system. In 1897, he formed Marconi's Wireless Telegraph Company, Ltd., in London and, in 1899, established radio communication across the English Channel between England and France. In 1901, he was the first to send radio signals across the Atlantic Ocean between England and North America. During World War I, he was in charge of the Italian wireless service and developed shortwave transmission as a means of secret communication. The American-based Nikola Tesla developed a similar system before Marconi filed his patents, and a longstanding dispute between the two erupted over who had invented the radio. Marconi, however, remains the most popularly credited inventor, and he certainly made the device commercially successful.

- Vlademar Poulsen (1869–1942) was a Danish inventor who developed the first tape recorder in 1898, using a magnetized steel tape in what he called the telegraphone. The magnetic tape common today in tape recorders was developed in Germany during the Second World War.

- Louis Pasteur (1822–1895) was a French scientist who is best remembered for developing the process of pasteurization, which is the sterilization of milk and other substances. He also founded the science of microbiology and developed vaccines for a wide range of diseases including anthrax and rabies.

- Gregor Mendel (1822–1884) was a German monk who discovered the laws of genetics through research with garden peas. Mendel described the patterns of inheritance in terms of seven pairs of contrasting traits that appeared in different pea plant varieties. He observed that the traits were inherited as separate units, each of which was inherited independently of the others. He found that each parent has pairs of units but contributes only one unit from each pair to its offspring. The units that Mendel described were later given the name genes.

He published his findings in 1866, and they became known as Mendel’s Laws of Inheritance.

• Louis Lumiere (1864–1948) was a French pioneer of motion photography who, with his brother Auguste, invented an early motion picture system and made the first proper film in 1895, showing it to the public in that same year: the first cinema show in the world.

North American Inventors and Their Inventions

• Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790) won fame for writing much of the American Constitution, but was an inventor in his own right. Franklin devised devices to control smoking chimneys (which were the first anti-pollution measures) and, in 1744, invented the Franklin Stove, which furnished greater heat with a reduced consumption of fuel.

His most famous discovery came in 1747, when he proved that lightning was an electrical phenomenon. He also invented the lightning rod.

• John Fitch (1743–1798) developed the first American steamboat in 1787. Fitch’s craft, which he patented in America and France in 1791, made up the first regularly scheduled steamboat line.

• Eli Whitney (1765–1825) is best known for his 1793 invention of the cotton gin, a machine that would separate the seeds from the fibers of the short-staple cotton plant, work previously done laboriously by hand.

• David Bushnell (1742–1824) built the first submarine in 1775. Called the *Turtle,* the one-passenger craft was a tarred, oaken sphere banded with iron and powered by hand-operated propellers and pumps. Designed for military use, its armament was an outside gunpowder bomb with a time fuse.

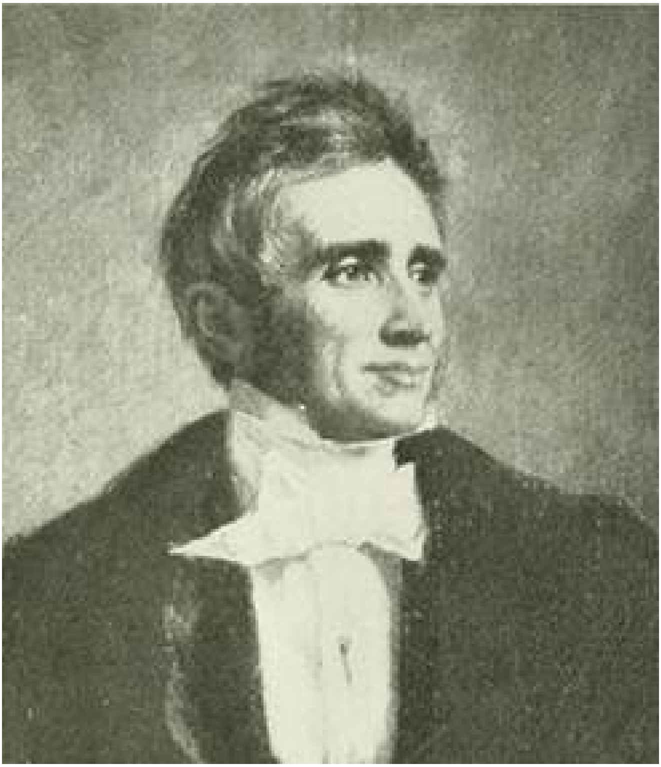
• George Henry Corliss (1817–1888) invented the Corliss valve in 1849, which regulates the flow of steam into an engine cylinder. The concept was then used in all valve-operated engine systems.

• Gail Borden (1801–1874) invented the process for condensing milk and conserving foods.

• John Ericsson (1803–1889) was the Swedish-born co-designer of the steam locomotive, the *Novelty,* which was the main competition to George Stephenson's *Rocket.* Although Ericsson's design failed mechanically during a race between the *Rocket* and the *Novelty,* it was the first locomotive to travel a mile in under a minute.

Ericsson also invented the screw propeller for ships (until then all ships had used oars or paddlewheels), with the first screw driven ship, the *Francis B. Ogden,* launched in 1837. In 1870 Ericsson patented the first solar-powered engine which used sunlight to boil water. The steam which it created was then used to drive machinery.

CHARLES GOODYEAR



The American inventor Charles Goodyear (1800–1860) who invented vulcanized rubber.

- Charles Goodyear (1800–1860) was a chemist who invented vulcanized rubber by mixing rubber and sulphur at high temperatures. This 1839 invention is still the basis of the rubber-manufacturing industry.

- Elisha Gray (1835–1901) became one of the more tragic inventors in American history when he handed in his patent for the telephone a few hours after Alexander Graham Bell handed in his. The credit for the telephone went to Bell, although Gray's device had been developed simultaneously. In 1888, Gray patented a facsimile telegraph system, and he founded the Western Electric Company.

- John Moses Browning (1855–1926) invented some of the most widely used weapons in the history of firearms. He developed several major innovations in gun technology, including breech- and automatic-loading systems, and repeating rifles and shotguns.

- Edwin Howard Armstrong (1890–1954) developed several electronic circuits and systems that were crucial to the development of radio, including the regenerative circuit (1912) and the frequency modulation (FM) radio broadcasting system.

The regenerative circuit amplified weak radio signals and revolutionized the range of radio broadcasting. The FM broadcasting system is in common use today.

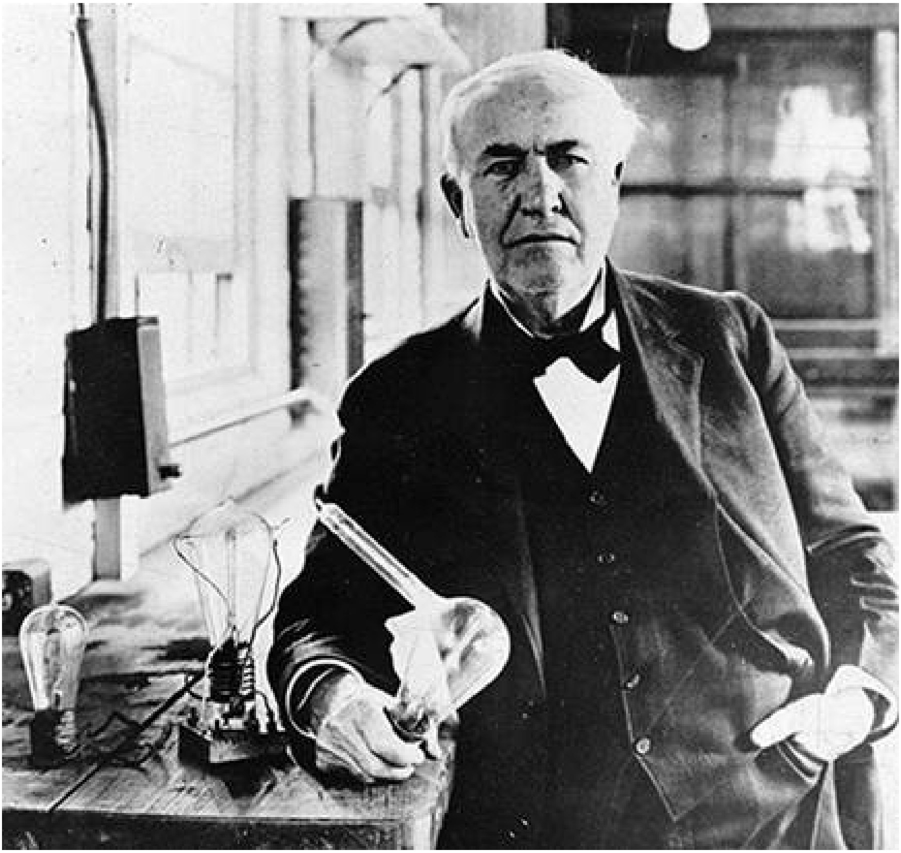
- Lee De Forest (1873–1961) designed a number of the earliest wireless radio and telegraph transmitters. His most important invention, however, was a type of vacuum tube that De Forest called the audion, and which today is known as the triode. The triode was the key component of all radio, radar, television, and computer systems until its replacement by the transistor in the early 1950s.

- John Deere (1804–1886) designed the steel ploughshare in the 1830s, replacing the cast iron version. The company he formed in Illinois became famous for the manufacture of all farming implements.

- Charles Edgar Duyera (1861–1938), with his brother, James Frank Duyera, built the first successful gasoline-powered automobile in America in 1894.

- George Eastman (1854–1932) patented the first practicable roll film in 1884. Prior to this, photography was limited to a tiny few, but Eastman's development placed photography within the reach of the large mass of consumers. In 1888, he perfected the Kodak camera and in 1889 invented flexible transparent film, which allowed the development of the motion picture industry.

THOMAS EDISON—LIGHTING THE WORLD



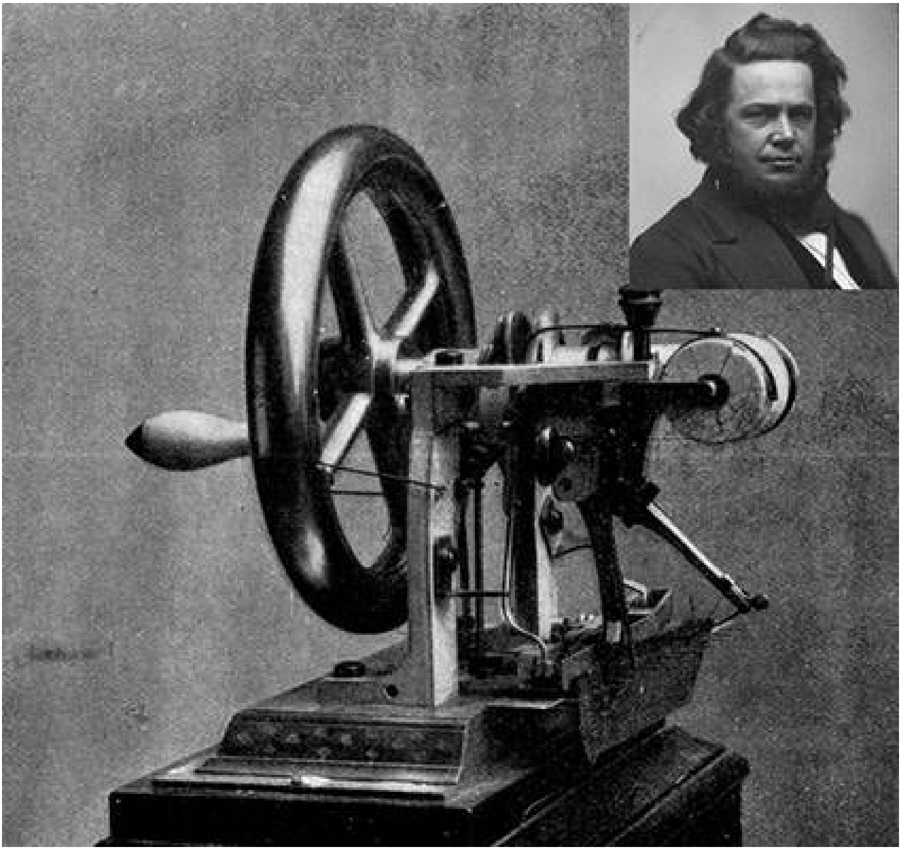
Thomas Alva Edison (1847–1931) was the inventor of the first practical incandescent lamp. This invention literally changed the physical appearance of the world, as electric lights can even be seen from space. This 1879 invention was one of Edison's many works of genius which totaled over one thousand innovations and included the phonograph and a practical motion picture camera.

- Thomas Alva Edison (1847–1931) was a prolific inventor who developed the electric light bulb, an electric generating system, the phonograph, a sound recording device using a round cylinder (he would later adapt it to record on a flat disc, which became the "record player"), and the motion picture projector, or Kinetoscope. By synchronizing his phonograph and Kinetoscope, he produced, in 1913, the first talking moving pictures. In 1882, he developed and installed the world's first large central electric power station, located in New York City. He also developed a commercial version of the battery, the mimeograph, the microtasimeter (used for the detection of minute changes in temperature), and a wireless telegraphic method for communicating with moving trains. Altogether, Edison patented more than one thousand inventions.

- Sherman Mills Fairchild (1896–1971) invented several cameras and designed the first enclosed cockpits on aircraft. He also invented the radio compass and hydraulic brakes and landing gears for aircraft. He founded the company, Fairchild Industries, in New York.

- Richard Jordan Gatling (1818–1903) won renown as the inventor of the Gatling Gun, the world's first repeat firing machine gun.

ELIAS HOWE—SEWING MACHINE INVENTOR



Elias Howe, the American born inventor who developed the sewing machine, only to have his copyright infringed by Isaac Singer who mass-produced Howe's machine while he was in Europe. Upon his return, Howe sued Singer, won, and was awarded significant damages. Above: The Elias Howe machine, September 10, 1846. Earliest model filed in Patent Office.

- Elias Howe (1819–1867) won fame when, in 1837, he designed, and, over the next nine years, built the sewing machine, for which he took out a patent in 1846. He then went to England, returning a few years later to find that Isaac Singer had stolen his patent and had started mass manufacture of the sewing machine under the Singer trade name. Howe pursued Singer in court, during the course of which unfounded charges of anti-Semitism were made against Howe by Singer, who was Jewish. After several years, Howe won the legal tussle. Singer was ordered to pay the inventor royalties on all Singer sewing machines ever produced, and Howe retired a wealthy man.

- Charles Franklin Kettering (1876–1958) invented some of the most recognizable items of modern life. They include: the electric automatic starter which he built specifically for automobiles, but later used for many other applications; the first electronic cash register, developed while he was working for the National Cash Register (NCR) company; the first engine-powered electricity generator; quick drying automobile paint; high octane and leaded gasoline; a nonpoisonous coolant for refrigerators, and the first practical engine for diesel locomotives.

- Herbert Edwin Land (1909–1991) won fame through his work in polarized light: he developed a new kind of polarizer, which he called Polaroid, by aligning and embedding crystals in a plastic sheet. Starting his own laboratory at the age of nineteen, he started the Polaroid Corporation in 1937, which developed infrared filters, dark adaptation goggles, and target finders. In the late 1940s, the corporation produced the first self-developing Polaroid Land camera.

- Hiram Percy Maxim (1869–1936) was one of a family of inventors. His father invented the Maxim machine gun and cordite. Other Maxim inventions included an electric automobile in 1897 and silencer devices for rifles and air compressors.

- Cyrus Hall McCormick (1809–1884) invented the first successful reaping machine in 1831. The technical innovations in this machine contributed greatly to the development of modern agriculture and have been included in every successful reaper manufactured since. The garden lawnmower is based on his original invention.

- Samuel Morse (1791–1872) won fame for his inventions of the electric telegraph and the Morse code. In 1843, the US Congress appropriated $30,000 for Morse to construct an experimental telegraph line between Washington DC, and Baltimore, Maryland. The line was successfully installed and, on May 24, 1844, Morse sent the first telegraph message: “What hath God wrought!”

- Graves Otis (1811–1861) pioneered the construction and manufacture of steam-powered elevators. He founded the Otis Elevator Company.

- George Mortimer Pullman (1831–1897) designed the first railway sleeping coach. His factory developed into its own town, Pullman, in Illinois.

- Christopher Sholes (1819–1890) invented the first practical typewriter in 1867, perfecting a design which had first been attempted in 1714 by Henry Mill in England. The development of the machine was incredibly difficult and no less than seventy-six attempts preceded Sholes' successful design. In 1873, Sholes signed a contract with the Remington Arms Company, a gun manufacturer, to build and market the typewriter. Sholes developed the "QWERTY" keyboard (still in use in modern English language computers) to overcome the problem of typewriter keys sticking at the point of contact with the ribbon. The keys for the letters that most often appear in combination in the English language are located far apart on the keyboard.

- Elmer Ambrose Sperry (1860–1930) patented more than four hundred inventions including the electric-arc light, electric streetcars, improvements to electric motors, the gyrocompass, the gyropilot for steering ships, the automatic gyropilot for stabilizing aircraft, and electrically sustained gyros that control submarine and aerial torpedoes.

- Nikola Tesla (1856–1943) was a Croatian-born American electrical engineer who, in 1888, designed the first practical system of generating and transmitting alternating current for electric power. In 1895, Tesla's alternating-current motors were installed at the Niagara Falls Power Project.

- George Westinghouse (1846–1914) won fame for inventing the railway frog, a device which permits trains to cross from one track to another. In 1868, he invented the airbrake, for which he became most famous.

- Chester F. Carlson (1906–1968) invented xerography, an electronic dry-copying process for the reproduction of images or documents, now called photocopying.

- Alexander Graham Bell (1847–1922) was a Scottish-born American inventor who won fame for inventing the telephone. He also invented the aileron, a device used in every aircraft to control the rate of lift through the air. He founded the Bell Telephone Company and his descendants founded the *National Geographic* magazine.

The Real Origin of Paper

It is often claimed that paper was invented in China or Egypt. In reality neither of these two civilizations had paper. A textile-based parchment had been invented in China, and the ancient Egyptians used bound and stamped reeds (papyrus) as parchment. The very earliest writing parchments in Europe were also made out of textiles, but there is no evidence that this development was transmitted from the East.

In Europe, scraps of textiles were pulped by hand in order to make them thin enough to be used as writing material. This process was revolutionized in 1798 by the French scientist Nicholas Louis Robert, who invented the first mechanical paper pulping machine. The raw material was, however, still crude textile. Robert's machine was improved by Henry and Sealy Fourdrinier, British stationers and brothers, who, in 1803, produced the first of the machines that bear their name.

In 1850, a German, Friedrich Gottlob Keller, devised the first method of making paper from wood pulp, and an Englishman, Hugh Burgess, improved upon this process in 1852 by mixing the wood pulp with chemicals.

In 1867, the American chemist C.B. Tilghman added sulfites during the pulping process, and finally, in 1879, C.F. Dahl, a Swede, perfected the use of wood pulp by adding yet another chemical. Modern paper is thus exclusively a European invention.

Printing

As with paper, it is often claimed that printing was invented in China. This is also untrue. The Chinese did develop a clever system of pattern stamping in which a strip of material was laid against a water based painted picture to transfer the image, but this worked only for very basic patterns and was consequently not widespread. There is also no evidence that this technique was ever exported outside of China.

In Europe, printing was developed by the German Johann Gutenberg in the city of Mainz in 1450. Gutenberg based the design of his printing machine on a wine press, and developed raised and movable type. He also pioneered the use of oil-based inks for printing. The invention of the printing press revolutionized the spread of knowledge. The first printing press was built in Venice in 1469, and by 1500, the city possessed 417 printers. In 1476, a printing press was built in England by William Caxton. The Spaniard Juan Pablos imported a printing press to Mexico City, Mexico, in 1539. This was the first printing press in North America. In 1628, Stephen Day set up America's first printing press at Massachusetts Bay in 1628.

Gunpowder

The first written reference to the plans to manufacture gunpowder appeared in the writings of the thirteenth century English monk Roger Bacon. This contradicts the oft-held theory that gunpowder was developed in China and exported to Europe. The Chinese did possess a flammable chemical which they used in bamboo tubes to make clay pellet firing "rockets." However, a fourteenth century German monk, Berthold Schwarz, is acknowledged as the inventor of the modern gun as he used Bacon's gunpowder to fire a projectile of substantial weight at a powerful velocity. The discovery was made by accident: Schwarz was preparing gunpowder in a closed vessel called an apothecary's mortar when the mixture ignited and blew the pestle from the mortar. The use of "mortar" for a type of ordnance has remained ever since.

The oldest European cannon dates from 1300 and was made in Sweden, while the oldest Chinese cannon dates from 1332. European cannon are also depicted in a 1326 manuscript on war by Walter de Millimete of England. Gunpowder factories had been established in England and Germany in 1334 and 1340 respectively. "Gunnis cum telar" ("guns with handles") became widespread in Europe in the 1350s, a development which marked the emergence of the personal firearm.

The Automobile

The first self-propelled vehicle was a three-wheeled steam-powered engine developed in 1769 by the French army officer Captain Nicolas Joseph Cugnot. He was the first inventor to successfully design a device which converted the motion of a steam piston into rotary motion by means of a ratchet arrangement. Although his design failed in practice, it laid out the basic concept for all engines since.

The next steam engines were developed in England. They were adjusted to run on tracks, and from this innovation came the idea to create railway engines. Steam-driven automobiles were also developed, and although slow and cumbersome, became popular in America during the very early twentieth century. The most famous steam-driven vehicle was the Stanley Steamer, built by Americans Freelan and Francis Stanley. A Stanley Steamer established a world land speed record in 1906 of 121 miles per hour (205 kilometers per hour). The steam engine vehicle was displaced by the more powerful internal combustion engine.

Internal Combustion Engines

In 1859, Jean Joseph Lenoir (1822–1900), a Belgian-born French inventor, produced the first one-cylinder internal combustion engine powered by kerosene, and developed it into the first internal combustion engine powered vehicle. The German engineer Nikolaus Otto (1832–1891) invented the first four-stroke internal combustion engine in 1876. This revolution paved the way for the development of the modern automobile.

The German Gottlieb Daimler (1834–1900) assisted in the development of the famous “Otto” gasoline engine but won fame for his 1887 “Daimler engine,” a high-speed internal-combustion engine that was the critical breakthrough step in the development of a viable automobile. Daimler and another German inventor, Wilhelm Maybach, mounted a gasoline powered engine onto a bicycle and created the first motorcycle in 1885. They followed this innovation in 1887 with their first car, which pioneered the use of a steering lever and a four-speed gearbox. Yet another German engineer, Karl Benz, produced his first gasoline car in 1886. In 1926, Daimler, Maybach, and Benz joined together to form the Mercedes Benz brand name of automobile manufacturers.

In 1897, the German engineer Rudolf Diesel (1858–1913) designed and invented the engine which is now named after him. His design maximized energy use by injecting fuel at the end of a piston’s compression cycle (as opposed to the start, as is the case with conventional gasoline engines), which is then ignited by the high temperature resulting from the compression.

Modern tarred roads were the result of the work of two British engineers, Thomas Telford and John Loudon McAdam. Telford designed the system of raising the foundation of the road in the center to act as a drain for water: eventually this became the norm for all roads everywhere.

It is often claimed that Adolf Hitler and the National Socialist government in Germany invented the autobahn (the highway or freeway), but this development predated Hitler’s rise to power.

The first proper automobile highway, the autostrada, was built between Milan and the northern Italian lakes in 1922. Hitler's government, however, was the first to build large numbers of autobahns which linked all the major cities across Germany, and it was this concept which was copied all over the world.

Oil Wells

The first commercial exploitation of natural oil, known originally as "rock oil," occurred in 1852 when the Canadian-German physician and geologist Abraham Gessner obtained a patent for producing kerosene from crude oil.

The first proper oil wells were dug in Germany in 1857, but the first successful oil well dig was carried out in 1859 by Edwin Drake at Oil Creek, Pennsylvania, in the United States. Drake's success marked the beginning of the rapid growth of the modern petroleum industry. George Kettering was the first scientist to distill high octane fuel from crude oil.

Electricity

- The English scientist, William Gilbert, coined the word "electricity" in 1600 when he used the Greek word for "amber" to describe the phenomenon in a book.

- In 1672, the German scientist Otto von Guericke invented the first machine to produce an electric charge.

- In 1773, the French scientist Charles Du Fay discovered the existence of two types of electricity and named them "vitreous" and "resinous" (later known as positive and negative charge respectively).

- The British scientist Joseph Priestly proved in 1766 that the force between electric charges varies inversely with the square of the distance between the charges.

- The Italian physicist Alessandro Volta developed the precursor to the modern electrical battery in 1880. The unit of electricity, the volt, was named after him in honor of his discovery.

- In 1819, the Danish scientist Hans Christian Oersted discovered that a magnetic field exists around an electric current flow.

- In 1831, the British scientist Michael Faraday proved that a current flowing in a coil of wire can electromagnetically induce a current in a nearby coil.

• In 1840, the British scientist James Prescott Joule and the German scientist Hermann von Helmholtz demonstrated that electric circuits obey the law of the conservation of energy and that electricity is a form of energy. The unit of energy, the Joule, is named after the Englishman.

• The British inventor James Clerk Maxwell investigated the properties of electromagnetic waves and light and developed the theory that the two are identical.

• The Dutch physicist Hendrik Lorentz developed the electron theory in 1892, which is the basis of modern electrical theory.

• The German physicist Georg Simon Ohm used Volta's electrochemical cell and his own equipment to determine that the current that flows through a wire is proportional to its cross-sectional area and inversely proportional to its length. This was the beginning of electrical circuit analysis and is known today as Ohm's law.

• The American scientist Robert Millikan was the first to measure the charge on an electron in 1909.

• The widespread use of electricity as a source of power is largely due to the work of such pioneering American engineers and inventors as Thomas Alva Edison and Nikola Tesla.

• The transistor was developed at Bell Telephone Laboratories by the American physicists Walter Houser Brattain, John Bardeen, and William Bradford Shockley. For this achievement, the three shared a Nobel Prize.

Television

The concept of television was pioneered by the Scotsman, James Clerk Maxwell, who in 1873, predicted the existence of the electromagnetic waves that would enable pictures and sound to be sent by air instead of along wire as was then currently the case.

• In 1873, the English scientist, Willoughby Smith, and his assistant, Joseph May, discovered photoconductivity after observing that the electrical conductivity of the element selenium changes when light falls on it. This characteristic was used in the vidicon television camera tube.

• Photoemission, the effect that certain substances emit electrons when exposed to light, was discovered in 1888, by the

German physicist, Wilhelm Hallwachs. This effect was applied to the image orthicon television camera tube.

- In 1906, the American Lee De Forest patented the triode vacuum tube. By 1920, the tube had been improved to the point where it could be used to amplify electric currents for television.

- The German engineer Paul Nipkow designed the first true television system in 1884. This consisted of a rotating punched-hole disk which scanned an image piecemeal into a camera. The scanned image was then transmitted to a receiver which used another spinning disk to reverse the procedure and reconstitute the scanned picture.

- Nipkow's mechanical scanner was used from 1923 to 1925 in experimental television systems developed in the United States by Charles F. Jenkins, and in England by the Scotsman and inventor, John Logie Baird, the latter developing the Nipkow disk system to the point where he is generally credited with the development of modern television.

- The first electronic method of scanning an image for use in conjunction with Baird's development was created by an Englishman, A.A. Campbell-Swinton, in 1908.

PHILO FARNSWORTH—FIRST PRACTICAL TV CAMERA

Philo Taylor Farnsworth (1906–1071) was an American inventor who developed the first practical television camera and receiver which provided the breakthrough from Nipkow's "Spinning Disc" system to the electronic imaging process. His first design was made when he was just 14 years old.

- The American engineer Philo Taylor Farnsworth developed the first practical television camera in 1927 (when he was just twenty-one) which converted a captured image into an electric signal. This "image dissector" was the first proper all-electronic television system.

- In 1878, the British chemist and physicist Sir William Crookes invented the Crookes tube, which was a vacuumized glass device in which high voltage transmissions were transmitted between two electrodes. The Crookes tube was used in experiments which led to the discovery of x-rays by the German physicist W. C. Roentgen in 1895 and of the electron by the British scientist J.J. Thomson in 1897.

By 1908, Campbell-Swinton and a Russian, Boris Rosing, had independently suggested that a cathode-ray tube (CRT) be used to reproduce the television picture on a phosphor-coated screen. The CRT was developed for use in television during the 1930s by the American electrical engineer, Allen B. DuMont.

- Liquid Crystal Display (LCD) technology originated in 1888 when the Austrian botanist and chemist Friedrich Reinitzer first discovered liquid crystals in cholesterol extracted from carrots. In 1962, the American Richard Williams found that running an electric current through a thin layer of liquid crystals produced striped patterns. This laid the basis for the liquid crystal display technology which became used in a vast number of electrical applications.

By 1968, American researchers George Heilmeier, Louis Zanoni, and Lucian Barton had devised a method for electronic control of light reflected from liquid crystals. Their first liquid crystal display was replaced by a more efficient version designed by American James Fergason in 1969. It is Fergason's design which forms the basis of all present-day flat screen technology.

- The first public broadcasts of television were carried out in 1928 in New York, with the receivers being built by Alexander Graham Bell's company, General Electric, while the first public broadcasting of television programs took place in London in 1936.

- Color television was conceptualized and demonstrated by John Logie Baird in 1928, by using a Nipkow disk containing the three primary colors: red, yellow, and blue.

The system of using the primary colors was perfected in 1953, and color television was introduced in that year. In later applications, such as in television cathode ray tubes, these primary colors were changed to red, green, and blue.

Flight—from Balloons to Jets in Forty Years

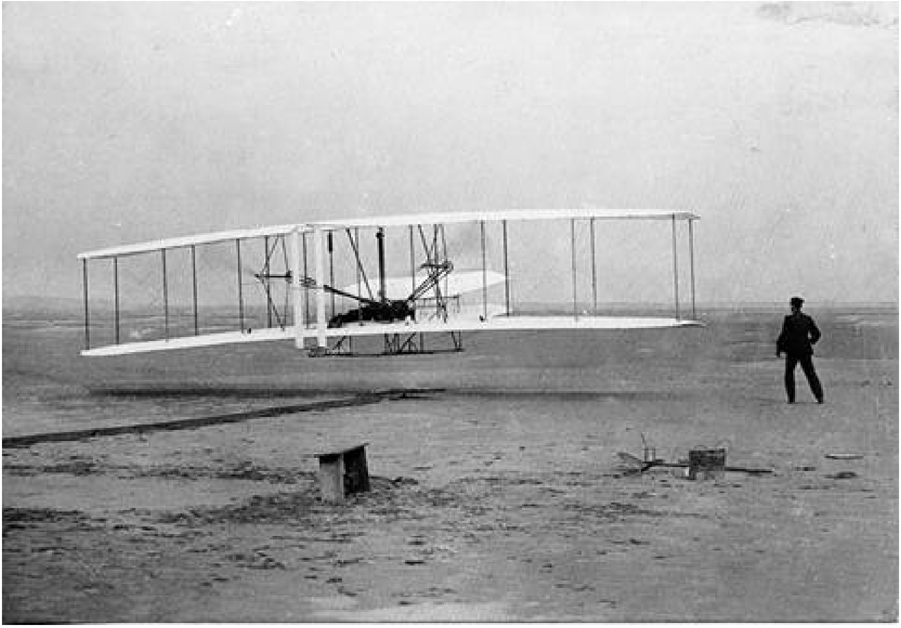
The first lighter than air flights were undertaken in 1783, by two French brothers, Jacques and Joseph Montgolfier, who used heated air in balloons. That same year the French physicist Jean Francois de Rozier made the first manned balloon flights near Paris. In 1785, the French aeronaut Jean Pierre Blanchard, accompanied by the American John Jeffries, made the first balloon crossing of the English Channel.

Sir George Cayley (1773–1857) was an English inventor who developed the concept of the modern airplane and is considered to be the founder of the science of aerodynamics. The essential form of the modern airplane, a rigid-wing structure driven by a then yet to be invented engine, was designed by Cayley in 1799.

In 1808, Cayley persuaded his coachman to man a glider he had built which was then launched. It carried the protesting employee some 275 meters (900 feet), before crashing and became the first recorded flight by any person in an aircraft. Cayley published his findings in a paper, “On Aerial Navigation” (1810), which earned him the title of the Father of Aviation. In this paper he laid out the basic ground rules for aviation which are still in use to this day, namely, inclined rigid wings, rudder steering control, and streamlining.

The American inventor Samuel Langley built the first heavier-than-air self-propelled aircraft in 1896. His aircraft, which he called the *Aerodrome,* was launched by catapult on the Potomac River in Virginia. It was unmanned, but still won renown for being able to fly under its own power.

FIRST MANNED FLIGHT—WRIGHT BROTHERS AT KITTY HAWK, NORTH CAROLINA 1903



First successful flight of the Wright Flyer, *by the Wright brothers. The machine traveled 120 ft (36.6 m) in twelve seconds at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. Orville Wright was at the controls and Wilbur Wright ran alongside to balance the machine, and had just released his hold on the machine in this famous photograph. It was a mere seventy-five years from this flight to the building of the first Boeing 747 “Jumbo” jet airliner, an aircraft which had a wingspan longer than the Wright brothers’ first flight.*

The Wright brothers, Wilbur and Orville, undertook the first manned powered aircraft flight in December 1903, at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. Orville Wright, who manned the flight, also invented the first wind tunnel in 1901 as part of the brothers' experimentation to find the correct wing shape. From then on, the design of aircraft improved by leaps and bounds. It was spurred on by two world wars, both of which saw aircraft being turned to military applications.

Long-Distance Flight

In 1909, the French aviator Louis Bleriot crossed the English Channel in an aircraft. In 1910, the American pilot, Eugene Ely, perfected the concept of taking off and landing on ships, and in 1911, the US Army used a Wright brothers' biplane to make the first live bombing test from an airplane. In 1911, the American inventor and aviator Glenn Curtiss introduced the first practical seaplane.

The first long-distance flight took place in 1913 when aircraft were flown from France to North Africa, and the first commercial aviation service started in January of 1914, just ten years after the Wrights' first flight. This first airline operated between Saint Petersburg and Tampa in Florida.

Jet Aircraft

The first jet engine was designed and built in 1937 by the British engineer Sir Frank Whittle. Within two years, a German aeronautical engineer, Willhelm Messerschmitt, produced a German version of the jet engine. In 1939, Messerschmitt produced the first aircraft to be powered by a jet engine and the world's first jet-powered flight took place in Nazi Germany that year.

The Nazis maintained their lead in jet engine propulsion throughout the Second World War. The world's first operational jet fighter, the Messerschmitt Me 262 was put into service in November 1944 and was followed with the world's first rocket-powered interceptor, the Messerschmitt Me 163 *Komet.*

ME 262—FIRST OPERATIONAL JET FIGHTER 1944

The Messerschmitt Me 262 Schwalbe ("swallow") was the first operational jet-powered fighter. Some 1,433 ME 262 aircraft were produced, but only about 300 were ever used in combat. This revolutionary aircraft entered service too late to affect the outcome of the war, but had a significant influence on postwar aircraft development. At the end of the war, the Me 262 and other advanced German technological breakthroughs were snapped up by the Soviets and the Americans. The Me 262 formed the basis of early US and Soviet jet fighters such as the F-86 Sabre and the Sukhoi Su-9.

After the war, Messerschmitt's jets and engines were copied and laid the basis for all military and commercial jet aircraft since. The world's first jet passenger airliners entered service in the early 1950s. In 1958, jet aircraft travel was revolutionized once again with the introduction of the first Boeing 707 jetliner in America. Boeing has continued to dominate the world airliner travel market, and has only been matched by the European Airbus consortium.

The Helicopter

The first recorded design of a helicopter (which was never built) is to be found in the drawings of Leonardo da Vinci dating from the year 1500. Although Da Vinci never saw his idea take practical form, the basic idea he conceptualized formed the basis of the development of the helicopter.

Many inventors tried their hand at perfecting the original Da Vinci design, but the first successful helicopter was a twin-rotor machine designed by the German engineer Heinrich Focke, which was flown in 1936 in Nazi Germany.

This was followed in 1939 by the Russian-American Igor Sikorsky's single rotor helicopter which made its first flight in Ohio. After the Second World War, the helicopter was refined and became common in both military and civilian applications.

Atomic Power

The British chemist John Dalton (1766–1844) is regarded as the father of atomic theory. He believed that the particles or atoms of different elements were distinguished from one another by their weights, and in 1803, published the first table of comparative atomic weights, inaugurating the quantitative atomic theory.

The next great step in atomic research came in 1895, when the German scientist Wilhelm Conrad Roentgen invented the technology known as x-rays.

The French scientist, Pierre Curie, and his Polish wife, Marie, made a number of breakthroughs in the study and research of nuclear energy at the turn of the nineteenth century. They discovered the elements polonium and radium and Marie became the first scientist to isolate the pure metal radium. One of the Curies' contemporaries was the British physicist Ernest Rutherford, who discovered the alpha, beta, and gamma rays emitted by radiation. This allowed scientists to explore the secrets of the atom. Rutherford established that the mass of the atom is concentrated in its nucleus and that electrons circle the nucleus, each with different electrical charges.

In 1930, the American physicist, Ernest Lawrence, developed the first particle accelerator, called a cyclotron.

Nuclear Reactions

In 1932, two British scientists, Sir John D. Cockcroft and Ernest Thomas Sinton Walton, were the first to use artificially accelerated particles to successfully disintegrate the nucleus of an atom. They produced a beam of protons (positive particles) which were boosted to high speed by means of a high-voltage device called a voltage multiplier. These particles were used to bombard a lithium target which then disintegrated the chemical's atoms.

Nuclear Applications

It was inevitable that the advent of the Second World War would see nuclear research turned to military purposes. Scientists in both Germany and America worked feverishly to build an atom bomb. The Germans were the first to start with nuclear fission experiments (fission being the igniter for a nuclear reaction) but their efforts were hampered by the large-scale Allied bombing.

Meanwhile, the Italian-American scientist Enrico Fermi perfected nuclear fission. A team was set up under great secrecy to develop the atom bomb under the code name the "Manhattan Project." The practical steps involved in adapting Fermi's fission device into a bomb which could be delivered by air were completed by mid-1945. The atom bomb was used against Japan and ended the Second World War in a mushroom cloud.

After the war, nuclear research was adapted to civilian applications. By the 1950s and early 1960s, nuclear power plants had been built in Western Europe, America, and the Soviet Union to manufacture electrical power.

Nuclear power plants around the world have suffered at least twenty major incidents involving the leakage of radioactive materials from 1961 to 2011, and as a result, some nations are reconsidering the use of this technology as a power-generating source.

Space Exploration

Almost all theory of space flight was worked out by three brilliant men over a period of nearly three centuries, from 1600 to 1900. Johannes Kepler was a German mathematician who, in 1609, developed the equations for orbiting planets and satellites. In particular, he determined that the planets move in ellipses (flattened circles) rather than true circles.

Isaac Newton was the English scientist who, in 1687, wrote what is probably the single greatest intellectual achievement of all time. In his book, *Principia,* he established the basic laws of force, motion, and gravitation and, in the process, invented calculus, a new branch of mathematics. He did all this to prove the validity of Kepler's equations which show that the force of gravity is the reason for the planets' orbital courses.

The Russian schoolteacher Konstantin Tsiolkovsky published all the basic equations required for modern rocketry in his 1903 book, *The Exploration of Cosmic Space by Means of Reaction Devices.* In this work, he anticipated and solved many of the problems which faced rocket designers and determined that liquid fuel rockets would be the best means of propelling manmade objects into space. He also wrote that rockets would need to be built in stages (which he called "rocket trains") and that oxygen and hydrogen would be the best fuels for the science of rocketry.

Robert Goddard—First Rockets

The American scientist, Dr. Robert H. Goddard, is considered to be the father of practical modern rocketry. His experiments with solid and liquid fueled rockets formed much of the basis of the development of ballistic missiles, earth-orbiting satellites, and interplanetary exploration. Goddard launched his first rocket in 1926 in Massachusetts, and although it only flew for 2.5 seconds, he showed that rockets could work. In 1930, he launched the world's first truly successful rocket, which reached two thousand feet and a speed of five hundred miles per hour.

ROBERT GODDARD—WORLD'S FIRST LIQUID-FUELED ROCKET

American physicist professor Robert Goddard (1882–1945) built the world's first working liquid-fueled rocket, launched on March 16, 1926. Goddard's pioneering work was largely ignored in his native America, but exploited in Germany by Nazi rocket scientists who perfected the technology.

Nazi Rockets Led the Space Race

The German rocket scientist, Hermann Oberth, is known as the father of space travel for his groundbreaking 1923 book, *The Rocket into Planetary Space.* Oberth's ideas were well received by Adolf Hitler, and funding was made available to Oberth to assemble a rocket research and development team. One of the scientists who Oberth recruited was Wernher von Braun (1912–1977). Von Braun's team developed the first Intercontinental Ballistic Missile (ICBM) in the world, known as the A4, or, in the common parlance, the V-2 rocket. This weapon was used to bombard Britain and Antwerp in the closing months of the Second World War and was the first manmade object to reach space, which it penetrated at the apogee of its flight.

At the end of the Second World War, Von Braun arranged for five hundred of his top staff, one hundred remaining V-2 rockets, and documentation to be handed over to the American army. This gamble paid dividends and he and most of his colleagues were whisked off to America to work in the US's military programs.

The Soviets captured some stragglers who were taken back to Russia and put to work. There they produced the first long-range Soviet missiles, known as Scuds, and helped develop the Soviet space program. The first Soviet satellite, *Sputnik 1,* was launched in 1957, followed in 1961 by the first manned spaceflight, that of Yuri Gagarin. In both cases it was a derivation of the V-2 rocket which put the Soviets into space.

Meanwhile, in America, about two thirds of the original V-2 team had been reassembled at the White Sands Proving Grounds, New Mexico. Led by Von Braun and Oberth, the team continued their work, and in 1950 Von Braun was transferred to Huntsville, Alabama, where for ten years he headed the Redstone missile program. He became a naturalized US citizen in 1955.

In 1958, the first American satellite was launched, again using a V-2 derivative rocket as its launch vehicle. After Oberth retired in 1960, Von Braun was appointed director of development operations at the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center under the aegis of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) in Huntsville. There the original V-2 rocket was redeveloped into a launch vehicle called the Redstone rocket. The first American astronaut to enter space, Alan Shepard, was carried into sub orbit by a Redstone rocket.

Von Braun's last great contribution to space exploration was his design of the *Saturn V* rocket, which was the most powerful machine ever built by man. This rocket was specifically engineered to take men to the moon and achieved this goal with the Apollo 11 mission which saw astronauts Neil Armstrong and Edwin Aldrin become the first humans to walk on the surface of another celestial body. They were followed by five further successful manned missions to the moon. In total, twelve men walked on the moon's surface before the program was halted.

VON BRAUN'S GREATEST DESIGN—THE *SATURN V*

Dr. Wernher von Braun and Dr. Kurt Debus, both former Nazi rocket scientists, pictured with their greatest invention, the Saturn V *rocket. This space vehicle, the most powerful machine ever built by man, weighed 6.5 million pounds and stood some 364 feet high. It was the primary launch vehicle for man's exploration of the moon and also launched the Skylab orbiting space station into earth's orbit.*

The American space program then switched to building an orbiting space station. By 1973, the world's first such station, called Skylab, had been launched by one of the last *Saturn V* rockets. The

Soviet Union duplicated these missions with the Soyuz space station program, and even entered into a joint mission with American astronauts.

The next technological breakthrough was the development of a reusable space craft. Both the Soviets and the Americans developed reusable craft, but the US version was the first to become operational as the space shuttle. The Soviet program collapsed after the fall of the Soviet Union and never actually flew, even though one full-size craft had been built.

Political Correctness Affects NASA

It was during the space shuttle program that liberals first noticed that the entire space program—from scientists to astronauts—had been exclusively white. Objections were raised, first at the presence of some of Von Braun's original team (one was stripped of his American citizenship and deported back to Germany, nearly forty years after he had first arrived), and then because there were no nonwhite astronauts. NASA was ordered to enforce an affirmative action program and find nonwhite astronauts.

Almost Unknown but Important

In addition to the famous inventors, there are a number of others who are almost unknown, but whose contributions to modern society are no less important.

- James King was an American who, in 1851, patented the first washing machine to use a drum. The first electric powered washing machine was introduced in 1908 by the Hurley Machine Company of Chicago, Illinois.

- Rowland Hill, a schoolmaster in England, invented the postage stamp in 1837, an act for which he was knighted. Through his efforts, the first stamp in the world was issued in England in 1840.

- Jesse W. Reno was an American who patented the first inclined conveyor belt in 1891. In 1900, the American inventor Charles D. Seeberger added steps to the conveyor belt and thereby created the present-day escalator.

- Charles Hanson Greville was an English scientist who, in 1860, first identified the chemical properties in natural rubber. This made possible the development of synthetic rubbers.

Research by teams of scientists in Germany and the United

States resulted in the production of the first viable synthetic rubbers in America after the Second World War.

• Robert W. Thompson was a Scottish inventor who, in 1845, developed the first pneumatic tire.

• John Wesley Hyatt was an American who developed modern plastics in 1870 after entering a competition held by a billiard ball manufacturer who wanted an alternative to ivory.

Hyatt developed a method of pressure-working pyroxylin, a cellulose nitrate of low nitration that had been plasticized with camphor and an alcohol solvent. The substance, patented under the trademark Celluloid, was the first plastic. This process led to the plastics industry.

• In 1920, the German chemist Hermann Staudinger discovered the existence of macromolecules, which he called polymers. This breakthrough created the science upon which all modern polymer plastics were developed.

• Leo Hendrik Baekeland was a Belgian-American chemist who invented Bakelite, an early resin, in 1906.

• Johan Vaaler was a Norwegian who invented the paper clip in 1899.

• Percy Spencer was an American who invented the microwave oven in the late 1950s after experiments with a magnetron, a device designed to produce short radio waves for a radar system.

• The Frenchman Claude Chappe invented the mechanical semaphore system for ships in 1792.

• William Murdock was an Englishman who invented practical industrial-scale gas lighting—later extended to streets—in 1802.

• Jean Jacques Dony was a Belgian who was the first to produce an extract of zinc in 1805.

• Friedrich Woehler was a German who, in 1827, was the first to produce an extract of aluminum from clay.

• Nicolas Appert was a Frenchman who developed the technique for the sterilization of tinned food in 1809.

• Benjamin Delessert was a Frenchman who extracted sugar from beet sugar in 1812.

- Aristide Bergès was a Frenchman who designed the first hydroelectric station in the world in France in 1870.

- Henri Sainte-Claire was a Frenchman who started the first industrial aluminum production in 1854.

- Ernest Solvay was a Belgian who started the first industrial soda production in 1861.

- Hilaire de Charbonnet was a Frenchman who invented artificial silk in 1884.

- Charles Tellier was a Frenchman who invented the modern refrigerator in 1867.

- Percy Gilchrist and Sidney Thomas were two Englishmen who jointly extracted the first phosphorus from iron in 1875.

- P.L.T. Heroult in France, and C.M. Hall in America, independently produced aluminum by electrolysis in 1866.

- Eugene Turpin was a Frenchman who invented melinite, an explosive charge, in 1892.

- Herman Dresser was a German chemist who invented aspirin in 1893.

- Frederick Hopkins was an Englishman who discovered the existence of vitamins in 1912.

Racial Implications

As the reader can see, it is no exaggeration to say that white inventors were responsible for almost every technological breakthrough in use in the world today.

White technological know-how has physically shaped the face of the earth, despite white people being an absolute minority of the globe’s population.

CHAPTER 60: The First Great Brothers' War—World War I

The First World War started as a localized conflict between the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Serbia and mushroomed into a worldwide war which ultimately involved thirty-two nations and inflicted incalculable harm to the population growth of Europe.

The fundamental cause of the conflict lay in the centuries of nationalistic wars which characterized European history for the two hundred years preceding 1914. The war which broke out in that year was different as it was fought with the aid of the dramatic increase in technology which had taken place during the last part of the nineteenth century. The result was a devastating conflict which had never been seen before, and in some aspects, has not been seen again.

NATIONALISM DRIVES INTERNECINE WAR

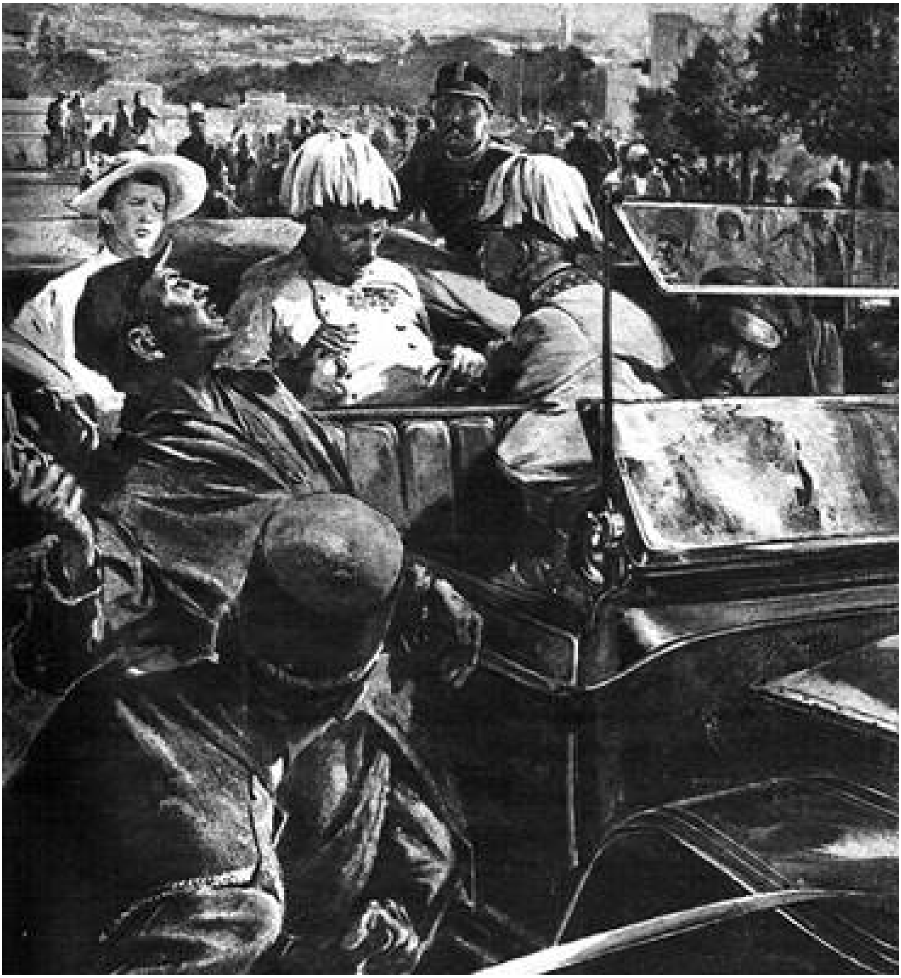
German Kaiser Wilhelm II, center, discussing war plans with, left, General von Hindenburg, and right, General Paul Ludendorf. Despite being blood relations, most of the royal families of Europe seemingly had no compunction in going to war with each other.

Nationalistic Conflicts Flourish after Napoleonic Wars

If a starting point for the rash of nationalistic conflicts in Europe can be identified, it might very well be the French Revolution and resultant Napoleonic Wars. As Napoleon's armies marched across Europe, the concept of distinct national identities and nationalisms flared up, and it is no coincidence that many of the modern European nations took on their approximate present-day borders after the Napoleonic Wars.

In this sense, the Austro-Hungarian Empire was an anachronism in the European political landscape. It consisted of a multitude of different ethnic (and in some parts, racial) elements, thrown together under one royal household. The Austro-Hungarian Empire was completely out of pace with the spread of nationalism in Europe, and from this ferment came the spark which eventually grew into the fire of world war.

ASSASSINATION SPARKS WORLD WAR I



The assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand by Serbian nationalist Gavrilo Princip. The plot to murder Ferdinand was hatched by the “Black Hand,” a Serbian group seeking independence for Bosnia-Herzegovina from the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Princip was arrested and, along with the other assassins, eventually revealed the plot. Under Austro-Hungarian law, capital punishment could not be imposed on someone who was under the age of twenty. Princip therefore received the maximum penalty of twenty years, and died of tuberculosis on April 28, 1918. Below, the trial of the assassins took place in Sarajevo during October 1914. Princip is in the center of the front row.

International Alliances Emerge

Growing competition between European nations and a series of conflicts which dated to the beginning of the nineteenth century resulted in the formation of two great alliances: the Central Powers and the Triple Entente. The Central Powers consisted of Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy, while the Triple Entente consisted of Britain, France, and Imperial Russia.

All the nations involved in these alliances, motivated by chauvinistic nationalism and competing international interests, invested heavily in armaments and created large standing armies. Minor clashes occurred prior to 1914 (for example, when German and French forces fought over competing interests in Morocco), but by June 1914, tensions had already reached the breaking point when the final spark was struck.

On June 28, the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, was assassinated in Sarajevo by a Bosnian Serb nationalist, Gavrilo Princip, as part of a secret plan by Serbian military intelligence to create the conditions under which the Austro-Hungarian Empire would be broken up and a united separate Slavic state ("Yugoslavia") could be created.

In retaliation, the Austro-Hungarian government issued an ultimatum to the Serbians which contained ten demands, most of which had to do with the suppression of anti-Austrian propaganda in Serbia. Two days later, Serbia accepted all but two of the demands. This was too little for the Austro-Hungarians, and on July 28, the Austro-Hungarian Empire formally declared war on Serbia.

The Austro-Hungarians viewed the war as little more than a local affair which would provide a perfect opportunity to extinguish budding pan-Slavism which was tugging at the seams of the empire. Instead, it quickly escalated out of control and destroyed the empire forever.

War Escalates as Russia and Germany Enter

The declaration of war against Serbia caused a chain reaction in the system of alliances across Europe. Russia was allied to Serbia, and promptly announced a mobilization of its forces against the Austro-Hungarians. Germany then issued a warning that any move against Austro-Hungary would be met with pan-German resistance. An official German note was sent to Russia which demanded a demobilization of all Russian forces. The tsar refused to accede to the demand, and on August 1, 1914, Germany declared war on Russia. France, which was allied to Russia, announced a general mobilization and declared its intention to go to war should the Germans attack the Russians.

German Invasion of Belgium and France—British Declare War

On August 2, the Germans struck in the west. German armies advanced through Belgium and entered French territory on August 3, at which time the German government formally declared war on France. Britain then declared war against Germany on August 4, citing the invasion of neutral Belgium as the main *casus belli*. Japan, which had been in an alliance with Britain in 1902, declared war against Germany on August 23.

Within a matter of days, three large fronts were opened: in the west on the French-German border, in the east on the German-Russian border, and in the southeast between Austria-Hungary and Serbia.

German Advance in the West

The initial German advance on the western front was rapid. Their armies swept through Belgium and won the first major clash with French forces at the Battle of Charleroi. The British sent an expeditionary force of ninety thousand men across the English Channel to support the French, but these reinforcements were also routed by the Germans at the Battle of Mons.

Defeated twice in a row, the French and British were plunged into a headlong retreat westward. The Germans pressed home their victories and crossed the Marne River, to threaten Paris. The French government, expecting Paris to fall, moved the major organs of government to Bordeaux, and a general collapse seemed imminent.

The German High Command, flushed with the easy and unexpected success on the western front, transferred six army corps to the eastern front, where the campaign against Russia had moved into full swing. This decision proved to be a major tactical error, as the weakened German forces on the western front were then unable to clinch the decisive victory which seemed possible so early in the war.

GERMANS DIG FIRST TRENCHES

German troops started digging huge trench emplacements once their initial attack ran out of steam. Allied counterattacks failed to break the German trench system. The Allies quickly followed suit and dug trenches of their own.

French Counterattack and the First Trenches

The French army turned on the weakened German forces as they crossed the Marne River on September 5. The German advance wilted under the unexpected French counterattack and fell back to the Aisne River, where, after being reinforced, they dug defensive positions and awaited a new French assault.

The German defensive positions were prepared with Teutonic efficiency. A network of trenches, barbed wire, dugouts, and mines presented an almost insurmountable obstacle to the French attackers. This development of static trench warfare set the standard for the rest of the conflict on the western front. It was light-years removed from the set battle pieces and mobile tactics of previous European wars—and far more murderous.

The French launched three major attacks to dislodge the Germans from their dug-in positions: the Battle of the Aisne, the Battle of the Somme River, and the first Battle of Arras. All three attempts failed and the French learned the hard way how effective trenches were as a defensive measure.

After these battles, the French and British forces dug their own trenches which proved to be nearly impassable to the Germans as well.

Antwerp Falls to Germans

On the northern part of the western front, the German advance had not slowed. The Belgian city of Antwerp fell to the Germans on October 10 and the British and Belgian armies fell back toward the coast. A complete collapse in Belgium was only avoided when Belgian engineers deliberately opened the sluices on the Yser River, flooding a large part of the front in the path of the Germans.

The temporary halt in the German advance allowed the British time to regroup and go over to the offensive. In a series of clashes known collectively as the Battle of Flanders, the British halted the German advance in Belgium and forced a trench-based stalemate, as had happened in France.

Western Front Grinds to a Halt in December 1914

In December 1914, the French and British launched a new assault on the German lines. This attack, however, was broken up by the German defenses, and the entire western front settled down to a stalemate. By the end of 1914, the trench lines extended more than five hundred miles, from Switzerland to the North Sea. Trench warfare broke the mobility needed to bring conflicts to a sharp end as neither side was able to penetrate each other's defenses and win a decisive victory. As a result, the front line hardly moved for another three years from the positions established in October 1914.

Naval Clashes in North Sea, Pacific, and Atlantic

During the course of 1914, the German, French, and British navies engaged in small battles which took place in the North Sea and the Atlantic Ocean. The first blow was struck by the British, who raided the North Sea German naval base at Helgoland Bight and sank three German ships in a surprise attack.

During September and October 1914, a task force of five German naval raiders in the South Pacific attacked French and British installations on the islands of Tahiti and Fanning Island. The German raiders then defeated a British squadron off Chile in November 1914. The German naval victories came to an end when a British force engaged the German raiders at the Battle of the Falkland Islands in December 1914, sinking four of the five German vessels. In the interim, German submarines went on the offensive and sank several British ships, including the major warship *Audacious,* which was torpedoed in October 1914.

The Zeppelins Raid Paris and London

The German air force launched its first raid on Paris in August 1914. The first German air raid on Dover, England, took place in December of that year. In 1916, the Germans perfected the airship (known as the zeppelin, after its designer, Count Graf von Zeppelin) and, during that year, England and London were raided sixty times by bomb-dropping zeppelins.

The first German aircraft raid on London took place in November 1916 after repeated bombings of German cities by the French and British air forces. The tit-for-tat civilian bombing continued right up to the end the war. No military advantage was gained by the bombing campaigns, and civilian morale was largely unaffected.

Manfred von Richthofen—the Red Baron

The progress of the war saw a number of technological breakthroughs in aircraft design. The German invention of a machine gun which could shoot through the rotating propeller without destroying the blades made the German fighters—for a while—the most accurate gunships in the air, at least until the British duplicated this breakthrough.

Among the German air aces to exploit this technological leap was the famous “Red Baron,” Manfred von Richthofen. His squadron, the “Flying Circus,” was famous because he painted his aircraft bright red so as to attract enemy aircraft (other airplanes were painted in colors designed to avoid detection).

After Richthofen was shot down and killed in 1918, leadership of the Flying Circus passed to his deputy, Herman Goering, another German air ace. By 1918, however, the arrival of hundreds of American aircraft ensured that air supremacy passed permanently into Allied hands.

Chlorine Gas Used for the First Time

The stalemate on the western front continued throughout the first part of 1915, interrupted only by a massive British attack at Neuve Chapelle in March 1915. Despite a huge loss of life, the British attack only succeeded in taking the very outermost of the German defensive positions.

The Germans launched their only offensive of 1915 in April at Ieper (Ypres) in Belgium. This attack was marked by the use of chlorine gas, an event which set a frightening precedent and was quickly emulated by all sides. The German attack achieved almost nothing by way of territorial gains and broke apart upon the Allied trenches.

In May and June, the French and British launched a combined offensive against the German lines between Neuve Chapelle and Arras. Once again, despite huge losses, the gains were minimal, and took only 2.5 miles of land, still well within the German trench works. In September, the French launched an attack on the German lines between Reims and the Argonne Forest. Once again the attack ground to a halt after the French took only the first line of German trenches.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE ENDED BY WORLD WAR I

A Turkish army caravan makes its way through the desert as part of the abortive effort to stop the British advance through the Middle East. The Ottoman Empire was destroyed in this war, ironically after aligning itself to Germany, one of the nations who in previous centuries had been a bulwark against Ottoman expansion into Europe.

The Russians Invade East Prussia but Are Defeated at Tannenburg

On the eastern front, the Germans initially fared poorly. The tsar's armies defeated the German forces in several engagements fought during August 1914 and advanced deep into East Prussia and the Austrian province of Galacia. The German situation became so desperate that emergency plans to evacuate the entire province of East Prussia were launched. In the south, the Russian armies overran most of Galacia and by March 1915 were poised to invade Hungary.

Just when a German collapse in East Prussia seemed inevitable, a new German army under the command of General Paul von Hindenburg entered the fray. The German forces engaged the Russians at the Battle of Tannenburg and achieved an unexpected but decisive victory during the last week of August 1914. The entire Russian Second Army was destroyed in this battle, and follow-up actions destroyed most of the First Russian Army as well. These cumulative reverses forced the Russians back into their own territory where the front line would remain for the duration of the war.

The Germans and Austro-Hungarians Advance East

The German forces followed up the victory at Tannenburg with two further victories at the first and second battles of the Masurian

Lakes, fought in September 1914 and February 1915 respectively. In April 1915, a combined German and Austro-Hungarian army launched a major offensive against the Russians which drove them out of the Carpathians. In May, a renewed offensive against the Russians in central Poland forced the tsar's armies to withdraw completely from Galacia. By September 1915, the Germans had driven the Russians out of Poland, Lithuania, and Courland, and taken possession of the western border of Russia.

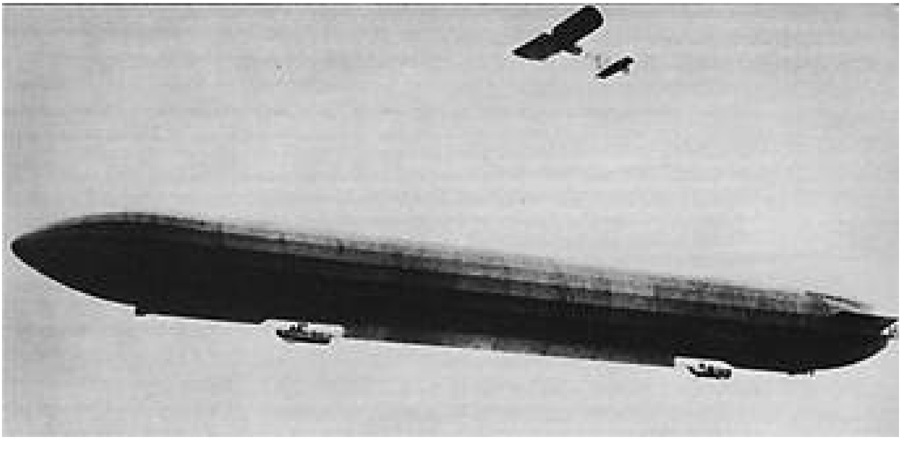
When the advance east finally halted, the front line lay well within Russia, behind the Dvina River between Riga and Dvinsk, and south to the Dniester River. The Russians lost thousands of men and much equipment. It would be months before they were to play any significant role in the war again.

British and French Attack in the Southeast

On the third front, that between Austro-Hungary and Serbia, the initial Austrian attacks were repulsed by the small but powerful Serbian army. The front then devolved into a stalemate and, in October 1915, British and French troops landed in neutral Greece at Salonika (with the permission of the Greek government) with the aim of coming to the aid of Serbia.

The Bulgarians, seeking revenge for their defeat in the Second Balkan War of 1913, then intervened in the conflict. Bulgaria declared war on Serbia and formally entered the war on the side of the Central Powers. The newly-landed Allied troops advanced into Serbia but were routed by a well-planned Bulgarian offensive and forced to retreat back to Salonika.

NEW GERMAN WEAPONS—THE ZEPPELIN AND U-BOAT



The two major German technological innovations of the war were the zeppelin (seen here with its fighter escort), which was used to bomb Paris and London, and the U-boat, which attempted to blockade Britain in an effort to cut off American supplies. Ultimately, both weapons proved unsuccessful in altering the outcome of the war.

Serbia Overrun by Central Powers

In October 1915, Serbia was invaded by an army made up of soldiers from the Austro-Hungarian Empire and Germany. This attack, coming shortly after the Bulgarian victory in Serbia, saw the latter nation crushed. By the end of 1915, Serbia had been occupied by the Central Powers and eliminated from the conflict.

Turkey Enters War with Attack on Russia

Ottoman Turkey, still smarting at its defeat and ejection from its southern European-held territories during the First Balkan War of 1912, was easily persuaded to join in an attack on Russia, its long-time and fiercest rival in Eastern Europe. Turkish and German warships bombarded the Russian Black Sea ports and Russia responded by declaring war on Turkey in November 1914.

Britain and France then declared war on Turkey, and thus by a bizarre set of circumstances, the nonwhite power that had so long sought to conquer the Austrians found itself allied to that central European nation.

The Turks went on the offensive, and by December 1914, had conquered much of the Caucasus region. The Russians, under severe pressure from the Germans in the west and the Turks in the south, asked for help from the Allied powers in the form of a diversionary attack on Turkey. In February 1915, French and British naval units bombarded Turkish forts along the Dardanelles. This was followed by two seaborne invasions at Gallipoli in Turkey.

The Gallipoli Campaign

The invasion of Turkey, also called the Dardanelles Campaign, but most commonly remembered as the Battle of Gallipoli, took place in two phases between April 1915 and January 1916. The attack, an attempt to capture the Ottoman capital of Constantinople, failed. The invasion of Turkish territory took place from the sea with the first invasion force made up of British and French troops, backed by soldiers from the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps (ANZAC).

Although the invasion established a small beachhead, the Allied troops were never able to move more than two miles inland. After the battle had raged for more than eight months without any significant advance, the Allies called off the attack and retreated, with over 140,000 killed and wounded. The defeat led to the demotion of the plan's originator, First Lord of the Admiralty Winston Churchill, and the collapse of the British government. It was the single greatest Turkish victory of the war.

British Seize Mesopotamia from Turks

Mesopotamia, which lies in present-day Iraq, had been occupied by invading Muslim armies in 633 AD and was later incorporated into the Ottoman Empire. The British, operating from their colony of India, launched an attack on this easternmost border of the Ottoman Turks. After a series of battles, most of Mesopotamia was conquered, and from there the British launched a new drive on Baghdad.

A desperate Turkish rearguard action at the Battle of Ctesiphon in November 1915 saw the British defeated and forced to retreat back into Mesopotamia, where they were besieged by the Turks at the town of Al Kuut.

Italians Switch Sides to Join Allies

Although Italy was a formal member of the Central Powers alliance, it remained neutral until May 1915. That month, The Italians switched sides and, allied to Britain, France, and Russia, declared war on the Central Powers.

The Italians launched an offensive to capture Trieste from the Austro-Hungarians, but after four major battles with the Austrian army at the Isonzo River from June to December, failed in all their attempts to break through.

NEW BRITISH WEAPON—THE TANK

Conceptualized by Leonardo da Vinci, the British were the first to bring this weapon to practical use. The first battle in which tanks were deployed was the September 1916 Battle of the Somme, where forty-nine tanks took part. Little more than a year later, four hundred British tanks penetrated German lines near Cambrai, capturing eight thousand men and one hundred guns.

The Sinking of the **Lusitania**

By May 1915, the Germans had instituted a policy of trying to blockade Britain into submission. They reasoned that if the British could be starved of all supplies and raw materials, they would have to sue for peace. A policy of unrestricted submarine warfare was declared and all ships traveling to or from Britain were declared legitimate targets liable to be sunk without warning.

On May 7, 1915, the British passenger liner, *Lusitania,* which was carrying munitions and military supplies, was torpedoed by a German submarine. A number of American nationals were on board and died when the ship sunk. The American government protested and the Germans then announced a modification in their policy: in future all such ships would be warned before they were attacked and the Americans undertook to urge their nationals not to travel on such vessels.

In March 1916, a French liner, the *Sussex,* was sunk by a German submarine, again with the loss of American lives, leading to another controversy between the American and German governments. This time the Germans announced they were abandoning the unrestricted submarine warfare policy completely.

The Battle of Jutland

At the end of May 1916, a British fleet attacked a number of German ships off the Danish coast at Jutland. After an epic battle lasting two days, the two fleets retired from action, both claiming victory. The British lost three battle cruisers, three armored cruisers, eight destroyers, and 6,094 men were killed. The Germans lost one pre-dreadnought, one battle cruiser, four light cruisers, five torpedo boats, and 2,551 men. Although the British losses were greater, the German fleet never took to the seas again in such large numbers.

The Slaughterhouses of Verdun and the Somme

The German victories in the east against the Russians enabled them to transfer a half million men back to the western front in 1916, and in February they launched a new offensive designed to break the French lines around the city of Verdun.

After bitter fighting, the Germans seized some surrounding forts but failed to take Verdun, mainly due to the heroic French defense under the leadership of one of their ablest generals, Philipe Petain (who won the title of Hero of Verdun in France as a result).

By the end of November, the French had retaken all the lost territory and the front line had reverted back to its February position. German and French losses were massive. The French losses were so severe that they were only able to contribute sixteen divisions (out of an intended forty) to the next Allied offensive.

This attack, known as the Battle of the Somme, started in July 1916 and continued until November. It saw the first significant Allied territorial gains of the conflict in the west with the seizure of around 125 square miles of land wrested from German control. The main reason for this surprising territorial gain was the introduction of a

British secret weapon, the tank. This was the first time that an armored vehicle was deployed in a war, and they were called tanks only to disguise their nature while they were being built.

BATTLE OF THE SOMME—1.1 MILLION CASUALTIES

The Battle of the Somme was the greatest single battle of the entire war. Officially launched on July 1, 1916, the battle lasted until November. By its conclusion, the British had suffered 420,000 casualties including nearly 60,000 on the first day. The French lost 200,000 men, and the Germans nearly 500,000. The battle at the Somme started with a week-long artillery bombardment of the German lines in which 1,738,000 shells were fired. The hope was that this bombardment would destroy the German trenches and defensive emplacements. It was a mistaken belief: the Germans had deep dugouts and when the bombardment stopped, their troops simply redeployed. By the end of the battle, all the Allies had to show for the massive losses was a strip of land no more than thirty miles wide and seven miles deep.

New Russian Offensive Ends in Failure

In the east, the Russians launched a new offensive against the German lines in February 1916, with the intention of taking back the Lake Narocz region, northeast of Vilna. The attack was a failure and the Russians lost more than 100,000 men.

In June 1916, the Russians launched a new offensive against the Austrians on a wide front running from Pinsk to Czernowitz. This attack penetrated forty miles and took half a million prisoners until the arrival of German reinforcements turned back the Russian advance. The Russians lost a million men during the four month campaign.

The Russian advance persuaded Romania to enter the war on the side of the Allies. In August 1916, the Romanians declared war on Germany and Austria and invaded the Austro-Hungarian province of Transylvania. This attack resulted in a combined invasion of Romania by Austrian, Bulgarian, and Turkish armies. Romania was completely overrun by January 1917 and eliminated from the war.

The Southern Front Sees Allied Advance

On the southern front, five more battles took place on the Isonzo River during 1916. Five were launched by the Italians, and one by the Austrians, but all failed in their objective of breaking the stalemate along the front.

In the interim, dissent within Greece grew at what was perceived to be the pro-German attitude of the Greek king. This dissent took on physical form after a new Allied troop landing at Thessalonica caused rebel Greeks to set up an alternative government under Allied supervision in November 1916. Greece was politically and physically split into two parts: one neutral, and the other an active belligerent in the war. The “rebel” government of Greece declared war on Germany and the Austro-Hungarians, while the Allied navy blockaded the neutral part of Greece. Allied troops also invaded the Austro-Hungarian Empire’s territory and had seized Macedonia by the end of the year.

Turkish Territory Invaded

The British land offensive against the Ottoman Turkish Empire continued throughout 1916. By February 1916, most of Mesopotamia had been cleared of Turkish troops, and in Saudi Arabia an Arab uprising against Turkish rule took place. This development allowed the British to invade the Sinai Peninsula from Egypt and advance into Palestine.

Balfour Declaration Mobilizes International Jewry

The seizure of Palestine from the Ottoman Empire proved to be pivotal in the attitude of the World Zionist Congress toward the war. The World Zionist Congress, set up in the last decade of the nineteenth century, sought to create a Jewish homeland in Palestine, and saw the British occupation of that land as an opportunity to press home its demands.

After several meetings with the Zionists, the British foreign minister, Lord Arthur Balfour, issued a public promise in 1917 to the effect that Britain would support the creation of a Jewish homeland in Palestine. This undertaking, known as the Balfour Declaration, was rewarded by the World Zionist Congress with the promise that it would marshal the world's Jews behind the Allied cause—despite the fact that many thousands of German Jews were then fighting in the German Army. More importantly, the Zionists promised to use their influence to bring the United States into the war. (In this aim they were most successful of all, as outlined previously.)

The United States Enters the War

The American president Woodrow Wilson had been elected on a noninterventionist policy, but the course of the war at sea and the behind-the-scenes machinations of the Jewish lobby propelled the country toward war.

In January 1917, Germany announced that it was resorting to unrestricted submarine warfare against all shipping to and from Britain. This was a renewed attempt to force the British to surrender by physically depriving them of necessary fuels and foodstuffs.

The reintroduction of this policy brought about the excuse Wilson needed to bring America into the war. In February 1917, the US broke off diplomatic relations with Germany and formally declared war two months later. The timing of the US entry into the war—almost simultaneous with the Balfour Declaration—is too remarkable to have been coincidental.

By June 1917, about 175,000 American troops were already in France. By the end of the war, more than two million American soldiers had been sent to Europe where they played a decisive role in the Allied victory.

German Submarine Blockade of Britain Fails

The German attempt to starve Britain into submission through submarine warfare failed primarily due to the development of depth charges and other submarine hunting devices, the use of protected convoys for shipping, and the overwhelming industrial production capacity of the United States, which could turn out new ships and supplies far faster than what the German attacks could hope to neutralize.

In April 1918, the British, in an effort to end the submarine war, blocked the German submarine port at Zeebrugge in Belgium by deliberately sinking three aged British cruisers in the harbor entrance.

Finally the war of attrition grew too high and the German submarine losses outstripped the Allied shipping losses. The German campaign was gradually abandoned.

DESTRUCTION OF FRENCH TOWNS ON WESTERN FRONT

The staggering scale of the destruction wrought on the western front, caused by continuous bombardment of the same positions due to the largely *static front line, is evident from this photograph of the remains of a French town, situated just behind the Allied front. Some areas were leveled to the ground: trees, grass, shrubs, and buildings alike.*

Mata Hari, the Famous Spy

In 1917, a Dutch woman by the name of Gertrud Margarete Zelle was arrested by the French police in Paris. At the time she was working as an erotic dancer using the stage name of Mata Hari.

Apart from her professional life as a striptease dancer, she was also a German spy. By entrapping a string of high ranking Allied officers (whom she befriended at the club where she worked) into sexual relationships, she had been able to obtain many important military secrets for her masters. The name Mata Hari has since then became synonymous with a femme fatale. The original Mata Hari was executed in October 1917 by a French firing squad.

French Mutiny Erupts after Allied Setback

In April and May 1917, the Allies launched a major offensive on the western front at Arras. The Germans withdrew to a new position a short way back known as the Hindenburg Line. The Allied advance was halted at this heavily fortified and well prepared defensive position. Although Canadian troops took a small series of hills known as Vimy Ridge and the main British forces advanced four miles, this became the sum total of the Allied gains.

A French attack in Champagne fared so poorly that their troops mutinied. The disorder had to be suppressed by military police, and reinforcements (much needed elsewhere) were rushed in to replace the mutinous forces.

In June, a second Allied offensive took place when the British attempted to break the German lines in Flanders. After an opening engagement at Messines, a static battle took place at Ieper from July to November. Despite both sides losing in excess of 250,000 men, neither front line moved.

First Mass Tank Attack

An epic assault near Verdun saw the French take back a small area of land, and at the November 1917 Battle of Cambrai, the British deployed four hundred tanks in the first mass tank attack of the war.

The sheer weight of the offensive punched through the German lines, but a lack of reserves saw the attack peter out before it could be properly exploited. A German counterattack saw the five mile hole in their lines closed up and the original front line was restored once again.

The Russians Collapse as Tsar Abdicates

The Germans had let the Communist revolutionary Lenin and his cohorts enter Russia with the deliberate intention of letting them stir up trouble. This tactic proved successful beyond the German hopes. A popular revolution in March 1917 forced the tsar to abdicate and a new provisional government was appointed in Moscow.

However, much to Lenin's (and the Germans') anger, the new Russian government continued to participate in the war. In July, the Russians made modest gains on the Galacian front, although an immediate German counterattack retook the lost areas and then pushed on to take the city of Riga and all of Latvia by October 1917.

In November 1917, the Communist Party seized control of Russia and Lenin finally came to power. Within days, the Communists offered an armistice and by mid-December had signed the Treaty of Brest Litovsk which formally ended the war between Russia and Germany.

In terms of the treaty, Germany retained control over vast territories in the east, including almost all of the Ukraine, Byelorussia, and western Russia. The occupying Germans were only expelled after their collapse in the west, over a year later.

Yet More Battles at the Isonzo

On the southern front, yet more attacks took place around the front which had stalemated at the Isonzo River. The Italian attacks of 1917, which resulted in the tenth and eleventh battles of the Isonzo, broke up against the rock-solid German defense.

In October 1917, a renewed German-Austrian offensive broke the Italian line near the town of Caporetto and resulted in the first real gains of that campaign. The Italians lost at least 300,000 soldiers taken as prisoners, and easily as many deserted. French and British troops were rushed to Italy to bolster the southern front, and took position with the Italian forces along the Piave River.

In Greece, the longstanding stalemate came to an end in June 1917 when the neutral part was conquered by the pro-Allied side. The Greek king abdicated and the provisional government, recognized by the Allies, was installed.

Lawrence of Arabia and the Arab Revolt against the Turks

By November 1917, the British forces in Palestine had driven the Turks from their last stronghold of Gaza, and the following month saw the city of Jerusalem fall to the Allied army.

At the same time, the Arab revolt in Saudi Arabia, aided by the leadership provided by a British army officer named Colonel T. E. Lawrence (also known as “Lawrence of Arabia”), succeeded in driving the Ottoman Turks from that territory.

In addition, British forces took Baghdad, Ramadi, and other important towns in present-day Iraq. The borders of the Ottoman Empire had shrunk considerably by the end of 1917, and the threat of imminent defeat encouraged internal dissension in Turkey.

Romania Surrenders

The Russian collapse forced Romania to abandon the war as well. In May 1918, the Treaty of Bucharest was signed. This ended Romania’s participation in the conflict, ceded territory to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and gave Germany a long-term lease on some Romanian oil wells.

Austro-Hungarian Collapse

In September 1918, a combined Allied army of 700,000 men began an offensive in the Balkans against the southeastern reaches of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in Serbia. The offensive was successful and within one month, the Bulgarians surrendered and dropped out of the war.

The Allied armies advanced into Romania where a new provisional government tore up the Treaty of Bucharest and re-entered the war on the Allied side. Within a matter of months, the earlier Austro-German successes in the southeast had turned into a defeat. Belgrade was captured by the Allies at the beginning of November 1918, and a nearly simultaneous Italian invasion captured Albania.

On the southern front, an Austrian offensive against the combined Italian, French, and British emplacements along the Piave River in June 1918 was defeated after 100,000 Austrian soldiers lost their lives.

The Austrian defeat at the Piave River gave the military initiative to the Allies. The Battle of Vittorio Veneto, fought from October to November 1918, resulted in the destruction of the main Austrian army. Hundreds of thousands of prisoners were taken and the main Austrian force was smashed. Thousands of demoralized soldiers retreated in a shambolic fashion and the front line was weakened beyond repair.

On November 3, the city of Trieste fell to the Allies, and the city of Fiume surrendered two days later. The scale of the defeats served as the signal for the end of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The Czechs and the Slovaks declared their nations independent.

In October, the Slavs in the south declared themselves independent, and in November the Hungarians set up their own government. The Austrians and Hungarians then signed an armistice with the Allies on November 3, 1918, and the last Habsburg emperor, Charles I, abdicated. The Austrian Republic was proclaimed. Germany, which had entered the war to support the Austro-Hungarian Empire, now found itself isolated.

Turkish Collapse and the End of the Ottoman Empire

In September 1918, the British routed the last Turkish forces in Palestine and marched into Lebanon and Syria. Damascus fell to the Allies in October while the French occupied Beirut.

Faced with the complete collapse of their armed forces, the Ottoman Empire signed the Armistice of Moudros on October 30, 1918, which ended Turkish involvement in the war. The treaty obliged Turkey to demobilize, break off relations with the Central Powers, and allow Allied ships to pass through the Dardanelles. This signaled the end of the Ottoman Empire, and the “Young Turks,” under the leadership of Kemal Attaturk, seized power in that country and transformed it into a secular state.

GERMANS SURRENDER IN TRAIN CARRIAGE AT Compiègne

The French delegation, under the leadership of Ferdinand Foch (second from the right), emerges from the armistice-signing ceremony held in a railway car at a clearing in the forest of Compiègne. The railway car was used once again in 1940 to mark the surrender of France during the Second World War, and then removed as trophy by the Germans to Berlin, where it was later destroyed. A replica stands in its place in the present-day Museum of Victory and Peace at Compiègne.

Germans Launch Last Desperate Attack

Within the space of a year, Germany had gone from what seemed to be a complete victory to total isolation and the collapse of all of their allies. The German High Command correctly perceived that the only salvation lay in a decisive breakthrough on the western front. The Germans called in all their reserves and the troops from the now defunct eastern front and prepared their attack plans.

In March 1918, the biggest German assault of the war was launched at Arras on the British lines. The ferocity of the attack drove the British back some forty miles before it was halted by a determined French counterattack.

The next month saw a renewed German assault which once again pushed back the British lines, and a third attack in June took the French by surprise on the Aisne river. The Germans advanced to within forty miles of Paris, which was shelled by the massive and famous German long-range gun known as “Big Bertha.”

The Germans had, however, left their offensive until too late. By the time of the drive toward Paris, the first American troops were deployed. A combined French and American force halted the German advance at the Battle of the Marne and by the middle of July, the German offensive had run out of steam. The German army was exhausted. They were low on rations and supplies and political unrest brewed at home. By the end of July, the Allies drove the Germans back over the Marne River and retook the initiative on the western front.

In August, a British attack at Amiens broke the German lines, and a renewed Allied offensive led to the Second Battle of the Somme and the Fifth Battle of Arras. The Germans were forced back to their very last defensive position, the Hindenburg Line.

In September, waves of fresh American troops captured fourteen thousand exhausted and starving German troops at Saint-Mihiel. The Americans then pushed on through the Forest of Argonne and broke the German lines between Metz and Sedan.

After this defeat, the German government asked for an armistice. This attempt to end the war in October 1918 failed when the American president Woodrow Wilson insisted on negotiating only with a democratic German government.

The British then attacked in Belgium and Northern France while, by early November, combined American and French forces reached Sedan. At the same time, a renewed assault upon the Hindenburg Line broke the German lines.

COMMUNIST-INSPIRED MASS PROTESTS AND REBELLIONS BREAK OUT IN GERMANY

The war became increasingly unpopular in Germany as well. Spurred on by Communist agitators hoping to repeat the Russian Revolution in Germany, large protests and even some armed rebellions took place in major German cities. Above, one of the most famous protests, on November 4, 1918, in Kiel after German sailors refused to follow orders to put to sea.

Weimar Republic Established in Germany

Conditions on the German home front had in the interim become desperate. An Allied blockade of German shipping had caused shortages of food and raw materials, while military defeats and war weariness created ideal ground for revolutionaries. German Communists, seeking to emulate the Russian Revolution, engaged in mass agitation, and the difficult conditions of the time caused them to find many receptive ears.

Violent Communist uprisings broke out in a number of cities and the German fleet mutinied. A number of democratic reforms were introduced and an election was held for the first time in German history, albeit on a limited franchise. Nonetheless, the Social Democratic Party won and its leader, Friedrich Ebert, became chancellor. This was followed in November 1918 by the abdication of Kaiser Wilhelm II.

The first elected German government sat in the town of Weimar and the German republic which they proclaimed on November 9, 1918, became known colloquially as the “Weimar Republic.” The age of the German emperors was permanently ended.

Weimar Republic Surrenders

The Weimar government sent a delegation to the Allies to seek an immediate end to the war. An armistice was signed on November 11, 1918, and American private Henry Gunther, ironically of German descent, became the last soldier to die, one minute before the ceasefire came into effect.

Many German soldiers were later to bitterly accuse the Weimar Republic of having “stabbed the army in the back” as the Allies had never actually invaded German soil before the surrender. The Weimar government also took responsibility for the surrender in a war it had not been party to starting, and were forced to accede to the harsh terms of the Treaty of Versailles.

This made the Weimar politicians even more unpopular with the German public and ultimately opened the way for a nationalist revival which would be exploited by Adolf Hitler.

In terms of the armistice, the remaining German fleet was surrendered to the Allies. The Treaty of Versailles also demanded that these ships all become the permanent property of the Allies. In protest, the German crews on the interned ships scuttled their fleet at the British Naval base in Scapa Flow.

The Forgotten Wars—China and Africa

The conflict in Europe and the Middle East is the best known part of the First World War, but “forgotten wars” were fought in other parts of the world as well. In August 1914, an Anglo-French force opened the war in the colonies by capturing Togoland in Africa from the Germans. The following month, German colonists were driven out of the Cameroons.

In September 1914, the white South Africans, officially allied to Britain, invaded and occupied German South West Africa. A South African expedition to seize the colony of German East Africa (present-day Tanzania) was far less successful. The German forces in East Africa, which consisted of a large number of black recruits and a smattering of white German soldiers and officers under the command of General Paul von Lettow-Vorbeck, successfully repulsed an attack by British and Indian troops in November 1914.

A year later, a second attack by a combined British, South African, and Portuguese army under the leadership of former Boer War general Jan Smuts, captured the main German East Africa towns. Lettow-Vorbeck, however, pursued the war relentlessly. He and his troops retreated south and invaded Portuguese East Africa (present-day Mozambique) in 1917. The following year, the German forces launched an attack on the British-held colony of Rhodesia. The battle was still raging when the armistice in Europe was signed, and Lettow-Vorbeck only surrendered three days after the German surrender in Europe.

Germany Loses Colonies in Pacific

In August 1914, New Zealand occupied the German colony in Samoa. Australian forces seized the German possessions in the Bismarck Archipelago and New Guinea, and the Japanese took the German-held port of Shandong, China in November 1914. The Japanese also occupied the German-held Marshall Islands, the Mariana Islands, the Palau group of islands, and the Carolines.

Racial Consequences of the War

The First World War was a bloody, unnecessary, and violent struggle which took the lives of over 8.4 million Europeans. The deaths per country were as follows:

Russia—1,700,000; France—1,357,800; British Empire—908,371; Italy—650,000; United States—126,000; Romania—335,706; Serbia—45,000; Belgium—13,716; Greece—5,000; Portugal—7,222; Montenegro—3,000; Germany—1,773,700; Austria-Hungary—1,200,000; Ottoman Empire—325,000; Bulgaria—87,500; Total—8,538,015.

As much of the war was fought on French territory, France's losses were disproportionately high relative to her population.

The French government allowed significant immigration from its North African and sub-Saharan colonies to meet labor needs, a move which would establish in France a significant non-European population. Britain, although weakened, suffered the least of all the Western European powers both in material and human losses. The British Empire expanded in size as a result of the annexation of German territories.

The United States played a key role in deciding the war's outcome. The arrival of large numbers of fresh, well-armed troops and material proved decisive in halting the final German attack on the western front and in the ultimate breakthrough just prior to the war's end.

World War I also saw the end of the Ottoman Empire which had so long dominated the Middle East and much of southeastern Europe. The British took possession of a large part of the former Ottoman territories in the Middle East, including Palestine. The latter territory proved to be problematic for the British who found themselves trying to appease both World Zionism and Arab demands for self-rule. Eventually, Zionist Jewish nationalists would launch a vicious terrorist war against the British administration in Palestine.

Russia ended the war in the grip of a Communist revolution and a civil war which only ended in 1924. The country had been devastated by years of misrule prior to the war, and suffered huge human and material losses as a result. It would be years before any semblance of stability was restored.

Germany was devastated, although the war had never actually reached its territory, apart from the initial Russian excursion into East Prussia. Torn apart by rebellion and revolution, the Weimar Republic established at the end of the war was doomed to failure. Economic collapse followed the huge reparations which Germany was forced to pay to the victors. Germany was also held to be solely liable for the war. This was unjust, as the Kaiser was no more to blame than any of the other European leaders: all had been short-sighted to allow the entire continent to descend into madness, which sadly provided the mainspring for the Second World War.

CHAPTER 61: The October Revolution—Communism in Russia

During the course of 1917, two uprisings took place in Russia which collectively became known as the “February Revolution” and the “October Revolution.” Both had tumultuous effects on twentieth century history.

The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) was created as a result of the October Revolution, and this state would play a major role in world politics for just over seventy years before collapsing, destroyed by a combination of Communism’s inherent economic contradictions and ethnic conflict.

REBELLION BREWS IN THE STREETS OF RUSSIA

БОРЬБѢ ОБРѢТЕШЬ ТЫ
ПРАВО СВОЕ
ДОЛОЙ
МОНАРХІЮ
Республика

The momentum builds: Soviet supporters rally in the streets, supported by the Russian Army. A combination of poor government, failed military adventures, and economic hardship caused by an out-of-touch royal family, created the ideal conditions for revolution.

Imperial Russia Faces Mounting Crises

The century prior to 1917 had seen mounting crises for

Imperial Russia. A rebellion in 1825 nearly toppled Tsar Nicholas I, and the 1905 revolution, which ended in the Bloody Sunday Massacres in St. Petersburg, served as evidence of longstanding mass dissatisfaction with the Russian state.

Imperialist Russia was one of the original belligerents in the First World War. By 1917, however, the tsar's armies had been defeated in an ever increasing number of battles. Russia was ill-equipped to fight a modern war. It had an underdeveloped and mismanaged economy and had strained for centuries under autocratic tsarist rule. The conditions were ripe for revolution.

Even though tsarist Russia had adopted an elected parliamentary system, known as the Duma, the franchise was very restricted and limited almost exclusively to loyalist tsarist nobility. Conditions within Russia deteriorated dramatically during the course of the First World War. Food shortages were common and Russian troops were the worst supplied of any nation in the war. They went for long periods without food or even basic clothing, but were expected to fight for and remain loyal to a system from which they had long been alienated.

As famine threatened much of Russia, the pro-reformist groups which dominated the Duma issued a warning to the tsar that reforms were necessary to prevent an uprising. Tsar Nicholas II either deliberately ignored these warnings or was so detached from reality that he did not believe them.

The February Revolution

By February 1917, large crowds formed daily demonstrations in Petrograd (now called St. Petersburg) to protest against food shortages, the undemocratic tsar, and the war. By this time, the Duma was effectively under the control of a moderate pro-reformist group called the Socialist Workers Party, and was openly sympathetic to the protestors.

On February 23, around ninety thousand people gathered for a single demonstration in which the principal demand was for bread. The simplicity of the crowd's demand served as an indication of how desperate the situation had become. Police and troops were called in to disperse the crowd, but the masses remained unmoved. Most soldiers were, in any event, sympathetic to the crowd's demands.

The next day, February 24, tensions rose even further. Half of Petrograd's population came out on strike and hundreds of thousands of people filled the streets. The demand for bread was extended into a demand for the abdication of the tsar and an end to the war.

First Soviets Established

The massive strike paralyzed Petrograd, which because of its status as the nation's capital, brought the government's administration to a halt. Inevitably, the strike turned violent. Several police stations were seized by bands of armed strikers and burned down.

In the factories, democratically elected "workers' councils" (called soviets) were established. The Socialist Workers Party easily won majorities in elections to these soviets, which soon became de facto local government bodies after appropriating many duties and responsibilities which were usually the preserve of the tsarist government.

The Russian Army Mutinies

On February 26, the tsar called out the Russian army in Petrograd to suppress the uprising. At first, some violent clashes took place, but most troops mutinied and refused to fire on the workers. The first line of defense for the old order collapsed under a wave of disloyalty caused by the tsar's own short-sightedness.

Tsar Nicholas II still refused to accept that there was something wrong. He ordered the Duma dissolved, but this body informally reassembled and elected a provisional cabinet to run the country. By February 27, there was nothing left of the tsar's administration and the informal Duma was the de facto government.

In Petrograd, 150,000 soldiers joined the revolution. In conjunction with a large number of now armed workers, they seized complete control of the capital and drove out the last remaining tsarist government officials. Up until this time, the revolution had claimed some 1,500 lives.

The Tsar Abdicates

The Petrograd soviets banded together to elect a senior soviet for all of Petrograd, and, together with the Duma, formed a relatively moderate socialist administration whose first priorities were to organize food supplies and the release of the hundreds of political prisoners who had been jailed by the tsarist government.

Although the Petrograd soviets were firmly in favor of reform, they were not dominated by the more radical Communists. Both the

Duma and the soviets in Petrograd believed in continuing the war against Germany, in spite of an end of the war being a specific demand of the crowds who had driven the tsarist government out of the capital. The tsar realized that his reign was at an end, and formally abdicated on March 2, 1917.

Germans Allow Lenin to Enter Russia

Vladimir Ilyich Ulyanov, who later adopted the name of Lenin, was born in 1870 and had become a convinced revolutionary by the age of seventeen, when his brother had been executed for his part in a plot to assassinate the tsar.

By then he was already a follower of Karl Marx, who had published *The Communist Manifesto* in 1848.

Lenin was arrested by the tsarist police in 1887 for his subversive activities, and exiled to Siberia for three years. Upon his release, Lenin fled to western Europe where be built up the radical wing of the Russian Communist Party, mainly through the publication of his famous newspaper *Iskra* (the *Spark*) from Switzerland.

Lenin returned briefly to Russia in 1905 to take part in the abortive revolution of that year. When it failed and was suppressed, he fled into exile once more. The 1917 February Revolution took Lenin by surprise and he was still in Switzerland when it broke out. He immediately made an offer to the German government to the effect that if they gave him safe passage to Russia, he would endeavor to take Russia out of the war.

The Germans agreed to this plan, and, along with a group of selected revolutionaries, Lenin was smuggled across the front line in a secret operation which involved the Communists hiding in a railway truck. Lenin arrived in Petrograd in April 1917, accompanied by his small group of hardcore revolutionaries.

LENIN EMERGES AS BOLSHEVIST LEADER AFTER YEARS OF EXILE

Vladimir Lenin, a lifelong arch-Communist, struck a deal with the German military authorities at the height of World War I: if they let him back into Russia, he would organize a revolution, depose the tsar, and take Russia out of the war. The Germans smuggled him across the border in a sealed railway car. Lenin was successful in his aims. Above, he greets crowds of well-wishers in Moscow in 1918 after becoming leader of the newly formed Soviet Union.

Lenin and the Bolsheviks

Upon Lenin's return, the nearly dormant Communist Party was reactivated. The Communist Party had been created following a split during the Socialist Workers Party's 1903 conference.

At the time of the split, Lenin had carried the majority of the delegates at the conference, and his faction had subsequently become known as the "Bolsheviks," or "majority," while those who stayed behind were known as the "Mensheviks," or "minority."

These names did not, however, reflect the factions' support among the voting population. The Mensheviks, or moderate Socialists, had the most support, as the few elections that were held proved beyond doubt. Thus when Lenin demanded of the Petrograd soviet in 1917 that they adopt policies to seize land, distribute it to the peasantry, and to bring an end to the war, he spoke to a Menshevik-dominated body and his words were ignored.

The Revolution Spreads

Using the Petrograd revolution as a model, similar uprisings took place throughout Russia: in each case soviets were created in tandem with civil authorities created by the Duma. Almost all the soviets were dominated by Mensheviks and all regarded themselves as subservient to the central Menshevik government.

The provisional government disbanded the tsarist police, repealed all limitations on freedom of opinion, press, and association, and all laws which discriminated against Jews.

Despite all these moves, the basic structure of Russian society remained unaltered and the government expressed its determination to continue the war against Germany at all costs.

This failure to address the core issues which had driven the population to open rebellion resulted in the workers' soviets becoming more radical. It was not long before these bodies began to flex their muscles and drop their previous subservience to the Duma.

Within a few months, it became clear that the Duma government only existed because the soviets tolerated it. All the state's infrastructure was controlled by the workers' committees, and the Duma government exercised power in name only.

Before Lenin's return from exile, Bolshevik policy was formulated by its leaders inside Russia, Lev Kamenev and Joseph Stalin.

These two men favored conditional support of the Duma, and were in the process of forming a political alliance with the Mensheviks and Socialist revolutionaries.

Lenin's return to Russia in April changed all of that. He was implacably opposed to cooperation with the Menshevik government. Under his guidance, the Bolsheviks broke off all relations with the Menshevik government and concentrated on seizing control of the soviets.

Then, Lenin's greatest organizer, and the man who can rightly be called the brains behind the Bolshevik revolution, Leon Trotsky, arrived in Russia. He had been in exile in America, where he had resided since his escape from a tsarist prison following his arrest during the abortive 1905 revolution.

Trotsky's arrival in May 1917 in Russia, accompanied by a large number of international Communists, greatly strengthened Lenin in his struggle with the Mensheviks. Without Trotsky's organizational ability, it is unlikely that the Bolshevik Revolution would ever have been successful. Trotsky was primarily a brilliant organizer, but he also brought with him a considerable amount of money which bankrolled the revolution. This cash, raised from Jewish sympathizers in the United States (particularly from the banker Jacob Schiff of the firm Kuhn, Loeb & Co.), allowed the Communists to organize and prepare when most of their opponents were unable to do so.

The latent anti-Semitism of successive tsarist governments had made the revolutionary movement a cause celebre among Western Jews, hence their support for a movement dedicated to destroying the last vestiges of tsarist rule.

INTERNATIONAL REVOLUTIONARY TROTSKY—BRAINS BEHIND REVOLUTION

Leon Trotsky, a lifelong revolutionary, was living in New York City when the February Revolution of 1917 overthrew Tsar Nicholas II. He boarded a ship for Russia, and, after being intercepted by the British, was released and reached Russia in May that year. At the First Congress of Soviets in

June, he was elected member of the first All-Russian Central Executive Committee. Arrested in August after an unsuccessful pro-Bolshevik uprising in Petrograd, he was released forty days later in the aftermath of the failed counterrevolutionary uprising by Kornilov. After the Bolsheviks gained a majority in the Petrograd soviet, Trotsky was elected chairman in October. His leadership in the events which followed—which saw the democratically-elected government deposed—was invaluable, and he became the most important person in the Bolshevist machinery, apart from Lenin. He was an influential politician in the early Soviet Union, first as People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs, and then as the founder and commander of the Red Army and People's Commissar of War. He was also a founding member of the politburo. Following a power struggle with Joseph Stalin in the 1920s, Trotsky was expelled from the Communist Party and deported from the Soviet Union. He was later assassinated in Mexico by Ramón Mercader, a Soviet agent, with an ice axe.

The Soviets Flex Their Muscles

In April, the first important confrontation between the Duma government and the Petrograd soviet occurred. The Duma government issued a pronouncement to the Western Allied powers stating that it would continue the war with Germany and that it fully intended to annex territories from the defeated Central Powers at the conclusion of the war.

This pronouncement flew directly in the face of the Petrograd soviet's political position on the war. A month earlier, the soviet had issued a proclamation calling for the end of the war and the creation of peace without annexations and reparations. The Duma government's announcement led to demonstrations in the streets of Petrograd. The unwillingness of the Russian masses to continue with a war which had already killed over a million and a half Russians had been completely underestimated by the Duma.

The Petrograd soviet then assumed sole control in the capital city and the Duma government was summarily ejected. More importantly, the army garrison in Petrograd obeyed the orders given to it by the soviet, and not the Duma. This marked a sea change in the political landscape. For the first time the country's leading soviet had endorsed the Bolsheviks.

First Congress of Soviets

In June 1917, the soviets from around the country gathered in Petrograd for the first all-Russian Congress of Soviets. It was still heavily dominated by Mensheviks and Duma government supporters, but cracks were beginning to appear.

The Duma government had failed to address the major issues facing the country, namely the lack of food, inflation, and the continued war.

The Duma government also had not yet held proper democratic elections, arguing that it was not possible to do so while so much of the country was still under German occupation.

The Congress of Soviets demanded that the Duma institute state control of the bread industry and other essential food industries. The Duma government turned this request down. Instead, they said, the most important task was to win the war.

With policy pronouncements such as this, the Duma government effectively alienated the soviets, a critical error as it ruled the country only with the support of those workers' councils.

Russian Army Discipline Cracks

The Menshevik Minister of War in the Duma government, Alexander Kerensky, compounded the crisis by launching a major Russian offensive on June 16, 1917. The campaign was an utter failure and discipline in the Russian army collapsed. Millions of soldiers deserted and flooded back into the Russian cities to escape the fighting at the front. Alienated, hungry, and angry, they were ideal revolutionary material and were quickly attracted to the Bolshevik message.

The July Uprising

News of the defeat at the front arrived while the Congress of Soviets was still in session. Under pressure from the Petrograd soviet, the congress then issued a demand which called for the abolition of the Duma and democratic elections on September 30.

The Petrograd soviet organized a demonstration in support of its demands. The size of the turnout, estimated to be at least a half million, surprised even the Petrograd soviet organizers. It was an even bigger surprise for all to learn that the majority of the demonstrators were Bolshevik supporters.

The demonstrations continued and, by July 5, the crowd had been joined by soldiers from the city garrison and sailors from the nearby naval fortress of Kronstadt.

This crowd descended on the Tauride Palace, where the Congress of Soviets was in session, and demanded that it take sole power in the country and eject the Duma government. Although the demonstration was largely nonviolent, the executive committee of the Congress of Soviets denounced it as a counterrevolutionary Bolshevik insurrection and summoned troops from the front to disperse the demonstrators.

The troops arrived on July 5, but rather than dispersing the crowd, they placed themselves under the command of the Congress of Soviets instead of the Duma government. The Bolsheviks, naturally enough, assumed the leadership of this great demonstration. Lenin and Trotsky busied themselves in the streets of Petrograd, whipping up the crowds with appeals for bread, peace, and socialism.

Kerensky Government a Disaster

Inexplicably, the Duma then elected the unpopular Kerensky as prime minister on July 10. His disastrous record as minister of war was the primary cause of the mass uprising and the breakdown of the Russian army, yet despite this, he was appointed to head a government struggling to keep control over the increasingly restless soviets.

Kerensky further destroyed what little support he may have had by postponing the long-promised democratic elections until the end of November. He also moved against the Bolsheviks. Lenin’s entry into the country, courtesy of the Germans, was exposed and he was denounced as a German agent. Trotsky was arrested and kept in detention without trial.

The Kerensky government refused to listen to the increasing clamor for economic reform, ignoring all demands, from the most reasonable to the outrageous.

The Kornilov Incident

Convinced that Kerensky could not cope with the situation, some conservative Russian army elements, led by the newly appointed commander in chief of the army, General Kornilov, made plans to occupy Petrograd and dissolve the soviet in the city.

For a while Kerensky supported the plan, but when he learned that Kornilov intended to depose the Duma government as well, he warned the Petrograd soviet and appealed for their help in stopping Kornilov. The Petrograd soviet organized its soldiers and workers into armed formations to ward off the Kornilov invasion.

As Kornilov's army approached the city, they were met by large numbers of workers and soldiers under the Bolshevist banner, proclaiming friendship and peace. Kornilov's army dissolved in front of his eyes and he was arrested without a shot being fired.

The Kornilov fiasco resulted in the Bolsheviks winning—for the first time—an outright majority on the workers' soviet in the city. At last they were the most popular party in the capital of the country. The Bolshevik popularity soon spread to other soviets around the country and by October, they dominated the Congress of Soviets. This meant that the majority of workers' organizations in Russia were now under Communist control.

RED FLAG RAISED IN MOSCOW

The Communist flag is raised in Red Square, Moscow, October 1917. The Congress of Soviets, led by the Bolsheviks, seized key sites in the capital, including the Kremlin, and took power from the provisional government of Russia.

Trotsky and the Military Revolutionary Council

The Duma government persisted in its claim to be the only legitimate government of Russia. Kerensky tried to defuse the situation in Petrograd by ordering part of the army garrison to the front. They refused, and Kerensky found himself powerless to make them move.

On October 16, the Petrograd soviet created the "Military Revolutionary Committee for the defense of the capital against the counterrevolution." The Bolshevists formed a majority of this committee as the Mensheviks refused to participate. Trotsky, as head of this committee, found himself in full control of all military forces in the capital city of Russia.

The October Revolution

Trotsky realized that the time was never better to act decisively. Under his orders, the Military Revolutionary Council seized all important government buildings during the night of October 24, 1917. The "October Revolution" was launched.

Armed workers, soldiers, and sailors stormed the Winter Palace in Petrograd, which was the headquarters of the Duma government, who were physically ejected from their offices. The seizure of power was almost completely bloodless.

On October 25, Trotsky officially announced the end of the Duma government. Many of its ministers were arrested and Kerensky fled into exile in America.

The second Congress of Soviets was held the next month, and it overwhelmingly endorsed the new Bolshevik government. Trotsky's organizational abilities had achieved the transformation of Russia into a Bolshevist-dominated state within six months of his arrival in the country. The Congress of Soviets then adopted a constitution in which supreme authority was vested in itself. Execution of the decisions of the congress was entrusted to the Council of People's Commissars (a gathering of several hundred regional leaders, known as "commissars") which was made subject to the authority of the Congress of Soviets and to its Central Executive Committee.

Each of the people's commissars was the chairman of a commissariat (commission) corresponding to the ministries of other governments. Lenin was elected head of the Council of People's Commissars. The Congress of Soviets then called upon the new government to immediately end the war and to engage in the redistribution of land and economic wealth to the masses. With this aim achieved, the Congress of Soviets then adjourned.

The decisions of the Congress of Soviets on peace and land evoked widespread support for the new government. These policies were decisive in assuring victory to the Bolsheviks in other cities and in the provinces.

All banks were nationalized and all factories placed under the control of local soviets. The new government then ended the war with Germany and signed the Treaty of Brest Litovsk in March 1918. In terms of this treaty, the Ukraine and other parts of western Russia were ceded to the Germans.

Trotsky's Troops Disperse Government

Safe in their hold on power, the new government then held the longed for democratic elections. The results were a rude shock: the Bolsheviks received a paltry number of votes. Trotsky refused to accept the outcome. He ordered troops from the Military Revolutionary Council to physically disperse the new parliament and they were not allowed to reassemble. The first and only democratically elected legislature of the USSR vanished, never to be heard of again. From that time on the ideal of a democratically elected government was dropped from the political program of the Russian Communist Party, and rule by the commissar system continued as if nothing had happened.

CIVIL WAR ERUPTS BETWEEN COMMUNIST "REDS" AND ANTI-COMMUNIST "WHITES"

The Black Hundreds, a pro-tsarist militia, march through the city of Odessa. Violently anti-Jewish, they were later to form part of the anti-Communist army which battled the Red Army for supremacy in the aftermath of the October Revolution.

Civil War Erupts between "Reds" and "Whites"

Although the tsarist government had been universally unpopular, the only democratic election showed that the Bolsheviks were most certainly not the firm favorite to replace them.

Opposition to the Bolsheviks erupted into a civil war that started in 1918, after the anti-Bolshevik, democratically-elected parliament was broken up and dispersed by Trotsky.

The Bolsheviks became known as the Reds—after their flag—and the anti-Bolsheviks gathered together into an alliance that became known as the Whites. Red and White armies fought several major battles, the most ferocious in 1920, with isolated battles sputtering on until 1924.

Initially the Whites had the potential to overthrow the Bolshevik dictatorship. However, they destroyed their chances of gaining mass support from the anti-Bolshevik voters by associating themselves with the tsar. Faced with a choice between the Bolsheviks or a return by the tsar, most Russians stayed neutral, allowing the better armed Reds to wear the Whites down in a war of attrition.

CIVIL WAR IS WON BY THE REDS

In Moscow, eager hands grab copies of the Communist newspaper, Pravda (Truth), *announcing the end of the civil war and the final defeat of the anti-Communist military forces after nearly five years of war.*

The Red Terror

The Communists moved the nation's capital to Moscow, and instituted what became known as the "Red Terror." All opponents, suspected or real (and there were many of them), were arrested and most often executed in a wave of violence which made even the previous tsarist system seem mild.

A secret police and internal security agency was set up, later to became known as the Cheka, through which opponents of the state were hunted down. Workers' strikes, peasant uprisings, and a sailors' revolt known as the Kronstadt Rebellion were quickly crushed. Victims included the tsar and his entire family, who were gunned down and buried anonymously by Cheka policemen after months in detention.

On December 30, 1922, the USSR was formally established when the ethnic territories of the former Russian Empire were united with the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR). The revolution was complete, and Communism had its first formal foothold, which it would keep until the 1990s.

CIVIL WAR CONFLICT AND FAMINE TOOK EIGHT MILLION LIVES

The devastation of the Russian civil war upon the Russian and Ukrainian people: Scenes from the great famine which swept the country after the Communists eliminated the middle class. The majority of the fighting ended in 1920, but resistance in certain areas continued until 1924. The war and an accompanying famine took more than eight million lives—a total equivalent to the entire number of deaths from all nations during the First World War.

CHAPTER 62: The Suppressed Link—Jews and Communism

The creation of the Soviet Union impacted history for the greater part of the twentieth century, and a knowledge of the subracial and ideological divisions it caused is crucial to understanding the events of that century and the flare-up of anti-Jewish sentiment which culminated in the creation of the Third Reich. The Soviet Union's best kept secret was that the Bolshevik elite had an inordinately large number of Jews in its controlling body.

Almost all of the important Bolshevik leaders were Jews. They included the "father of the revolution," Leon Trotsky (whose real name was Lev Bronstein. In an attempt to hide his Jewishness, he adopted the name Trotsky); Lev Kamenev (born with the surname Rosenfeld), the early Bolshevik leader who later became a leading member of the politburo; Grigori Zinoviev (born with the surname Apfelbaum), head of the Petrograd soviet; and many others including Karl Radek, Lazar Kaganovich, and Moses Urtisky (the head of the Cheka), who all changed their names for reasons similar to that of Trotsky.

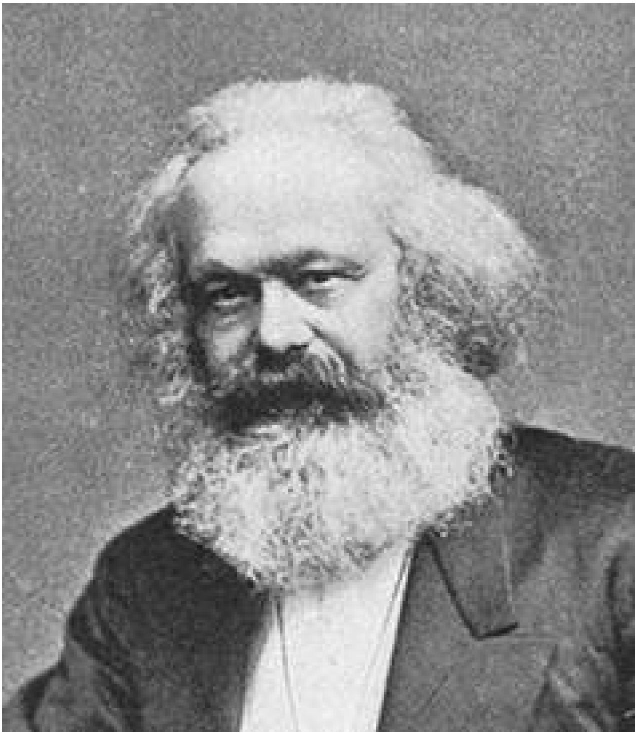
The Bolshevik Party's Central Committee chairman, Yakov Sverdlov, was also Jewish, and it was he who gave the order to the Jewish Soviet secret policeman, Yurovsky, to murder the tsar.

Karl Marx—Descendant of a Family of Rabbis

The originator of the Communist ideology, Karl Marx, was also a Jew. His original family name was Mordechai, and he was descended from a long line of rabbis.

The large Jewish role in the Russian Revolution, combined with the fact that Marx had been born a Jew, was manna from heaven for the European anti-Semitic movement. The link between Jews and Communism was exploited in all European right-wing movements, and nowhere more so than in Germany.

KARL MARX—JEW WHO WROTE *THE COMMUNIST MANIFESTO*



Karl Marx, the German-born Jew who wrote Das Kapital *and* The Communist Manifesto, *which laid the theoretical groundwork for Communism. His family name was Mordechai, and he was descended from a long line of rabbis.*

The association of radical Jews with Communism was made in many countries around the world. However, the active participation of so many Jews in the creation of the Soviet Union played a large role in encouraging anti-Jewish sentiment in Europe prior to the rise of Adolf Hitler.

It is not widely known that, directly after the First World War, there were another three specifically Jewish Communist revolutions in Europe:

• The German Jew, Kurt Eisner, led a short-lived Communist revolution in Munich, Bavaria, from November 1918 to February 1919. At the time, Adolf Hitler lived in the city and was an eyewitness to the Jewish and Communist-led revolution.

• The short-lived Sparticist uprising in Berlin from September 1918 to January 1919, led by the German Jews, Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg; and

- The short-lived Communist regime in Hungary, led by the Jew, Bela Kun (Cohen), from March to August 1919.

These incidents identified Jews with Communism in the public mind, particularly in Germany. In this light, it is perfectly explicable why the Nazi Party was able to win support on an anti-Communist and anti-Jewish platform.

Jews in the Soviet Union after the October Revolution

Jews retained their leading roles in Soviet society until growing anti-Semitism within the Communist Party led to a change in policy. Trotsky was the first major Jewish casualty. He split with Stalin over the issue of international socialism and the need to spread the revolution. Trotsky was forced into exile in 1929 and assassinated in Mexico City in 1940 by a Stalinist agent. By the middle 1930s, Stalin started purging the Communist Party of other important Jews.

The period following the end of the Second World War and the creation of the state of Israel saw an upsurge in Soviet anti-Zionism, and by 1953, Stalin had purged all Jews in the Soviet hierarchy who were also Zionists. The Communists, quite correctly, saw Zionism as Jewish nationalism and contrary to the interests of an international socialist brotherhood.

Many leading Russian Jews were also fervent Zionists. They were targeted for persecution and became known as “refuseniks” because the USSR refused them permission to emigrate to Israel. Zionism, as an expression of Jewish separatism, was declared a crime against the Soviet state, and Zionist organizations were forced to close down their operations inside the Soviet Union.

In addition, East Germany, which was turned into a Soviet satellite at the end of the Second World War, was forbidden by Moscow to make any reparations payments to the Zionist-created state of Israel for the treatment of Jews by the Nazis. Not all Russian Jews were Zionists. Those who were not, were left alone, and many achieved prominent positions within the Soviet Union. Many thousands of Jews did leave the Soviet Union, with some estimates putting the total at over one million. Most settled in Israel or the United States.

Encyclopedia Judaica *Confirms the Jewish Origin of Communism*

The *Encyclopedia Judaica,* published in Jerusalem, Israel, is a widely-quoted reference book for all things Jewish. This work is open about the Jewish role in Communism, particularly early Communism.

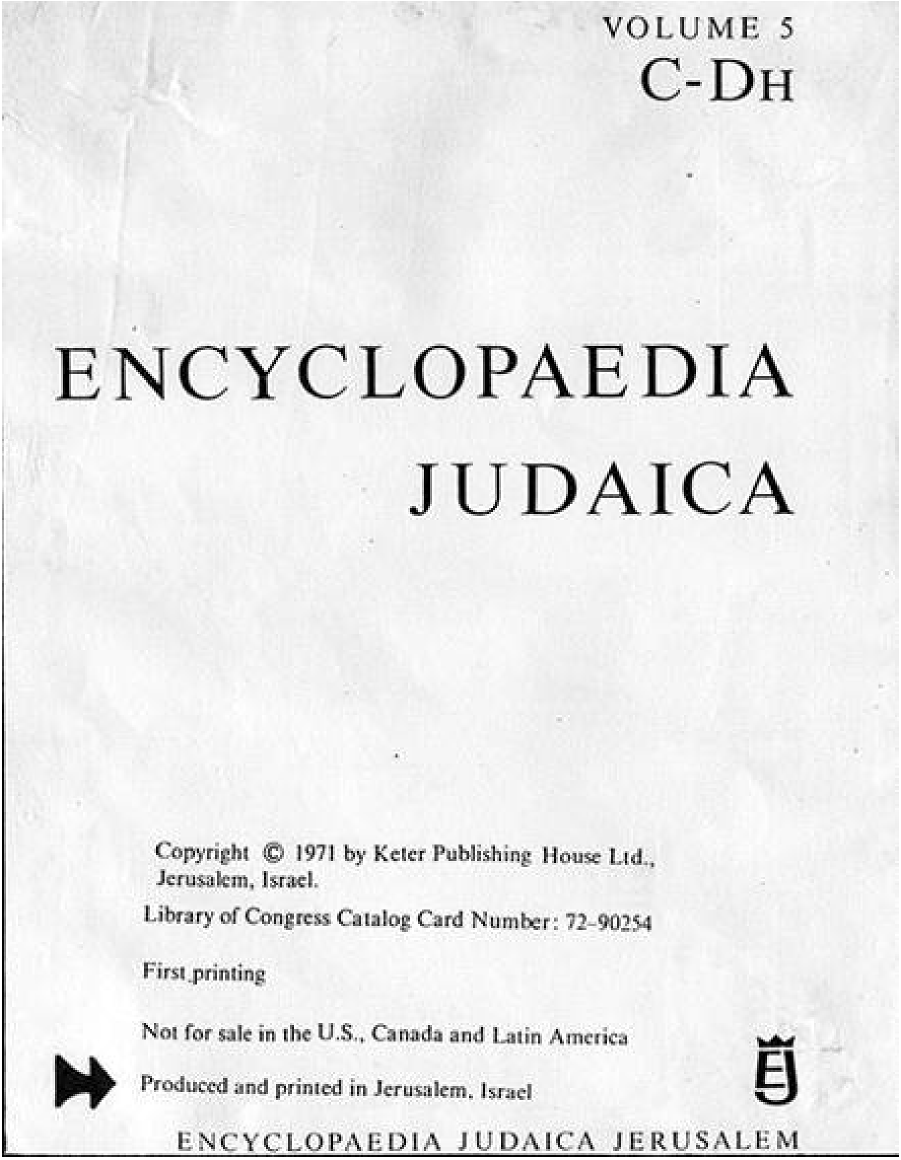
Under the entry for “Communism” in volume 5, page 792, the following appears: “The Communist Movement and ideology played an important part in Jewish life, particularly in the 1920s, 1930s and during and after World War II.”

On page 793, the *Encyclopedia Judaic*a goes on to say that “Communist trends became widespread in virtually all Jewish communities. In some countries, Jews became the leading element in the legal and illegal Communist Parties.”

On page 793, the Jewish encyclopedia reveals that the Communist International (an organization which coordinated all Communist parties around the word) instructed Jews to change their names so as, the body said, “not [to] confirm right-wing propaganda that presented Communism as an alien, Jewish conspiracy.”

ENCYCLOPEDIA JUDAICA ON JEWISH ROLE IN COMMUNISM AND THE FORMATION OF THE SOVIET UNION

The Encyclopedia Judaica, *published in Jerusalem, Israel, makes no secret of the Jewish role in Communism, particularly in the formation of the Soviet Union’s first government, which, it says, was dominated by Jews. The following extracts are all from the 1971 edition of the* Encyclopedia Judaica *under the entry “Communism.”*



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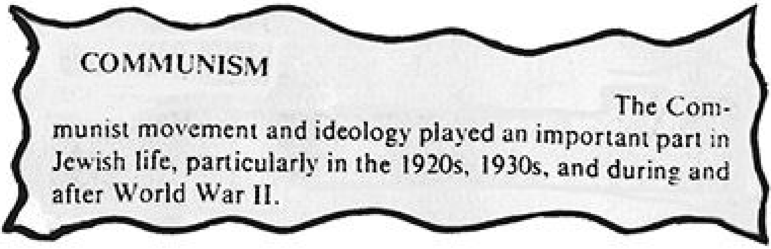
ENCYCLOPAEDIA JUDAICA JERUSALEM

Jewish Role in the Russian Communist Revolution

The *Encyclopedia Judaica* describes in detail the important role that Jews played in creating the Soviet Union.

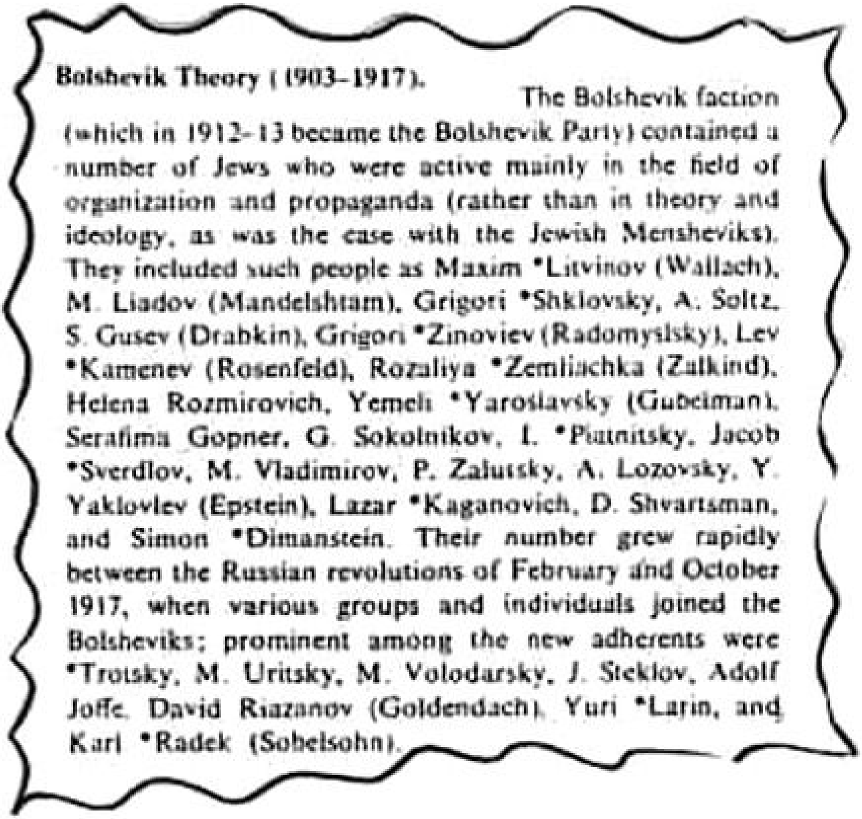
On page 792 it says: “Individual Jews played an important role in the early stages of Bolshevism and the Soviet Regime.”



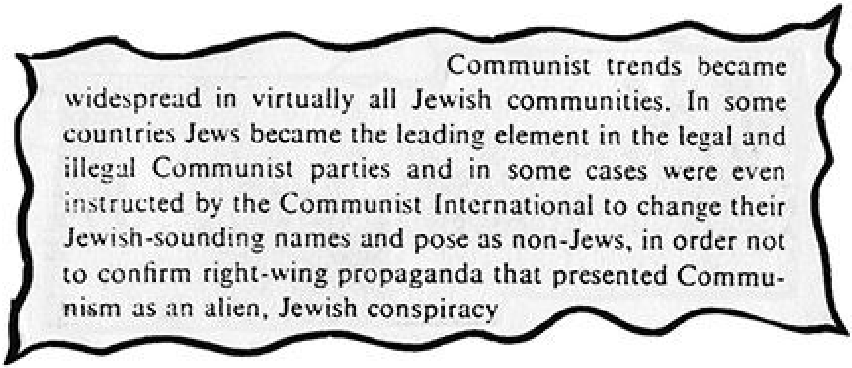
COMMUNISM

The Communist movement and ideology played an important part in Jewish life, particularly in the 1920s, 1930s, and during and after World War II.

On page 794, it goes on to list the Jews prominent in the upper command of the Russian Communist party. These included Maxim Litvinov (later to be the Soviet Union's foreign minister), Grigori Zinoviev, Lev Kamenev, Jacob Sverdlov, Lazar Kaganovich, and Karl Radek, among many others.



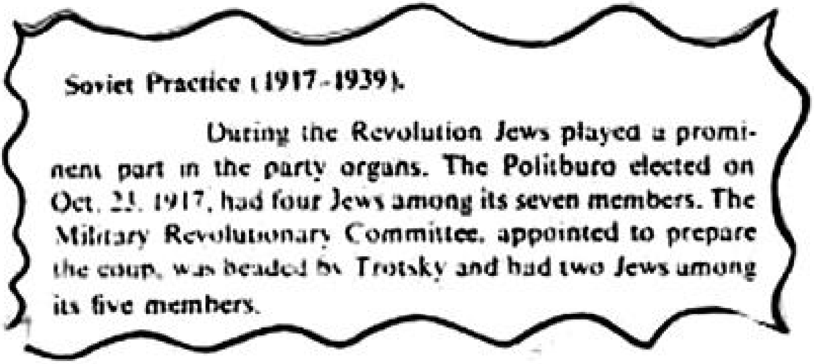
Bolshevik Theory (1903–1917). The Bolshevik faction (which in 1912–13 became the Bolshevik Party) contained a number of Jews who were active mainly in the field of organization and propaganda (rather than in theory and ideology, as was the case with the Jewish Mensheviks). They included such people as Maxim *Litvinov (Wallach), M. Liadov (Mandelshtam), Grigori *Shklovsky, A. Soltz, S. Gusev (Drabkin), Grigori *Zinoviev (Radomyslsky), Lev *Kamenev (Rosenfeld), Rozaliya *Zemliachka (Zalkind), Helena Rozmirovich, Yemeli *Yaroslavsky (Gubelman), Serafima Gopner, G. Sokolnikov, I. *Piatnitsky, Jacob *Sverdlov, M. Vladimirov, P. Zalutsky, A. Lozovsky, Y. Yaklovlev (Epstein), Lazar *Kaganovich, D. Shvartsman, and Simon *Dimanstein. Their number grew rapidly between the Russian revolutions of February and October 1917, when various groups and individuals joined the Bolsheviks; prominent among the new adherents were *Trotsky, M. Uritsky, M. Volodarsky, J. Steklov, Adolf Joffe, David Riazanov (Goldendach), Yuri *Larin, and Karl *Radek (Sobelsohn).



Communist trends became widespread in virtually all Jewish communities. In some countries Jews became the leading element in the legal and illegal Communist parties and in some cases were even instructed by the Communist International to change their Jewish-sounding names and pose as non-Jews, in order not to confirm right-wing propaganda that presented Communism as an alien, Jewish conspiracy

The organizer of the revolution was Trotsky, who prepared a special committee to plan and prepare the coup which brought the Communists to power. According to the *Encyclopedia Judaica,* this committee, called the Military Revolutionary Committee, had five members, of whom three were Jews.

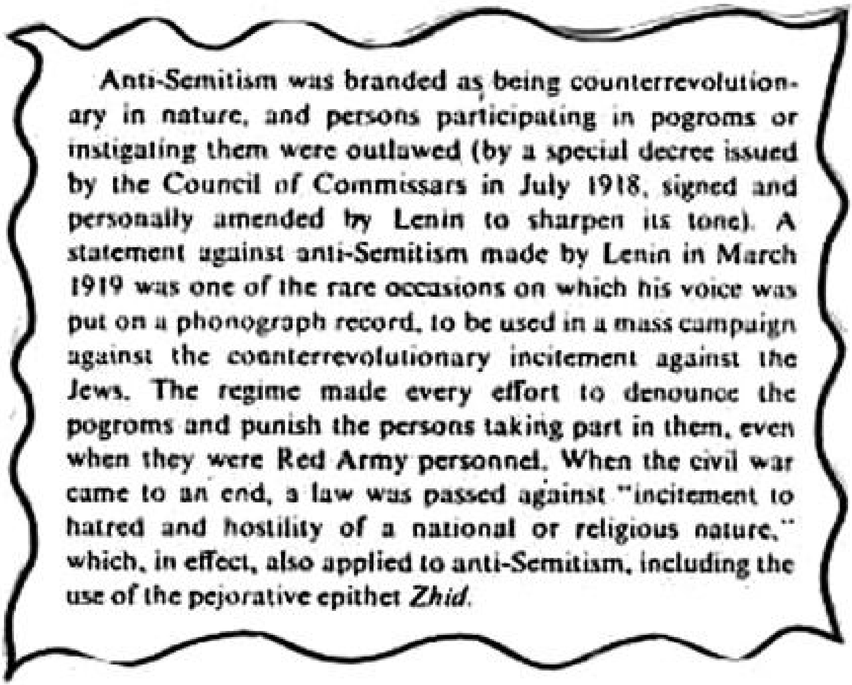
The politburo, the supreme governing body of Russia immediately after the Communist Revolution, had four Jews among its seven members, according to page 797 of the *Encyclopedia Judaica.*



Soviet Practice (1917–1939).

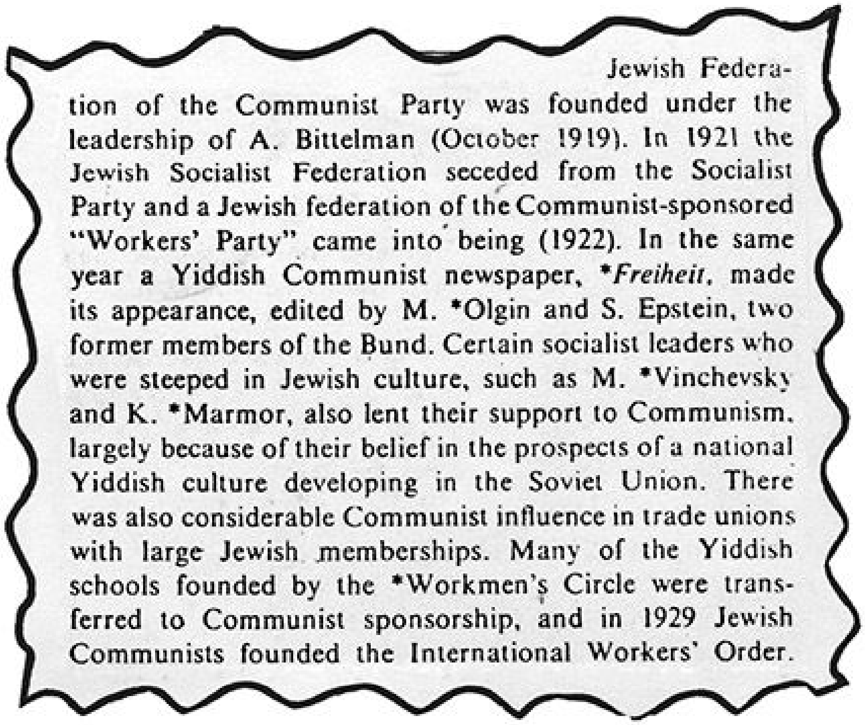
During the Revolution Jews played a prominent part in the party organs. The Politburo elected on Oct. 23, 1917, had four Jews among its seven members. The Military Revolutionary Committee, appointed to prepare the coup, was headed by Trotsky and had two Jews among its five members.

While many have alleged that Lenin was also Jewish, or at least of part Jewish origin, there is little concrete evidence of this. However, Lenin was ardently pro-Jewish, and branded anti-Semitism as “counterrevolutionary” (ibid. page 798).



Anti-Semitism was branded as being counterrevolutionary in nature, and persons participating in pogroms or instigating them were outlawed (by a special decree issued by the Council of Commissars in July 1918, signed and personally amended by Lenin to sharpen its tone). A statement against anti-Semitism made by Lenin in March 1919 was one of the rare occasions on which his voice was put on a phonograph record, to be used in a mass campaign against the counterrevolutionary incitement against the Jews. The regime made every effort to denounce the pogroms and punish the persons taking part in them, even when they were Red Army personnel. When the civil war came to an end, a law was passed against "incitement to hatred and hostility of a national or religious nature," which, in effect, also applied to anti-Semitism, including the use of the pejorative epithet *Zhid*.

A statement against anti-Semitism was made by Lenin in March 1919 and was "one of the rare occasions when his voice was put on a phonograph record to be used in a mass campaign against the counterrevolutionary incitement against the Jews," according to page 798 of the *Encyclopedia Judaica.* Furthermore, one of the first acts passed by the new Soviet Communist government was to outlaw anti-Semitism (ibid. page 798).

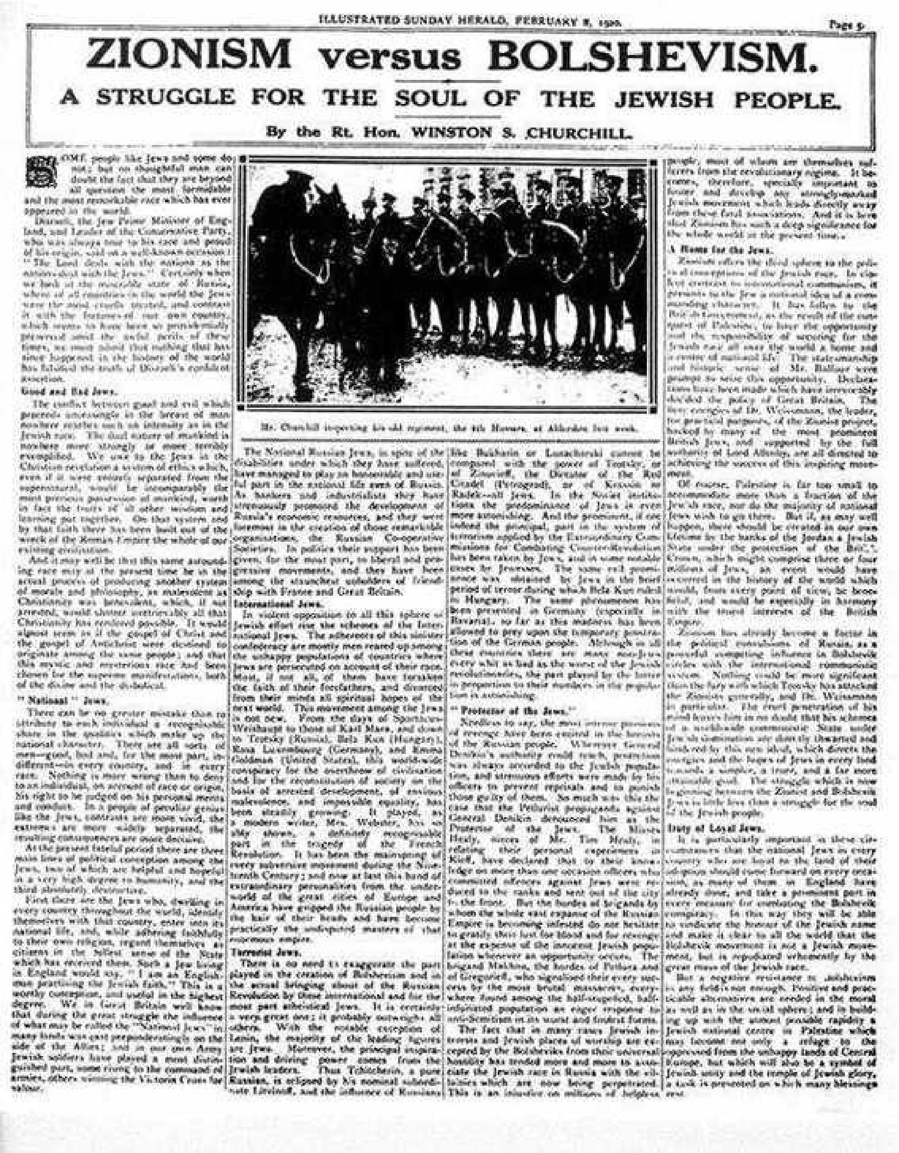


Jewish Federation of the Communist Party was founded under the leadership of A. Bittelman (October 1919). In 1921 the Jewish Socialist Federation seceded from the Socialist Party and a Jewish federation of the Communist-sponsored "Workers' Party" came into being (1922). In the same year a Yiddish Communist newspaper, **Freiheit*, made its appearance, edited by M. *Olgin and S. Epstein, two former members of the Bund. Certain socialist leaders who were steeped in Jewish culture, such as M. *Vinchevsky and K. *Marmor, also lent their support to Communism, largely because of their belief in the prospects of a national Yiddish culture developing in the Soviet Union. There was also considerable Communist influence in trade unions with large Jewish memberships. Many of the Yiddish schools founded by the *Workmen's Circle were transferred to Communist sponsorship, and in 1929 Jewish Communists founded the International Workers' Order.

Winston Churchill on the Jewish Role in Communism

The preponderance of Jews in the inner sanctum of the Communist revolution in Russia was well-known at the time, and it is only since the end of the Second World War that this fact has been suppressed. A good example of the contemporary awareness of the Jewish nature of early Russian Communism can be found in the writing of the young Winston Churchill, later to become prime minister of Great Britain.

On February 8, 1920, Churchill wrote a full page article for the *Illustrated Sunday Herald* which detailed Jewish involvement in Communism. The article, titled "Bolshevism versus Zionism, the struggle for the Soul of the Jewish People," said that Jews were split between Communism and Zionism. Churchill favored the Jewish nationalists, and appealed to what he called "loyal Jews" to ensure that the Communist Jews did not succeed.



ILLUSTRATED SUNDAY HERALD, FEBRUARY 8, 1920.

ZIONISM versus BOLSHEVISM.

A STRUGGLE FOR THE SOUL OF THE JEWISH PEOPLE.

By the Rt. Hon. WINSTON S. CHURCHILL.

Churchill went further and blamed the Jews for “every subversive movement during the nineteenth century,” writing:

> *“This movement among the Jews [the Russian Revolution] is not new. From the days of Spartacus Weishaupt to those of Karl Marx, and down to Trotsky (Russia), Bela Kuhn (Hungary), Rosa Luxembourg (Germany), and Emma Goldman (United States), this world-wide conspiracy for the overthrow of civilisation and for the reconstitution of society on the basis of arrested development, of envious malevolence, and impossible equality, has been steadily growing.*

"It played, as a modern writer, Mrs. [Nesta] Webster, has so ably shown, a definitely recognisable part in the tragedy of the French Revolution.

"It has been the mainspring of every subversive movement during the Nineteenth Century; and now at last this band of extraordinary personalities from the underworld of the great cities of Europe and America have gripped the Russian people by the hair of their heads and have become practically the undisputed masters of that enormous empire.

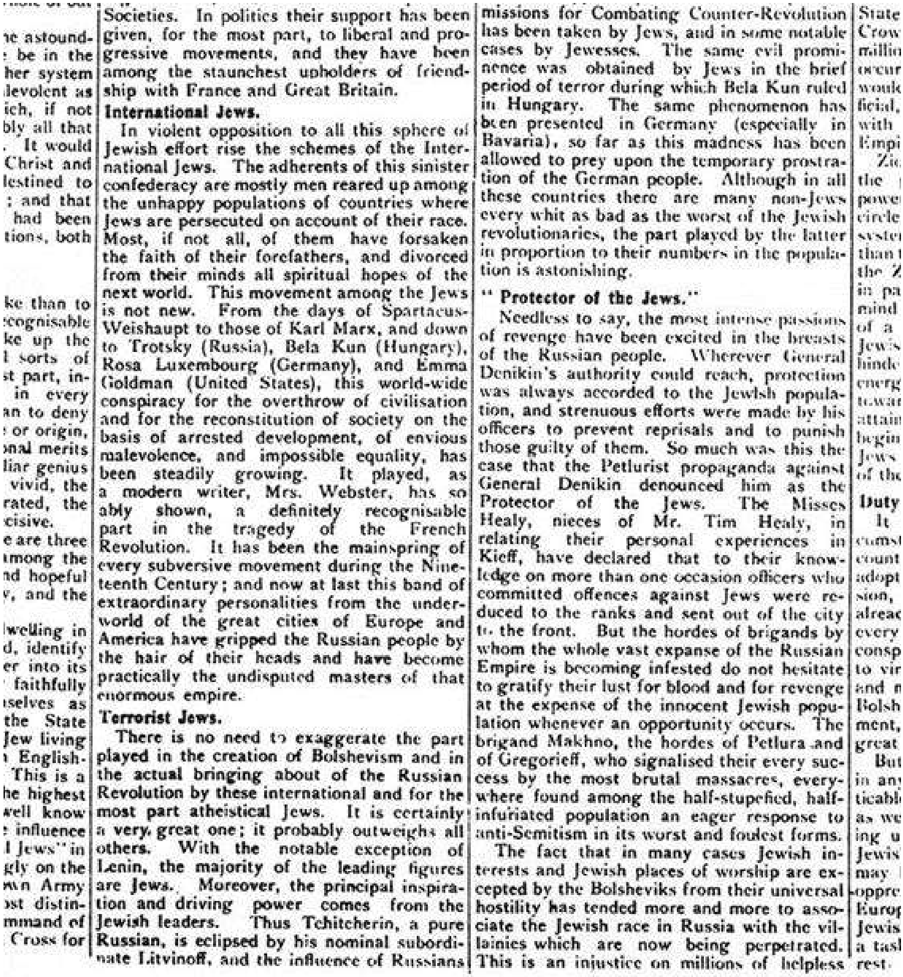
"Terrorist Jews.

"There is no need to exaggerate the part played in the creation of Bolshevism and in the actual bringing about of the Russian Revolution by these international and for the most part atheistical Jews. It is certainly a very great one; it probably outweighs all others. With the notable exception of Lenin, the majority of the leading figures are Jews.

"Moreover, the principal inspiration and driving power comes from the Jewish leaders. Thus Tchitcherin, a pure Russian, is eclipsed by his nominal subordinate Litvinoff, and the influence of Russians like Bukharin or Lunacharski cannot be compared with the power of Trotsky, or of Zinovieff, the Dictator of the Red Citadel (Petrograd), or of Krassin or Radek—all Jews.

"In the Soviet institutions the predominance of Jews is even more astonishing. And the prominent, if not indeed the principal, part in the system of terrorism applied by the Extraordinary Commissions for Combating Counter-Revolution has been taken by Jews, and in some notable cases by Jewesses. The same evil prominence was obtained by Jews in the brief period of terror during which Bela Kun ruled in Hungary.

"The same phenomenon has been presented in Germany (especially in Bavaria), so far as this madness has been allowed to prey upon the temporary prostration of the German people. Although in all these countries there are many non-Jews every whit as bad as the worst of the Jewish revolutionaries, the part played by the latter in proportion to their numbers in the population is astonishing" (ibid.).



Societies. In politics their support has been given, for the most part, to liberal and progressive movements, and they have been among the staunchest upholders of friendship with France and Great Britain.

International Jews.

In violent opposition to all this sphere of Jewish effort rise the schemes of the International Jews. The adherents of this sinister confederacy are mostly men reared up among the unhappy populations of countries where Jews are persecuted on account of their race. Most, if not all, of them have forsaken the faith of their forefathers, and divorced from their minds all spiritual hopes of the next world. This movement among the Jews is not new. From the days of Spartacus-Weishaupt to those of Karl Marx, and down to Trotsky (Russia), Bela Kun (Hungary), Rosa Luxembourg (Germany), and Emma Goldman (United States), this world-wide conspiracy for the overthrow of civilisation and for the reconstitution of society on the basis of arrested development, of envious malevolence, and impossible equality, has been steadily growing. It played, as a modern writer, Mrs. Webster, has so ably shown, a definitely recognisable part in the tragedy of the French Revolution. It has been the mainspring of every subversive movement during the Nineteenth Century; and now at last this band of extraordinary personalities from the underworld of the great cities of Europe and America have gripped the Russian people by the hair of their heads and have become practically the undisputed masters of that enormous empire.

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missions for Combating Counter-Revolution has been taken by Jews, and in some notable cases by Jewesses. The same evil prominence was obtained by Jews in the brief period of terror during which Bela Kun ruled in Hungary. The same phenomenon has been presented in Germany (especially in Bavaria), so far as this madness has been allowed to prey upon the temporary prostration of the German people. Although in all these countries there are many non-Jews every whit as bad as the worst of the Jewish revolutionaries, the part played by the latter in proportion to their numbers in the population is astonishing.

"Protector of the Jews."

Needless to say, the most intense passions of revenge have been excited in the breasts of the Russian people. Wherever General Denikin's authority could reach, protection was always accorded to the Jewish population, and strenuous efforts were made by his officers to prevent reprisals and to punish those guilty of them. So much was this the case that the Petlurist propaganda against General Denikin denounced him as the Protector of the Jews. The Misses Healy, nieces of Mr. Tim Healy, in relating their personal experiences in Kieff, have declared that to their knowledge on more than one occasion officers who committed offences against Jews were reduced to the ranks and sent out of the city to the front. But the hordes of brigands by whom the whole vast expanse of the Russian Empire is becoming infested do not hesitate to gratify their lust for blood and for revenge at the expense of the innocent Jewish population whenever an opportunity occurs. The brigand Makhno, the hordes of Petlura and of Gregorieff, who signalised their every success by the most brutal massacres, everywhere found among the half-stupefied, half-infuriated population an eager response to anti-Semitism in its worst and foulest forms.

The fact that in many cases Jewish interests and Jewish places of worship are excepted by the Bolsheviks from their universal hostility has tended more and more to associate the Jewish race in Russia with the villainies which are now being perpetrated. This is an injustice on millions of helpless

Churchill also pointedly accused Leon Trotsky of wanting to establish a "world-wide Communistic state under Jewish domination."

London Times *Correspondent on Jewish Role*

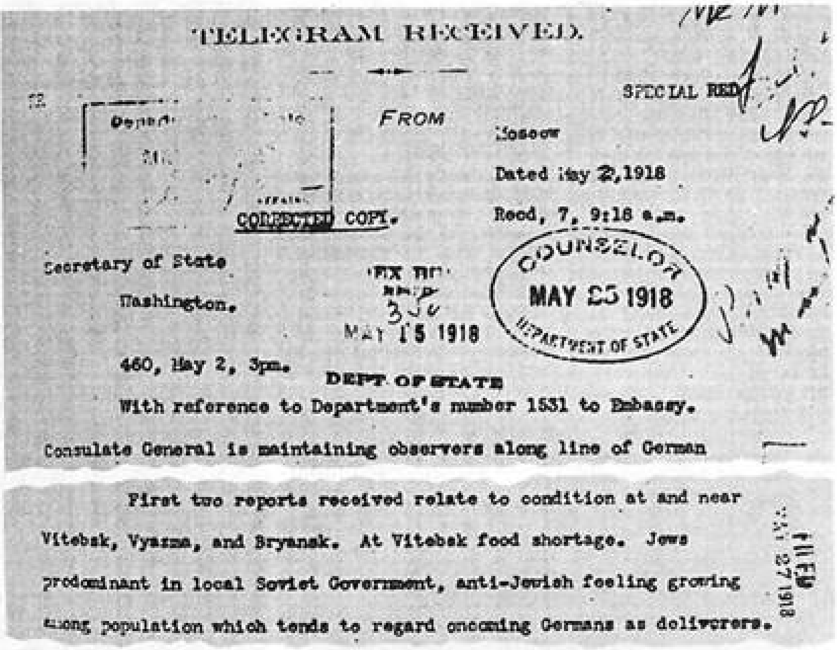
Churchill was not the only journalist to note the Jewish role in the Russian Revolution. Robert Wilton, the chief correspondent for the *London Times,* who was stationed in Russia at the time, wrote in his book, *The Last Days of the Romanovs* (Hornton Butterworth, London, 1920), that "90 percent" of the new Soviet government was composed of Jews.

The correspondent for the *London Morning Post,* Victor Marsden, compiled a list of names of the top 545 Bolshevik officials. Of these, Marsden said, 454 were Jews (*All These Things,* A.N. Field, Appendix B pages 274–276).

The US Army's Telegrams on the Jewish Role in Communism

The American Army Intelligence Service had its agents in Russia at the time of the Communist revolution, and the Jewish nature of that revolution is accurately reflected in those reports.

An American Senate subcommittee investigation into the Russian Revolution heard evidence, put on congressional record, that "In December 1919, under the presidency of a man named Apfelbaum (Zinovieff) . . . out of the 388 members of the Bolshevik central government, only 16 happened to be real Russians, and all the rest (with the exception of a Negro from the US) were Jews" (S. Doc. No. 62, 1919). These telegrams are all available for public inspection at the official US government archives.



TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

SPECIAL RED

FROM

Moscow

Dated May 2,1918

Recd, 7, 9:18 a.m.

CORRECTED COPY.

Secretary of State

Washington.

FIX TR
350
MAY 15 1918

COUNSELOR
MAY 25 1918
DEPARTMENT OF STATE

460, May 2, 3pm.

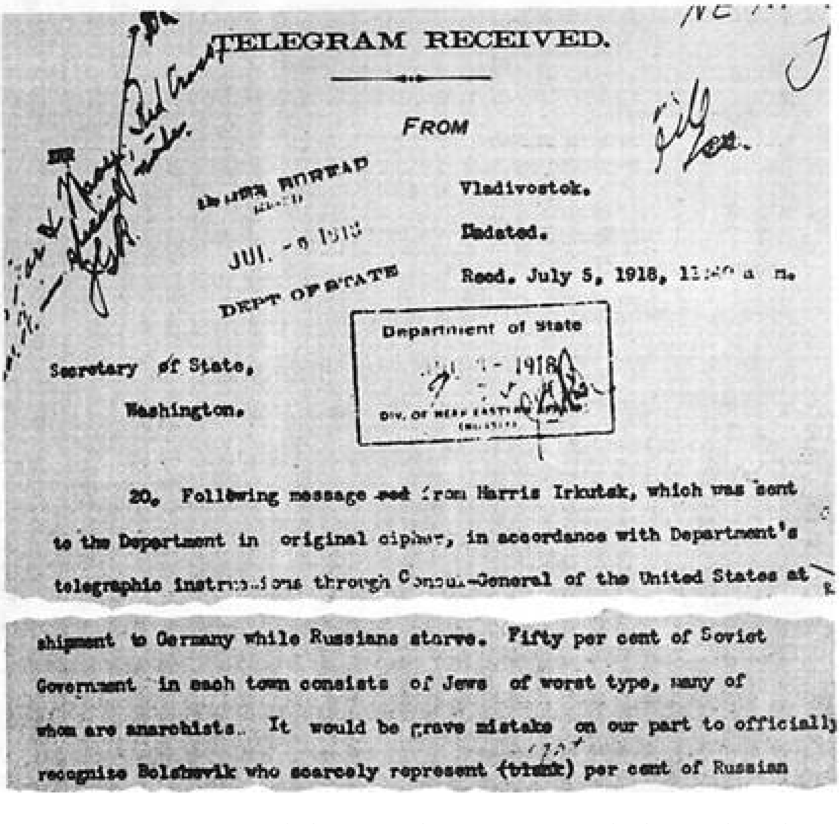
DEPT OF STATE

With reference to Department's number 1531 to Embassy.

Consulate General is maintaining observers along line of German

First two reports received relate to condition at and near Vitebsk, Vyazma, and Bryansk. At Vitebsk food shortage. Jews predominant in local Soviet Government, anti-Jewish feeling growing among population which tends to regard oncoming Germans as deliverers.

FILED
MAY 27 1918



TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

FROM

Vladivostok.

Undated.

Recd. July 5, 1918, 11:40 a. m.

BUREAU
JUL -6 1918
DEPT OF STATE

Department of State
JUL 1918
DIV. OF NEAR EASTERN AFFAIRS

Secretary of State,

Washington.

20. Following message rcd from Harris Irkutsk, which was sent to the Department in original cipher, in accordance with Department's telegraphic instructions through Consul-General of the United States at

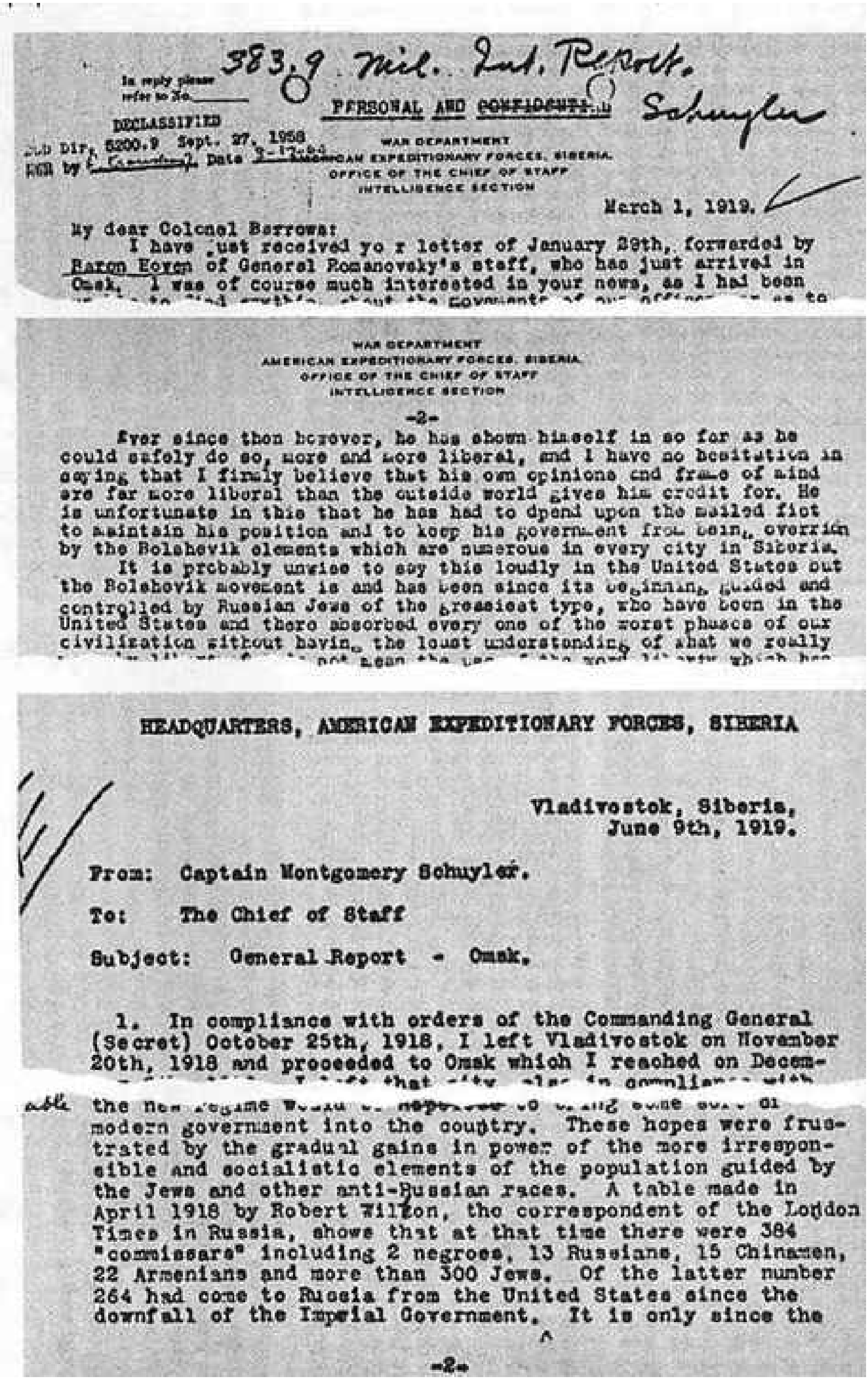
shipment to Germany while Russians starve. Fifty per cent of Soviet Government in each town consists of Jews of worst type, many of whom are anarchists. It would be grave mistake on our part to officially recognize Bolshevik who scarcely represent (blank) per cent of Russian

However, none of these authorities quoted above dared to use the language of a US Military Intelligence officer, Captain Montgomery Schuyler, who sent two reports to Washington in March and June 1919.

These reports described in graphic detail the Jewish role in the Russian Revolution, and were only declassified in September 1957. The originals are still in the US National Archives in Washington and are open for public inspection.

The first report, sent from Omsk on March 1, 1919, contains the following paragraph: “it is probably unwise to say this loudly in the United States but the Bolshevik movement is and has been since its beginning, guided and controlled by Russian Jews of the greasiest type.”

The second report, dated June 9, 1919, sent from Vladivostok, said that of the “384 commissars there were 2 Negroes, 13 Russians, 15 Chinamen, 22 Armenians and more than 300 Jews. Of the latter number 264 had come to Russia from the United States since the downfall of the Imperial Government.”



383.9 Mil. Int. Report.

In reply please refer to No.______

PERSONAL AND CONFIDENTIAL

Schuyler

DECLASSIFIED
DOD Dir. 5200.9 Sept. 27, 1958
NND by [illegible] Date [illegible]

WAR DEPARTMENT
AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA.
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF STAFF
INTELLIGENCE SECTION

March 1, 1919.

My dear Colonel Barrows:

I have just received your letter of January 28th, forwarded by Baron Korff of General Romanovsky's staff, who has just arrived in Omsk. I was of course much interested in your news, as I had been

---

WAR DEPARTMENT
AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA.
OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF STAFF
INTELLIGENCE SECTION

-2-

Ever since then however, he has shown himself in so far as he could safely do so, more and more liberal, and I have no hesitation in saying that I firmly believe that his own opinions and frame of mind are far more liberal than the outside world gives him credit for. He is unfortunate in this that he has had to depend upon the mailed fist to maintain his position and to keep his government from being overrun by the Bolshevik elements which are numerous in every city in Siberia.

It is probably unwise to say this loudly in the United States but the Bolshevik movement is and has been since its beginning guided and controlled by Russian Jews of the greasiest type, who have been in the United States and there absorbed every one of the worst phases of our civilization without having the least understanding of what we really

---

HEADQUARTERS, AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCES, SIBERIA

Vladivostok, Siberia,
June 9th, 1919.

From: Captain Montgomery Schuyler.

To: The Chief of Staff

Subject: General Report - Omsk.

1. In compliance with orders of the Commanding General (Secret) October 25th, 1918, I left Vladivostok on November 20th, 1918 and proceeded to Omsk which I reached on Decem-

able the new regime would [illegible] to bring some sort of modern government into the country. These hopes were frustrated by the gradual gains in power of the more irresponsible and socialistic elements of the population guided by the Jews and other anti-Russian races. A table made in April 1918 by Robert Wilton, the correspondent of the London Times in Russia, shows that at that time there were 384 "commissars" including 2 negroes, 13 Russians, 15 Chinamen, 22 Armenians and more than 300 Jews. Of the latter number 264 had come to Russia from the United States since the downfall of the Imperial Government. It is only since the

-2-

The Jewish domination of the commissar elite of the early Soviet Union ensured that any forms of anti-Semitism were regarded as "counter-revolutionary," and anti-Jewish agitation was entered into the Soviet law books as a capital penalty crime.

Eventually, as outlined earlier, the hardcore Communists were to part ways with the Jewish nationalists, or Zionists, and the two camps became bitter enemies, despite sharing much socialist ideology.

Jews Dominate the American Communist Party

Jews were also behind the American Communist Party. Although not politically successful, the US Communist Party played a major role in espionage activities on behalf of the Soviet Union, and eventually infiltrated the Civil Rights Movement through Martin Luther King Jr.

According to page 804 of the *Encyclopedia Judaica,* "the list of Jews who played a prominent role in the leadership and factional infighting of the American Communist Party is a long one . . . Many American Jewish authors and intellectuals, some of whom later recanted, were active in editing Communist publications and spreading party propaganda . . . among them Michael Gold, Howard Fast, and Bertram Wolfe."

American Jewish Communist Spies Gave Secrets of Atom Bomb to Soviets

Many of the Soviet spies arrested by the American government during the Cold War were Jewish, and none were more damaging to the interests of the US than the group who passed the secret of the atom bomb to the USSR.

This group of Communist spies were all Jewish, from the ringleaders Julius and Ethel Rosenberg, to the scientists working at the top secret Los Alamos laboratory, David Greenglass and Theodore Hallsberg. It was Hallsberg who physically passed the documents containing the secrets of nuclear weapons to the Rosenbergs. They in turn handed the documents over to the Jewish courier, Harry Gold, who passed it over to the Soviet government.

AMERICAN JEWS EXECUTED AT SING SING FOR GIVING SOVIET UNION US ATOM BOMB SECRETS

The American Jews, Ethel and Julius Rosenberg, who were executed in 1953 by the US Federal government for conspiracy to commit espionage during a time of war. They were convicted of being part of a Communist spy ring—all of whom were Jews—which passed on the technology for atomic weapons to the Soviet Union.

Despite the overwhelming preponderance of Jews in Communist parties and movements worldwide, it would be incorrect to allege that all Jews were or are Communists, as the millions of Jewish capitalists and the conflict between Zionist Jews and Communist Jews, attest otherwise.

It is however accurate to say that individual Jews, from Karl Marx onward, have provided the mainspring for Communist activities all over the world.

This fact, which has been largely suppressed or dismissed as a “smear” is vital to understanding the causes behind the emergence of anti-Semitism in early twentieth-century Europe.

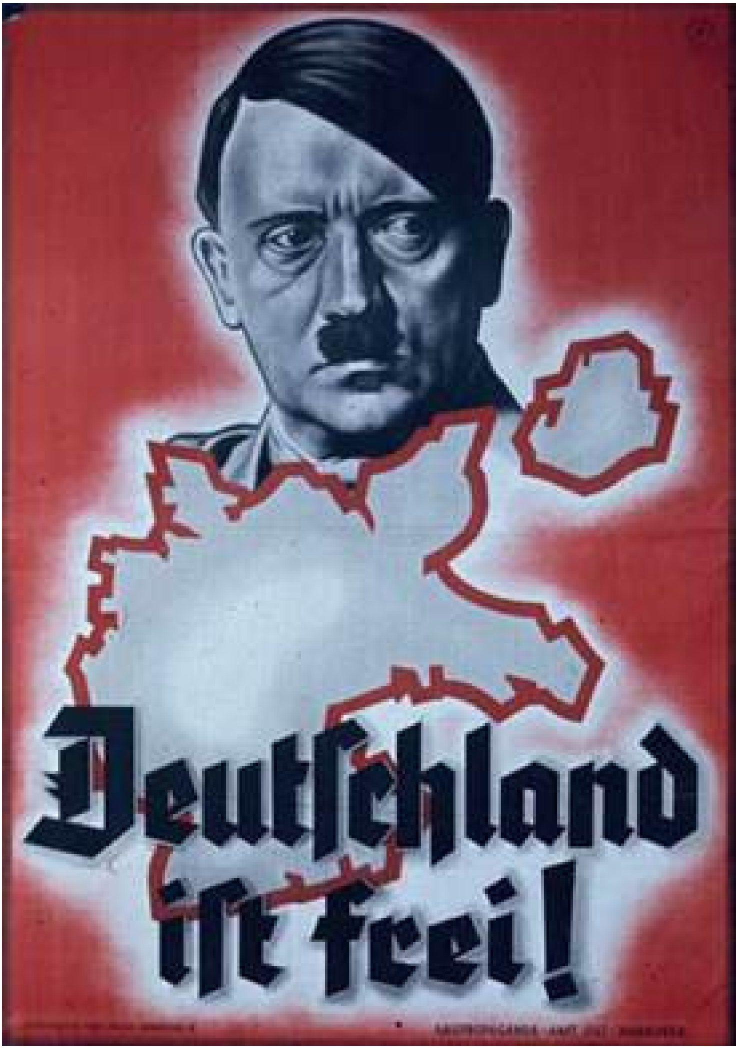
CHAPTER 63: The Second Great Brothers' War—World War II

The disaster of the First World War paled into insignificance with the advent of the Second World War, which was without doubt the single greatest conflict of all time. The war, fought from 1939 to 1945, saw the total number of dead of the 1914–1918 war surpassed by the dead of one country alone.

The Treaty of Versailles

It has often been claimed that the Second World War started with the treaty that ended the first one. The Treaty of Versailles, drawn up by the victors of the 1914–1918 war, treated Germany and her allies as sole scapegoats for the conflict. This was fundamentally unfair, as all parties involved had been equally to blame. The Germans and Austrians were, however, the big losers and in no position to argue.

GERMANY STRIPPED OF SEVEN MILLION CITIZENS, 25,000 SQUARE MILES OF LAND



A German poster illustrates how East Prussia was cut off from the rest of Germany by the Danzig Corridor, which comprised German territory handed over to Poland in terms of the Versailles Treaty. Germany was stripped of seven million citizens and 25,000 square miles of land.

Germany was stripped of huge pieces of territory. In the west, the province of Alsace Lorraine was ceded to France and three German districts were given to Belgium. Half of the state of Schleswig was given to Denmark and a thirty mile deep slice of German territory west of the Rhine River, known as the Saar, was placed under French control through the creation of a demilitarized "buffer" zone.

In the east, the German city of Danzig was declared a "free city" under control of the newly established League of Nations. In practice, it was controlled by Poland. In addition, a huge swathe of German territory was ceded directly to Poland.

This cut Germany in two and separated East Prussia from the rest of Germany. A large part of Silesia in central Germany was also ceded to Poland. Finally, a portion of the former Austro-Hungarian empire, inhabited by ethnic Germans, was cut away to form the new state of Czechoslovakia.

All told, Germany lost some twenty-five thousand square miles of territory inhabited by nearly seven million Germans. The union of Germany and Austria (which should have been the logical consequence of the destruction of the Austro-Hungarian empire), was strictly forbidden.

Military Restrictions and Reparations

The Treaty of Versailles placed the German armed forces under severe restrictions. It could not have more than 100,000 men and was forbidden from possessing any sizeable fleet or aircraft. Foreign observers were stationed in Germany to monitor factories to ensure that no munitions were manufactured in secret.

Germany was presented with a bill for the war, based on the totally false grounds that the kaiser alone had been responsible for the conflict. An immediate payment of US $5,000,000,000 was demanded —and paid. This was an extraordinary sum, especially by the standards of 1920.

When the victors finally fixed the full reparations bill in 1921, the total was set at an additional US $32,000,000,000. It was not physically possible for Germany to meet this debt, but the post-war German government, headed by the Social Democratic Party (SDP), agreed to the Allied demands and signed the undertakings. The SDP thereafter became associated with reparations and the economic collapse it caused.

German Economic Collapse Follows First Major Payment

In August 1921, Germany made a payment of $250,000,000. This was only a fraction of the total, but had a devastating impact on the German economy and its foreign reserves. The German currency, the mark, failed completely. In January 1923, one US dollar was worth 896 marks, but by November that year, one dollar was worth 666,666,666,667 marks.

Germany was unable to make any more payments and threatened to default on the next installment. In retaliation, the French army occupied the demilitarized Saar and established martial law. The French used black troops from West Africa as part of its occupation force, a development which caused great resentment in Germany.

Hyper-inflation strikes Germany: children play with wads of worthless banknotes, 1924.

Germany's economic situation proceeded to worsen which resulted in a complete collapse. Finally, in 1924, the American government intervened and offered a plan whereby Germany could pay off the reparations at a lower rate. The Dawes Plan, as it became known, provided short-term relief to the German economy.

However, it soon became clear that Germany was unable to pay even the reduced reparation amounts, and in 1929 the Allies adopted a new solution, called the Young Plan. This scheme reduced the annual payments even further, and stretched them out to end in 1988.

Germany continued to make payments until 1933, when the National Socialist government under Adolf Hitler repudiated the war debt and refused to make any further payments. At the end of the Second World War, West Germany (created out of the parts of Germany occupied by the western Allies) resumed payments and paid off the capital amount by 1980. The final payment of the outstanding interest was paid by the German state on October 3, 2010.

The League of Nations

In 1920, the League of Nations was created by the international community in an attempt to establish a lasting peace. Despite some small successes, the League never addressed the real cause of conflict in Europe, namely the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles.

The advent of the Great Depression in 1929 further worsened the world economic situation and paved the way for the Nazi Party to take power in Germany. The state that Hitler created is the subject of another chapter; suffice to say here that the Nazi Party was able to come to power largely through the exploitation of justifiable German grievances over the Treaty of Versailles.

Hitler Overthrows the Treaty of Versailles

An important part of Hitler's political program was the overthrow of the Treaty of Versailles. He also unilaterally rearmed Germany and, as mentioned above, refused to pay any more war reparations. He then recaptured the lands lost at the end of the 1914–1918 war, all of which were still occupied by Germans.

The Saar was occupied by German troops in 1936 after the French had withdrawn their troops, and in 1938 Austria was annexed to Germany. The same year saw German troops occupy the Sudetenland, an area of Germany which contained 3.5 million Germans and which had been incorporated into Czechoslovakia.

Later anti-German propaganda claimed that Germany swallowed up Czechoslovakia. This is untrue. In fact, only the Sudetenland was formally annexed to Germany. Two other nations—Poland and Hungary—were given regions of Czechoslovakia which were originally part of those countries. In addition, half the country—that part occupied by the Slovak people—became an independent state called Slovakia (ironically, Slovakia became independent once again after the fall of Communism in the 1990s). The remainder of Czechoslovakia was placed under Czech rule as a German protectorate.

The Danzig Corridor and the Outbreak of Hostilities

Hitler then turned his attention to the "Danzig Corridor," a large piece of German territory given to Poland which had split East Prussia from Germany. It also contained the German city of Danzig (now known as Gdansk in Poland) which was nominally under the control of the League of Nations. Hitler first requested permission to build direct road and rail links between Germany and East Prussia, but when these were rejected, he opted for a military invasion to take back the German territory. In addition, Hitler used the excuse that German civilians in the Danzig Corridor were being abused by their Polish overlords. These allegations had a certain amount of truth to them.

Josef Stalin and Joachim von Ribbentrop sign the Soviet-German non-aggression pact, Moscow, 1939. The Soviet Union invaded Finland, Estonia, Lativa, Lithuania and Poland, all without reaction from the Western Allies—who whoever promptly decalred war against Germany for invading Poland.

The only potential problem facing Hitler was the possibility of Soviet Union intervention should the Germans invade Poland. To this end, Hitler dispatched his foreign minister, Joachim von Ribbentrop, to Moscow in August 1939 to clinch a non-aggression pact with the Soviets. After negotiations between Von Ribbentrop and his Soviet counterpart, Vyacheslav Molotov, the treaty (now known as the Molotov–Ribbentrop Pact) was signed on August 23.

A secret protocol to the pact, only made public after the end of the war, stated that northern and eastern Europe would be divided into German and Soviet spheres of influence. Finland, Estonia, and Latvia were placed in the Soviet sphere, and Poland was to be partitioned in event of its “political rearrangement.”

At dawn on September 1—within a week of the pact being signed—German troops invaded Poland. Hitler hoped that France and Britain would not go to war over Germany attempting to seize back its own territory. This hope was misplaced, and on September 3, 1939, France and Britain declared war on Germany.

GERMAN ARMY ROLLS INTO POLAND, SEPTEMBER 1939

WARSZAWA 347
NOWA KARCZMA 14
KOŚCIERZYNA 22

German troops on their way to Warsaw, September 1, 1939. Britain and France declared war on Germany for invading Poland—but did nothing when the Soviet Union invaded Poland on September 17. This failure to act against the Soviets exposed the lie that the cause of the war was to "protect Poland from aggression."

German "Lightning War" Overruns Poles

At the beginning of the war, the German army totaled 1.5 million men, as opposed to the Polish army of 1.8 million. The Germans had however learned from the First World War, and developed a high-mobility fighting organization based around its tanks and armored vehicles. The Polish army expected a static conflict as had happened during the First World War, and was, as a result, overrun by the German "blitzkrieg" or lightning war.

Within two and a half weeks, the Germans had seized large parts of Poland and encircled Warsaw. The Poles were routed in every major engagement of the campaign.

Soviet Union Invades Poland, but Allies do not React

On September 17, the Soviet Union invaded Poland from the east. The opening of a second front caught the Poles completely off guard, and within three days almost all of Poland had been divided between Germany and the Soviet Union. The last pockets of Polish resistance surrendered on October 6, 1939. Although France and Britain declared war on Germany for invading Poland, those two nations refused to declare war on the Soviet Union for carrying out an identical act of aggression. This was the best indication that there was something more to the war than just Britain and France "resisting German aggression," as the conventional historical accounts claim. The reason for this double standard was the overtly racial ideological element which Hitlerian politics had introduced. This is discussed in the later chapter dealing with the Third Reich.

SOVIET ARMY ROLLS INTO FINLAND, NOVEMBER 1939

The aftermath of a Finnish counterattack on a Soviet column during the

USSR's invasion of Finland in November 1940. Just as with the Soviet invasion of Poland, the Western powers were silent over the USSR's invasion of Finland. Insult was then added to injury when the USSR was allowed to sit in judgment at "war crimes" trials at the end of the conflict, and judge Germans on charges of "waging aggressive war."

Poland was partitioned after its surrender. The Danzig Corridor and the city of Danzig were annexed to Germany and that part of Poland not under Russian control was turned into a protectorate known as the Government General. Although it was assigned a German administrator, most of the organs of government of this territory were left in the hands of Poles.

Sitzkrieg—the "Sitting War"

France and Germany had built long defensive emplacements along most of their borders during the 1930s. The French defenses, known as the Maginot Line, faced their German equivalent, the Westwall (later dubbed the "Siegfried Line" by the Allies). The French launched an attack on the Westwall during the Polish campaign, but retreated without any gain.

Hitler made a peace offer to Britain and France at this juncture, telling the German Reichstag, or parliament, that he had not declared war on those nations. Hitler put no preconditions on his offer other than that Britain and France recognize the right of Germany to occupy the Danzig Corridor. The offer was rejected out of hand by both the British and French governments. On the Franco-German border, both sides waited in their fortifications, leading to a standoff which became known as the Sitzkrieg, or "sitting war."

Allies Ignore Soviet Invasion of Finland

At the end of November 1939, the Soviet Union invaded Finland. Despite being outnumbered five to one, the Finns fought bravely and inflicted massive losses on the Red Army. Fighting on into 1940, without aid or support from Britain or France, Finland fought the Soviets to a stalemate. On March 8, 1940, the Soviet Union and Finland signed a treaty which ended the war, in terms of which Finland ceded only a small portion of territory to the Soviets.

The Soviet invasion of Finland elicited no response from Britain and France, in marked contrast to their declaration of war against Germany for its invasion of Poland. This double standard was underlined once again in June 1940, when the Soviet Union annexed the Baltic states of Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia, also without sanction from Britain and France.

Denmark and Norway Occupied by Germans after British Invade

On April 6, 1940, the British and French dispatched troops to Norway with the intention of seizing the Swedish iron ore reserves which supplied Germany with iron. The next morning, the British navy laid mines outside the Norwegian harbor of Narvik with the intention of sinking ships carrying ore to Germany.

The Germans dispatched their own invasion force which landed in Norway in April 9. Denmark was occupied along the way to secure the German southern flank, and surrendered immediately.

The German landings in Norway succeeded everywhere except in Narvik, where a small German force of 4600 men were attacked by 24,600 British, French, and Norwegian troops. The minute German force held out, but by the first week of June had been pushed back against the Swedish border. They were on the point of surrendering when the French and British withdrew to go the aid of their forces in France.

France Invaded in May 1940

On May 10, 1940, while the campaign in Norway was still ongoing, Hitler launched what would be his master stroke in the West. The main German force attacked in the center of the border between France and Germany, through the Ardennes forest.

Simultaneously, German airborne troops landed in Belgium and the Netherlands. In Belgium, German paratroopers seized the concrete forts of Eben-Emael and the small Belgian army was swiftly defeated. In the Netherlands, Dutch resistance crumbled after the Germans bombed the city of Rotterdam. The British and French forces in northern France moved into Belgium to meet the oncoming Germans, exactly as the Germans hoped they would.

With the tank, or panzer, army in the lead, the Germans raced past the Maginot line and swung north, covering 250 miles in eleven days. This was mobility unheard of in any war until that time. The German drive toward the coast encircled the British and French forces which had moved into Belgium, and the allied forces were cut in two.

Dunkirk—Hitler Lets British Escape

By May 26, the Allied army in the north was trapped along a coastal enclave next to the town of Dunkirk. For reasons which have never been explained (the most common belief is that Hitler wanted to let the British escape so as to facilitate a peace with them at a later stage) the German panzers were deliberately stopped outside the town.

The pause in the German attack allowed the entire British Expeditionary Force—some 330,000 men—to be evacuated by a flotilla of British naval and civilian ships back to England. Although the men were successfully rescued, they left behind tons of much-needed equipment on the beach.

GERMAN SIXTH ARMY PARADES IN CAPTURED PARIS, JUNE 1940

German troops march down one of the main thoroughfares of Paris, 1940, with the Arc de Triomphe in the background. This was the German Sixth Army, later to be more famous for surrendering at Stalingrad in the Soviet Union in January 1943.

France Defeated in Forty-six Day Campaign

Once the main body of British troops were withdrawn, the German forces turned south. They bypassed the French troops inside the Maginot Line and drove deep into the French countryside. The Germans met only with feeble resistance. When French soldiers surrendered, it became normal for the Germans to simply take their weapons and send the soldiers home. The German advance was too quick to be bothered with taking prisoners.

By June 17, French premier and First World War hero, Marshal Henri Petain, realized that the military situation was hopeless. He asked for an armistice which was signed on June 25. France, the strongest of the Allies in 1940, had been defeated in just forty-six days.

The armistice gave Germany control over northern France and a strip of territory which extended down the French Atlantic coast. The rest of France was left as an independent state under French control, with its government headed by Marshall Petain. This state had its capital at the city of Vichy, and as a result became known as Vichy France, although its real name was the French State (*État Français*).

In the interim, the last Norwegian resistance to the Germans halted on June 10. Norway fell completely under German occupation, never to be disturbed again for the duration of the war, with the occupation army only withdrawing after the German surrender in 1945. Thus, by the end of June 1940, the Germans controlled the entire European continental coastline from Norway to Spain.

Operation Sea Lion—the Plan to Invade England

Winston Churchill had been appointed prime minister of Britain on May 10, 1940, following the resignation of Neville Chamberlain. Churchill proved to be an able war leader with a carefully cultivated media image which epitomized the dogged spirit of resistance displayed by the British when they were the only major western power which had not been overrun by Germany.

The English Channel was the only physical reason why the German tanks had not rolled on to occupy Britain when France was overrun.

The Germans drew up a plan to invade Britain, codenamed Operation Sea Lion. This would have consisted of crossing the Channel in invasion barges and landing on the southern coast of England. Before this could be achieved, Germany had to achieve air superiority to make up for their inferiority at sea. The mighty British navy could destroy any invasion force while still at sea, so it was vital that the Germans air force was able to hold the Royal Navy at bay.

The Battle of Britain

When Germany invaded Poland in September 1939 and the Netherlands in May 1940, single pinpoint air strikes against Warsaw and Rotterdam were carried out to wear down the resistance of the invaded countries. Both these tactics were successful, and so it was that when Winston Churchill became prime minister of Britain on May 10, 1940, one of his first acts was to announce that German cities would be targeted for bombing attacks. The same month, the first German cities were bombed by British aircraft.

The German air force, the Luftwaffe, avoided bombing British cities and concentrated on the strategically more important airfields and ports. The first major German raids on these installations took place in August 1940, when the Battle of Britain is deemed to have started.

The British-designed Spitfire fighter became the best known aircraft of the Battle of Britain. It certainly outclassed all the German aircraft except the Messerschmitt Bf109, with which it was nearly on equal terms.

The German fighter had one advantage in that its engine was fuel-injected, which meant that it could maintain a vertical climb which the Spitfire could not hope to match. The only advantage which the Spitfire had over the Messerschmitt was that it could stay in combat longer than the German aircraft. The Messerchmitts only had enough fuel to engage their enemies over Britain for ten minutes at most before being forced to return to their bases in France to refuel.

The famous Stuka German dive bomber was, however, completely unsuited for aerial combat and suffered such large losses that it was withdrawn from the battle after only a few weeks. As a result, German losses mounted, and by the end of October 1940, some 1,887 Luftwaffe aircraft had been lost, as opposed to the Royal Air Force’s losses of 1,547. The bravery of the British aircraft teams in defending their homeland has become legendary and it was most certainly their efforts which caused the Germans to shelve Operation Sea Lion indefinitely by the end of 1940.

SPITFIRE—FAMOUS IN BATTLE OF BRITAIN

Supermarine Spitfires in formation above England during the Battle of Britain. Although the German Messerschmitt Bf109 fighter was the equivalent of the Spitfire, the Spitfire has gained a reputation of being the best aircraft of the war. The reason for this was that German aircraft could only be in combat for a fraction of their flying time due to the need to refuel back at their bases in France. The bravery of the Royal Air Force pilots in the face of the Luftwaffe assault has become legendary. At the height of the Battle of Britain, the RAF lost between fifteen and twenty-five pilots and aircraft every day.

The Blitz Starts in Response to British Air Raids

In the interim, British bombers had been raiding German cities for almost four months. Finally, after a bombing raid on Berlin, Hitler authorized the Luftwaffe to retaliate by bombing British cities. As a result, the infamous "Blitz" started, with London, Coventry, Birmingham, and Sheffield being targeted.

Despite large-scale destruction, the death toll was surprisingly low. In Coventry, 380 civilians died as a result of the bombing raids during the course of the war, and total British civilian losses due to German bombing for the entire conflict amounted to some 60,000.

To put this into perspective, more than 500,000 German civilians died during the Allied bombing raids on German cities during the war. In one raid alone, on Dresden in 1945, over 100,000 German civilians perished. Even though the Blitz caused great hardship, it did not have the effect of breaking the British peoples' spirit to resist or their willingness to pursue the war.

Italian Misadventures

The Italian leader, Benito Mussolini, allied himself to Germany before the war in a 1938 alliance between Germany and Italy known as the Pact of Friendship and Alliance, also called the "Pact of Steel." Mussolini was the first to refer to this pact as an "axis," from which the phrase "Axis Powers" was taken to mean those nations allied to Germany and Italy during the war. Despite the alliance, Mussolini waited until the French defeat was certain before he allowed Italy to enter the war. On June 10, 1940, seven days before the French surrendered, the Italians declared war on France and Britain. Simultaneously, Italian forces crossed the French border.

The attack was a failure. The French repulsed the Italian forces and only the collapse of the French army on the German front saved Mussolini from an embarrassing defeat. Meanwhile, in Britain, a large number of Italian nationals were detained and kept without trial for the duration of the war in prisoner camps.

Eclipsed by Hitler in western Europe, Mussolini turned his attention south. In September 1940, he launched an attack on British-held Egypt from the Italian colony of Libya. This offensive was also turned back and the British in turn invaded Libya. The British managed to occupy nearly half of Libya before the Germans sent reinforcements under General Erwin Rommel. This German-led army, known as the "Afrika-Korps," won renown as daring and tactical fighters. Rommel stabilized the military situation and even pushed the British back into Egypt.

Undaunted, Mussolini launched an invasion of Greece from the Italian-held territory of Albania in October 1940. The Greeks repulsed this attack as well, and the Greek army entered Albania. The British landed troops in Greece.

On all fronts then, Mussolini's endeavors failed. His inept invasion of Greece allowed the British back onto mainland Europe and Hitler was forced to act to bring the situation under control.

The Balkan Campaign—Germans Occupy Yugoslavia and Greece

Hitler quickly prepared an invasion force to drive the British off the continent once again. To reach Greece, German forces had to cross a number of countries. Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary had already formally allied themselves to Germany and granted permission for German troops to move through their territories. Only Yugoslavia remained outside Hitler’s sphere of influence and refused to let German troops set foot in its territory.

The German invasion of Yugoslavia and Greece began in early April 1941. By April 13, Belgrade had fallen and the Yugoslav army surrendered the next day. Yugoslavia was divided up with Kosovo going to Albania and Croatia becoming independent. However, for the rest of the war, Yugoslav guerrillas fought a merciless war against German troops and were never completely subdued.

By April 9, the Germans had smashed the forty-three thousand-strong Greek army and forced the sixty-two thousand-strong British Expeditionary Force to retreat south. By the end of the month, the Greek mainland had been occupied and the British forced to withdraw to the island of Crete.

In May 1941, German paratroopers landed in Crete in what became the world’s first airborne invasion. Although successful, the German losses were so high that they never tried an assault on that scale again.

SWASTIKA FLAG HOISTED AT ACROPOLIS, ATHENS

German soldiers hoist the swastika flag at the Acropolis, overlooking Athens on April 27, 1941. Although the Balkans campaign was a success, it set the invasion of the USSR back by over a month. This was ultimately to cost Germany the war.

United States Wages De Facto War

Although officially neutral, the United States made its partiality for Britain known from the beginning. The American government, headed by Franklin Delano Roosevelt, also ignored the Soviet Union's invasion of Poland, Finland, and the Baltic States, and in March 1941, adopted the Lend-Lease Act which helped supply Britain with the essential materials it needed to stay in the war.

In July 1941, the US army stationed troops in Iceland. The US navy started escorting convoys supplying Britain in waters west of Iceland. In September 1941, Roosevelt authorized American ships doing convoy duty to attack German warships or submarines. For all intents and purposes, America was at war with Germany.

Operation Barbarossa—Greatest Land War Ever

Hitler had decided as early as December 1940 that an invasion of the Soviet Union was necessary. Apart from the fact that the Communists were his traditional political foe, the evidence showed that the Soviets were planning to attack Germany during the course of 1941 or 1942. Given all the factors, Hitler decided to strike first.

An invasion plan was drawn up under the code name Barbarossa, after the ancient German king of the same name. This plan entailed a series of quick thrusts through western Russia, halting at the Ural Mountains.

Hitler never planned on going further than this, nor of concluding a treaty with the defeated Russians. Instead, he viewed the territory east of the Urals as alien land which he neither wanted nor wished to subdue.

Balkans Campaign Delays German Attack

Originally, Hitler planned Operation Barbarossa for early 1941 so that the campaign could be completed before the advent of the notorious Russian winter. This invasion timetable was postponed after Mussolini's disastrous invasion of Greece.

The Germans were forced to intervene to drive the British off the continent, and in so doing lost what turned out to be a critical month in the invasion of the Soviet Union. This was the direct cause of the German army's failure to reach its first major objectives of the campaign (which included the capture of Moscow) in Russia before the winter set in.

The German attack on the USSR finally took place on June 22, 1941, well into the summer months instead of the originally planned spring assault. More than three million German troops took part in the invasion on a front which stretched from the Baltic Sea in the north right through to the Black Sea in the south. It was the beginning of the greatest land war of all time.

The Soviet Army also had just over three million men in its western army (it had more reserves in the Far East) and outnumbered the Germans by two to one in tanks and by three to one in aircraft. The Soviet tanks, in particular the T-34s, were superior to anything the Germans had at the time and when the first T-34s were captured, German engineers dragged them away for evaluation. The first German tanks to be the equivalent of the T-34 only entered service in 1944, when the tide of the war had long since turned.

Despite the odds, three German army groups, named North, Center, and South, made tremendous speed in rushing toward their objectives: Leningrad, Moscow, and Kiev respectively. The speed of the initial advance served to give credence to the German hope that the campaign could be finished before the end of the year.

Churchill and the British government immediately offered the Soviet Union an alliance. Roosevelt also offered lend-lease aid, which soon came flooding into the Soviet Union in such quantities as to significantly affect the course of the war.

Massive Soviet Losses

By the end of the first week in July, the German Army Group Center had taken 290,000 prisoners and had passed the city of Minsk. In early August, the Germans crossed the Dnieper River, the last natural barrier west of Moscow, and destroyed a Soviet army at Smolensk, taking another 300,000 prisoners.

By early September, Leningrad had been encircled by Army Group North. The Finns, who had participated in the invasion in the far north, also lay siege to Leningrad. Soon a great famine spread through the city, since its only supply route was across a frozen lake.

In mid-September, Army Group South captured an incredible 650,000 prisoners in a classic pincer movement to the east of Kiev. By late October, Army Group Center was on the road to Moscow. On the way, it captured another 663,000 Red Army soldiers.

In less than four months, the Soviets had lost more than 1.8 million men as prisoners. It became a serious logistical problem for the Germans to house and feed all of them, and in response, the Germans built a number of prison camps in eastern Poland to contain the Russians. The most famous of these were Auschwitz and Majdanek, which were located next to large industrial complexes in which the prisoners were put to work.

Russian Prisoners of War, captured by the hundreds of thousands during the initial German advance into the Soviet Union.

Advance German Troops within Sight of Kremlin

By late November, two German units penetrated into the suburbs of Moscow and came within sight of the famous onion domes of the Kremlin. By then, however, the Russian winter had set in and the German advance ground to a halt. The one month delay in launching the invasion had cost Hitler the knockout blow against the Soviets which he needed to win the war.

Hundreds of soldiers died from the cold which froze tanks, vehicles, and guns. On December 5, the German advance unit commanders reported that they could go no further. They were not equipped to fight in these conditions and were unable to dig in because the ground was frozen. It was impossible even to bury the dead, they said.

AIDED BY WEATHER, SOVIET FORCES HOLD MOSCOW, DECEMBER 1941

Above: Clad only in gray coats, German soldiers struggle to get their vehicles through the snow in December 1941. Below: Soviet troops, on the other hand, marching through Moscow toward the front in the same month, are fully equipped for winter fighting, with snow camouflage, skis and padding. The onset of winter and the German Army's unpreparedness for it, proved to be too much for the exhausted invaders.

Japanese Betray Germans and Refuse to Attack Soviet Union

Imperial Japan, which was a member of the Axis alliance, had in the interim advanced into eastern China. Japanese troops stood opposite their Russian counterparts on the border, and an attack by Japan on the USSR in 1941 would probably have created a second front from which the Moscow government would not have recovered.

To the Germans' astonishment, the Japanese even signed a treaty with the USSR which guaranteed that there would never be a war between Japan and Russia.

This, along with confirmation from a Soviet spy ring in Tokyo which provided intelligence that the Japanese had no intention of attacking, allowed the USSR to withdraw large numbers of its army from its eastern borders and deploy them against the Germans.

The fresh troops reached Moscow at the height of the German assault. Unlike the Germans, they were fully kitted out for a war in winter conditions.

Soviet Counterattack Succeeds

The better-equipped Soviets and their reinforcements exploited the halt in the German advance to press home a counterattack. With their vehicles, equipment, and weapons specifically designed to fight in subzero temperatures, the fresh Soviet troops devastated the advance German units and the invaders were easily driven out.

The retreating Germans left behind their frozen tanks, trucks, and weapons, and were forced to flee on foot. It was the first major defeat for the Germans in the war. Reinforcements fought a desperate rearguard action and managed to stabilize the front by the end of December, but the immediate threat to Moscow was lifted and the plan to destroy the Soviet Union by the end of 1941 was wrecked.

Japanese Attack American Fleet at Pearl Harbor

In the Far East, Japan saw itself as the regional power—which it was—and invaded China in 1936 over a territorial dispute. In retaliation, the US and Britain imposed an oil embargo on Japan, hoping to starve the mineral-poor nation out of further expansionist moves.

By 1941, the oil embargo had brought the Japanese economy to a crisis point. The only way in which the raw material shortage could be overcome, the Japanese government decided, was to seize the oil and mineral reserves of Southeast Asia. They also knew that the US (which had objected to the Japanese-Chinese War), would never let Japan invade even more countries. The Japanese also believed that the US would not want to become involved in a protracted war in Asia, especially if they suffered an initial defeat. The Japanese plan called for a swift campaign to take Burma, Malaya, the East Indies, and the Philippines in quick succession. The only obstacle to the plan was the presence of the US Pacific fleet, based at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii.

On the morning of December 7, 1941, a surprise Japanese air attack, launched from aircraft carriers, swooped on the American fleet at Pearl Harbor. American government records have revealed that the US intelligence was aware of the Japanese plans and a warning was sent to Pearl Harbor. The transmission was mysteriously delayed, and only arrived after the attack had started.

Twenty-one major American ships were sunk during the Japanese attack. In addition, 188 American aircraft were destroyed on the ground and some 2,200 American soldiers and sailors lost their lives. The most important effect of the attack was to swing American public opinion in favor of participation in the war. The day after the attack, President Roosevelt and the US Congress declared war on Japan.

JAPANESE ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOR, DECEMBER 7, 1941—US

The attack on Pearl Harbor, as photographed from an attacking Japanese airplane. Note the Mitshubishi Zero banking away in the center right and the splash of a torpedo hitting the water. Although American intelligence knew of the possibility of the attack before it took place, for some reason the warning message did not arrive in Pearl Harbor until after the attack. This has led to a belief among revisionist historians that news of the attack was deliberately withheld so as to let the attack take place, knowing that if it did, the strongly isolationist American public could be more easily persuaded to enter the war.

Germany Lost the War in 1941

As outlined earlier, the US had all but committed troops to the war against Germany before the attack on Pearl Harbor.

Hitler, partly out of an acceptance of the de facto situation, and what was clearly a misplaced loyalty to Japan, then declared war on America on December 11. Italy declared war on the US the same day.

The events of 1941 were catastrophic for Germany, although the military reverse at Moscow had only seen a small amount of territory lost. However, the failure to knock the USSR out in a lightning war before the end of 1941—as Hitler originally planned—meant that the campaign would turn into a grinding war of attrition.

The Soviet Union, which possessed the larger population, was at an immediate advantage.

In addition, the entry of the US into the war meant that an overwhelming industrial power, whose production and military hardware output Germany could not hope to match, was now a formal enemy.

Finally, 1941 saw the main German code signal transmission system cracked by the British. These codes, generated by an intricate machine known as “Enigma,” were broken by British intelligence at Bletchley Park, England, with the aid of a huge analogue computer built specially for the purpose. For the rest of the war, all Hitler’s commands were known to the Allied intelligence service, often before the German commanders to whom they were sent, had received them. Germany therefore never stood a realistic chance of winning the war after December 1941. It was only with superhuman effort that Germany continued fighting until 1945.

The War in the Pacific

The Japanese pressed home their plan in Southeast Asia. By the end of December 1941, they had occupied British Hong Kong, the Gilbert Islands, and the islands of Guam and Wake. In addition they had made significant advances into British Burma, Malaya, Borneo, and the Philippines.

The Japanese seized Singapore in February 1942. The next month, Japanese forces landed in the Netherlands East Indies and New Guinea. In April 1942, Bataan in the Philippines fell to the Japanese, and Corregidor surrendered the following month.

The Japanese then launched a bid to seize Port Moresby on the southeastern part of New Guinea. The Americans, who were able to read the Japanese signals, and thus were aware of the invasion plans, sent a task force to head off the attack. The resultant May 1942 Battle of the Coral Sea, the first in the world fought exclusively by aircraft launched from aircraft carriers, ended in defeat for the Japanese. After suffering large losses, the Japanese withdrew and the invasion of Port Moresby was abandoned.

The Battle of Midway—Japanese Isolation from White Technology Reveals Stagnation

One month after the Japanese defeat at the Battle of the Coral Sea, another major naval engagement, known as the Battle of Midway, took place.

The Japanese fleet, consisting of nine battleships and four aircraft carriers, was thoroughly beaten and all four aircraft carriers were sunk. This dealt the Japanese a major blow and severely reduced their naval power.

Isolation from the white Western technology powerhouses of Europe and North America would dog Japan throughout the war. In aircraft design, for example, the Japanese air force was still equipped with the same aircraft in 1945 with which it had started the war.

The main Japanese fighter in 1941 was the Mitsubishi Zero. This aircraft (actually designed by the famous American aviation entrepreneur Howard Hughes) was approximately on equal terms with the average American fighter of that year. By 1945, however, the Zero had been hopelessly outclassed by the aircraft developed by America and the European powers during the war.

American aircraft attacking the already burning Japanese cruiser Mikuma during the Battle of Midway, June 1942.

Rommel Advances in North Africa

In North Africa, the Afrika Korps German expeditionary force had driven the British out of much of Libya and laid siege to the important town of Tobruk. A British counterattack in December 1941 relieved the siege of Tobruk and captured the town of Benghazi. The next month, January 1942, the Germans launched a new offensive. Under the command of the wily General Rommel, the Afrika Korps pushed the British forces back once again.

In June 1942, Tobruk fell to the Germans and Rommel drove on into Egypt, halting before the town of El Alamein. Rommel had overstretched his supply lines with the extent of this lightning advance, a mistake which would cost him dearly.

New German Campaign in the East

As the Russian winter of 1941–1942 came to an end, the Germans launched a new offensive against the USSR with the intention of regaining the initiative. The Battle of Kharkov, to the south of Leningrad, inflicted a major defeat upon the Soviets. In the south, the Crimea was invaded and the city of Sebastopol was besieged. Despite desperate Soviet resistance, the city fell and another 500,000 Red Army soldiers were taken prisoner.

GERMANS DRIVE TO CAUCASUS MOUNTAINS—FURTHERMOST REACH OF REICH'S ARMIES

In the last major territorial gain made by the German army in the war, the summer campaign of 1942 drove deep into southern Russia and reached the foothills of the Caucasus Mountains, as illustrated above. This would be the furthest the Germans would get and soon thereafter would follow the turning point defeat at Stalingrad.

On June 28, the Germans launched a new attack along a large part of the front line. In four weeks, they seized vast areas of land, penetrating hundreds of miles east of Moscow in the south.

The German force was then split in two. One part raced south into the Caucasus to take the oil fields at Groznyy and Baku. By August, the invasion of the Caucasus had penetrated nearly two hundred miles into Soviet territory, and by early September, the northernmost unit had reached the outskirts of the city of Stalingrad on the banks of the Volga River. The sweep south and southeast had, however, not resulted in the massive Soviet surrenders which had characterized the campaign until then. Soviet losses had been light and the German supply lines became increasingly stretched. This resulted in a dramatic reduction in the effective fighting strength of the German Army Groups.

In addition, the USSR had now received the first delivery of the vast amounts of American material aid to bolster its armed forces. This, combined with the manpower reserves of the Soviet state—three times that of Germany—allowed the Soviets to launch a devastating counterattack. They chose the forward, and most exposed, German positions at Stalingrad as their point of attack.

Guadalcanal—American "Island Hopping"

This was the first of a series of invasions of the islands of Southeast Asia by the Allied forces, which became known as "island hopping." The Japanese fought tenaciously, and it took a series of major naval battles and hand-to-hand fighting before Guadalcanal was cleared of the last Japanese soldiers in February 1943.

ISLAND HOPPING—AMERICAN ARMY WRESTS PACIFIC BACK FROM JAPANESE

LUCKY
LEGS II

American GIs advance against fanatical Japanese resistance, Bougainville, May 1943. Hopping from one set of islands to the next, each time carrying out a beach landing and fighting in sweltering jungle conditions against a well dug-in enemy, the Americans and their Allies (Australians and New Zealanders) had no easy task. In one case, for example, it took three thousand American lives to seize a 291-acre island from its Japanese defenders.

Battle of El Alamein—Tide Turns in North Africa

In North Africa, the German advance into Egypt was halted by a brilliantly planned counterattack at the town of El Alamein in Egypt, commanded by General Bernard Montgomery. By November 5, 1942, the Afrika Korps had been forced into a general retreat into Libya.

On November 8, 1942, a combined British and American force landed in Morocco and Algeria. These territories were under the control of the Vichy French state, and, crucially, were to the rear of the German supply route to the Afrika Korps which ran through Tunisia.

The Germans rushed reinforcements to Tunisia, simultaneously occupying Vichy France. Rommel fought a series of desperate rearguard actions on two fronts and temporarily halted the American and British advance in Algeria at the February 1943 Battle of Kasserine Pass.

The overwhelming numbers of the Allied forces were too much for the undersupplied Afrika Korps. Rommel's forces were crushed between the twin Allied advances (from Algeria in the west and Libya in the east) and surrendered in May 1943. The Germans and Italians lost 275,000 prisoners as a result, which was a blow that the Axis powers could ill afford.

STALINGRAD—GRAVEYARD OF GERMAN HOPES FOR VICTORY

The savagery of the hand-to-hand fighting in Stalingrad is captured by this picture of German soldiers on patrol in a ruined factory in the city. Almost the entire city was destroyed in the initial assault and later siege. Bones from dead soldiers of both sides were discovered as late as the 1990s by construction workers in the city.

The Soviet Victory of Stalingrad

On the eastern front, the German advance to the Volga River and into the Caucasus added 683 miles to the front line. The depth of this advance meant that there were not enough German troops to man the entire front. The gaps were filled by German allies who were both poorly trained and equipped, including Romanian, Italian, and Hungarian forces. None of these armies had the battle experience or equipment of the German forces, and were thus at an immediate disadvantage.

On November 19, 1942, the German forces reached the banks of the Volga River in Stalingrad. On that day, a large Soviet counterattack smashed through the Romanian forces positioned to the north and south of the main German army. In a three-day pincer movement, the Red Army surrounded Stalingrad and cut off the main German army.

Strenuous efforts to relieve the surrounded army failed, and Hitler forbade a withdrawal, which might still have been possible in the early stages of the battle. This order could have only one consequence: on the last day of January 1943, the German forces in Stalingrad were forced to surrender.

The Germans lost some 200,000 men in this battle, and its entire Sixth Army was destroyed. The Italian, Hungarian, and Romanian armies collapsed and the Germans were forced to retreat from the Caucasus to fill the holes in their front line. In the general confusion and retreat, large parts of the land gained by the Germans during the 1942 offensive were lost back to the Soviets. The Battle of Stalingrad is correctly regarded as a turning point in the war.

Air Raids on German Cities

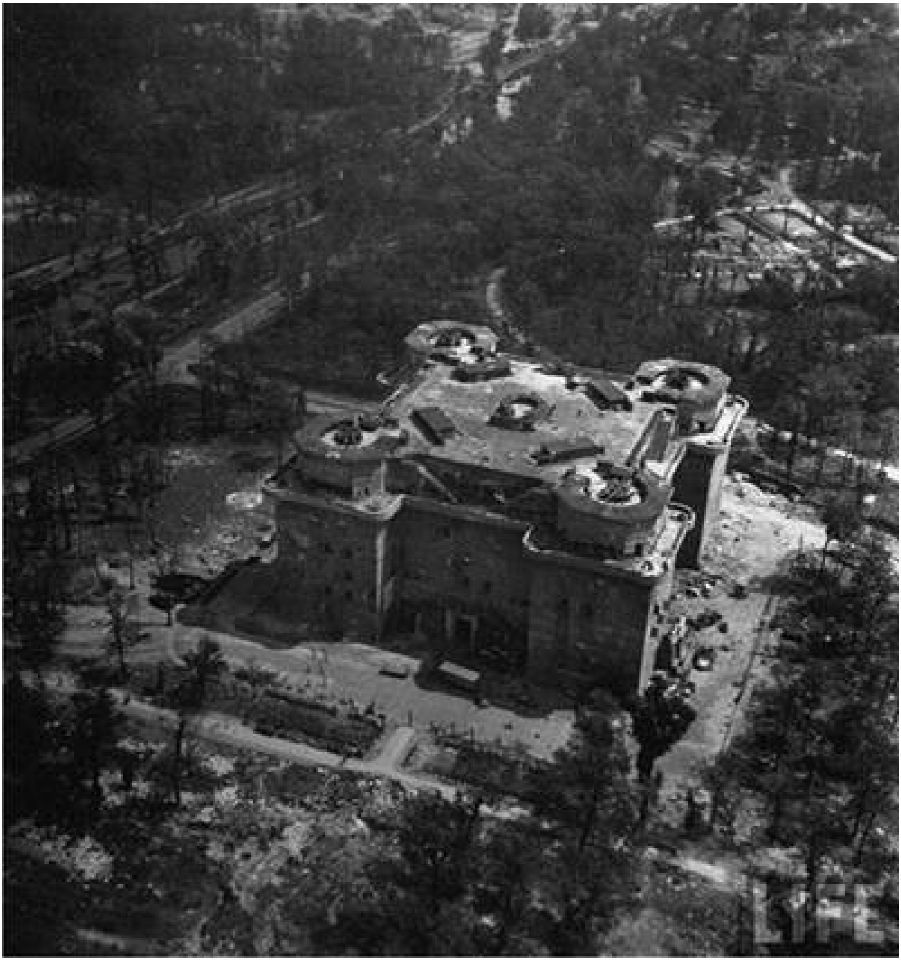
By 1943, the British and American air forces had launched a carpet bombing campaign of the German cities. The cities were targeted with incendiary devices and raided around the clock, with the British bombing at night and the Americans by day.

Civilian targets were specially selected and this resulted in massive casualty rates. In a four-day series of raids on Hamburg in July 1943, fifty thousand civilians were killed.

The Luftwaffe concentrated its forces over the skies of Germany and flew missions like those undertaken by the British during the Battle of Britain. By October 1943, the Americans had suffered such large losses that the daylight raids were called off.

The respite was temporary. By the end of 1943, the Americans had modified the P-51 Mustang fighter with extra fuel tanks which gave them a far greater range. This development allowed the bombers to be escorted by the fighter aircraft all the way into Germany and back. This tactic allowed the American fighter aircraft to protect the bomber squadrons. As a result, the round-the-clock bombing of German cities started again in earnest in January 1944 and did not stop until the end of the war.

FLAK TOWERS—VAIN EFFORT TO DEFEND GERMAN CITIES



After the Royal Air Force bombed Berlin in 1940, Hitler ordered the construction of three huge Fliegerabwehrkanone ("aviator-defense guns," or "flak") towers to defend the city. These massive concrete installations, designed by Hitler, had anti-aircraft guns on the roof, supported by retractable radar dishes and concrete walls twelve feet thick. The three Berlin towers could lay down a rate of fire of eight thousand rounds per minute from their multilevel guns, with a range of up to eight miles. The towers also served as air raid shelters for ten thousand civilians each. They were so formidable that, during the 1945 Battle of Berlin, the tower's garrisons only surrendered after their provisions ran out. Similar structures *were built in Hamburg and Vienna, but ultimately none were able to ward off the unprecedented wave of Allied air attacks upon those cities.*

The Single Biggest Battle of All Time—Kursk

The Germans launched one final attempt to grasp the initiative against the Soviets. This attack, which took place on the eastern front, culminated in the Battle of Kursk, fought July 5–12, 1943. This was the single largest land battle ever fought in history and saw more than a million men and over five thousand tanks engage each other in a seven-day struggle. The Red Army prepared its defenses well, and on the seventh day the German advance was halted.

Hitler called off the operation at that point because the Americans and British landed in Sicily and he needed to transfer divisions to Italy to shore up that new front. If any Germans had begun to doubt that they could not win the war after Stalingrad, the failure to win the Battle of Kursk must have confirmed it.

Mussolini Dismissed from Office

On July 10, 1943, at the height of the Battle of Kursk, Allied armies invaded Sicily from North Africa. In five weeks, they occupied the island, aided by an unexpected collapse in Italian morale which saw large numbers of its soldiers surrender. Allied forces moved on to invade the Italian mainland and occupied most of the territory from Naples to the Adriatic Sea.

The Italian king, Emanuel III, used his constitutional powers to remove Mussolini from office and appoint a new government. This new government—which ironically included elements of Mussolini's Fascist party, negotiated a wholesale surrender to the Allies on September 8, 1943. Mussolini was placed under arrest and held at a mountaintop hotel while the new Italian government waited for instructions on his fate from the allies.

The German forces which were rushed to Italy from the eastern front were battle-hardened veterans, and by the end of the year they had halted the Allied advance sixty miles south of Rome, at the Liri River and Monte Casino. A daring German commando raid on Mussolini's mountaintop hotel-prison freed the Italian leader who then declared a republic in the unoccupied part of Italy—with himself as leader—called the Salo Republic.

The Battle of Anzio

In January 1944, the Allies attempted to break the stalemate at the Liri River by landing fifty thousand men at Anzio, which was located behind the German lines. The German commander in Italy, Field Marshall Albert Kesselring, fought a highly successful defense and tied up the Allied invasion until June 1944, when he withdrew to his next prepared defensive line north of Rome.

DRESDEN FIRESTORM BOMBING

A body count in the ruins of the German city of Dresden, where 135,000 German civilians died in one bombing raid a few days before the war ended. This was more than all the Japanese who died in both the atom bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki added together. By comparison, 60,000 Britons died in all the German bombing raids on all British cities during the war.

Further Japanese Defeats

During May 1943, American troops seized the Aleutian island of Attu in another hard-fought, three-week battle. A combined American and New Zealand army captured the Solomon Islands and seized a beachhead in Bougainville, Papua New Guinea, in November.

Australian and Americans forces captured the east coast of New Guinea while the Gilbert Islands were taken from the Japanese in November 1943. Cape Gloucester, New Britain, was captured in December 1943 while the Admiralty and Marshall islands were taken in February 1944. The following month, Emirau Island in New Guinea was occupied. Although the Japanese were firmly in retreat, their resistance became more fanatical with each defeat, and Allied losses mounted. For example, over three thousand Americans were killed seizing the 291-acre island of Beito in the Gilbert Islands.

German Retreat in East

The Red Army launched a major offensive against the Germans along the northern part of the front in August 1943. By the middle of that month, the Soviets had also taken the offensive in the south of Russia, and in mid-September, Hitler ordered the major German army to retreat to the Dnieper River. In the Crimea, another German army group was surrounded by a renewed Red Army assault. Outnumbered and outgunned, the Germans put up a desperate resistance but were forced to surrender the peninsula in May 1944, losing 150,000 men as prisoners to the Soviets.

Leningrad Siege Lifted in January 1944

The Red Army continued with is steady advance west. Kiev was recaptured in November 1943, and by January 1944 the siege of Leningrad had been raised. A renewed Soviet offensive drove the Germans back to a line which ran along the Narva River and Lake Peipus line. There, fanatic resistance by the Waffen-SS halted the Soviet advance for over six months.

By June 1944, all Soviet territory had been cleared of German troops. By this time, the Red Army outnumbered the Germans by a ratio of ten to one in most of the major engagements, and it possessed an overwhelming material advantage in tanks, armor, guns, and aircraft.

D-DAY, JUNE 6, 1944—ALLIED LANDING IN FRANCE SIGNALS END OF THIRD REICH

Dawn, June 6, 1944: the greatest amphibious landing in history gets underway as Allied forces storm the beaches of Normandy. Within a matter of months, they broke out of the beachheads and reached Paris. The war in Europe ended eleven months after the landings.

Operation Overlord—the Western Allies Land in Europe

In the West, the Americans had massed a huge army in Britain, ready to launch an invasion of western Europe and thereby open a third front to engage the already overstretched Germans. The invasion, codenamed Operation Overlord, took place on June 6, 1944, when thousands of Allied troops landed in Normandy in France.

The Germans were steadily forced back, hampered by the Allied air superiority which made any major movement during the daytime nearly impossible. By the end of June, the Allies landed over 850,000 men and 150,000 tanks and other vehicles in Normandy. This, combined with the Allied mastery of the air, made the outcome of the war in western Europe only a matter of time.

The July Plot

By July 1944, a group of right-wing German officers and civilians concluded that Hitler had to be killed so that Germany could negotiate a surrender before it faced total defeat. On July 20, a bomb was placed in Hitler's headquarters in East Prussia. Although a number of senior officers were killed and wounded in the blast, Hitler miraculously escaped. Millions of Germans were shocked at the attempt to kill Hitler and he emerged from the assassination attempt more secure in his power than ever.

France Cleared of Germans

By July 25, 1944, the Allied armies had broken out of the Normandy beachheads. Their overwhelming material superiority was challenged only by new German super tanks, the Tiger and King Tiger models. Although powerful, these new weapons were deployed in too few numbers to halt the Allies. By August 25, the Germans had been forced back across the Seine River, and a combined force of Americans, General Charles de Gaulle's Free French, and the French Resistance, had occupied Paris.

Southern France Invaded

On August 15, a combined American and Free French force landed on the southern coast of France, just to the east of Marseilles. They met almost no resistance and pushed north along the valley of the Rhone River. By mid-September, they had made contact with American troops in northern France.

Simultaneously, British troops seized Antwerp in early September while American troops entered German territory for the first time on September 11, 1944. The occupation of German territory stiffened German resistance. Even though they were heavily outnumbered, the Germans halted the Allied advance at the Meuse and lower Rhine rivers.

In June 1944, the first of the German secret weapons, the V1 flying bomb, fell on England. By September, the Germans launched the V2 rocket, which was the world's first intercontinental ballistic missile, against England and the port of Antwerp. While there was some measure of defense against the V1 (it could be heard coming and it could be shot down or overturned by some British aircraft specially adapted for the purpose), there was no defense against the supersonic V2.

By November, the Germans had also deployed the first jet fighter squadrons. Far faster than any of its opponents, the Messerschmitt Me262 jet was nearly invincible. It was however available in too few numbers to affect the outcome of the war.

The Warsaw Uprising

By July 1944, the Red Army had reached the Baltic coast near Riga and cut off the German Army Group North. Other Soviet forces reached the Vistula River in Poland, just a short distance from Warsaw. The closeness of the Red Army prompted the Polish resistance to launch an uprising in Warsaw against the Germans.

The Warsaw Uprising was suppressed by the Germans after an uneven battle. The Poles falsely believed that the Soviets would intervene and occupy the city to aid the uprising.

A renewed Soviet offensive directed between the Carpathian Mountains and the Black Sea in August 1944 resulted in Romania's surrender. Bulgaria and Finland followed suit in early September. The Soviet advance rolled west and the Red Army took the Yugoslavian capital, Belgrade, in mid-October. By November, the Soviet Army had reached Budapest in Hungary, where fanatical last-ditch German and Hungarian resistance held them off for several weeks.

Rome Falls to Allies

By May 1944, the Allies finally managed to break the German line at the famous Battle of Monte Casino (where a monastery had been reduced to rubble by Allied aircraft, ironically providing an ideal defensive position for the Germans). At the end of the month, the besieged Allied troops at the Anzio beachhead finally broke out as the Germans withdrew and Rome, declared an "open city" to prevent damage to its archaeological wealth, was occupied by the Allies on June 4. By August, the Allied armies had taken Ancona and Florence, and stood on the brink of overrunning all of northern Italy.

The Battle of the Philippine Sea

In the Far East, the Allied island-hopping invasions continued as planned. One after the other, the Japanese strongholds fell, sometimes with horrendous cost to the Allies.

In June 1944, the Battle of the Philippine Sea exposed to the world just how far behind Japanese technology had fallen. In an engagement which became colloquially known as the "Marianas Turkey Shoot," American airplanes shot down 219 of the now-antiquated 326 Japanese aircraft involved in the battle. While this uneven air battle took place, American submarines sank all but one of Japan's remaining aircraft carriers.

The Japanese fleet limped back home, utterly defeated and with just thirty-five aircraft left. The total American loss for the engagement was twenty-six airplanes. In October 1944, the Japanese were driven out of the Philippines. This campaign saw the Japanese navy fight its very last major battle at the three day engagement known as the Battle of Leyte Gulf.

The Japanese lost their last giant battleship in the Leyte Gulf and twenty-five other important vessels, while the Americans lost seven ships. The American army captured the small but strategically vital islands of Saipan, Tinian, and Guam by August 1944. From these islands, American B-29 bombers could finally reach Japan, and a carpet-bombing campaign began in November 1944.

The Battle of the Bulge

In western Europe, the Germans launched one final attempt to retake the initiative in December 1944. A spell of winter weather grounded the Allied air forces, and on December 16, a surprise German offensive was launched through the Ardennes forest.

The Allied forces were taken by surprise and were forced back around fifty miles by the attack. This created a bulge in the Allied lines which gave the battle its name. The offensive was however doomed after December 23 when the bad weather lifted and the Allied aircraft took to the skies and decimated the German land forces. The area captured by the Germans in the Battle of the Bulge was only finally retaken by the Allies at the end of January 1945.

Allied Armies Cross the Rhine River

To cross into Germany required the seizure of the all-important bridges over the Rhine and Ruhr. To this end, the Allies developed a plan, code-named Operation Market Garden, to capture a series of bridges over the Rhine River in southern Holland, including those at Nijmegen and Arnhem.

The Allied offensive failed when British paratroopers landed on an SS-Panzer division near Arnhem. The attackers were decimated and only a few survivors escaped back to the Allied lines.

The failure of Operation Market Garden, and the launch of the Battle of the Bulge, postponed the final Allied invasion of Germany until February 1945. In that month, American troops captured an intact bridge over the Rhine at Remagen. Allied troops and equipment poured across the bridge and by the middle of March, American soldiers had occupied all German territory east of the Rhine between Bonn and Koblenz.

By the end of March, American troops had penetrated south of the city of Mainz, and by April the Ruhr Valley had been captured. British troops crossed the Weser River, halfway between the Rhine and the Elbe rivers, on April 5. On April 11, the Americans reached the Elbe near Magdeburg, only seventy-four miles from Berlin.

Germany Crushed—Hitler Commits Suicide

By February 1945, the Red Army had driven the Germans back to the Oder River, only thirty-seven miles from Berlin where Hitler had chosen to await the end. In Italy, a renewed Allied offensive saw the Po River Valley taken in April 1945 and German resistance came to an end. On April 16, the Red Army began its drive on Berlin, while on April 20, the Americans captured Nuremberg.

By April 24, the Red Army had encircled Berlin, and the next day, Soviet and American troops met up at Torgau on the Elbe River northeast of Leipzig. By the end of April, almost all German resistance in the west had collapsed, but in the east, the Germans fought even harder than before, exacting a toll of over 100,000 Soviet casualties in the Battle of Berlin.

When the German-held part of Berlin was reduced to a few blocks in the center of the city, Hitler committed suicide by shooting himself on April 30, 1945. His body (and that of his longtime partner and, in the last day of their lives, his wife, Eva Braun, who had committed suicide by taking cyanide) was burned to cinders in a shell hole in the garden of the Reich Chancellery. As his last official act, Hitler nominated the head of the German navy, Admiral Karl Dönitz as his successor. Faced with a hopeless military situation, Dönitz organized a German surrender which was signed on May 7, 1945.

Soviet soldiers gather in front of the Brandenburg Gate after the Battle for Berlin is over, May 1945.

The Divine Wind—Japanese Suicide Squads

Japan also faced certain defeat by the time of Germany's surrender, but its soldiers refused to contemplate surrender. Instead, hundreds of volunteers came forward to pilot the aging and otherwise useless Zero fighters as manned flying bombs. These suicide pilots, known as kamikazes ("Divine Wind") were to inflict serious losses on the American forces before Japan's final surrender. For example, during the fighting for Luzon in the Philippines in January 1945, kamikaze pilots sank seventeen American warships.

The Forgotten War in Burma

Japan's invasion of Burma in December 1941, and the occupation of Rangoon in March 1942, had driven the British, Indian, and Chinese defenders back into India. The Japanese were able to raise a forty thousand-strong army of Indian sympathizers, who wished to see India independent and the British driven out of India, to fight alongside the Japanese army in Burma.

The British were barely able to contain the Japanese threat to India, and it was only in 1944 that they were finally able to go on the offensive and capture large areas in Burma. Rangoon was seized back from the Japanese on May 6, 1945, but the last Japanese troops did not surrender until the end of August.

Fighting was often hand-to-hand, and the British soldier's greatest fear was to be taken prisoner by the Japanese, who routinely employed tortures and slave labor in their prisoner-of-war camps.

Iwo Jima Island—Six Thousand American Lives Lost to Capture Eight Square Miles

The tiny and barren island of Iwo Jima, located 650 miles south of Tokyo, was the first piece of Japanese territory to be invaded on February 19, 1945. The eight square mile island was defended by twelve thousand Japanese soldiers, who fought literally to the last man. Some six thousand American soldiers were killed in the assault, and nearly all the Japanese defenders were killed.

On April 2, the second piece of Japanese land, the island of Okinawa, was invaded by American troops. The northern part of the island was occupied in two weeks, but the Japanese resisted furiously in the south and were only subdued on June 21. Some 12,513 American soldiers were killed, while more than 100,000 Japanese soldiers perished.

The lessons learned from Iwo Jima and Okinawa were not lost on the American Command: the two small pieces of land were defended literally to the last man, woman, and child. On Okinawa hundreds of soldiers and civilians had jumped off cliffs rather than surrender. In addition, kamikaze planes had sunk fifteen naval vessels and damaged two hundred others off Okinawa. It had cost thousands of American lives to seize two minuscule pieces of territory and it was clear that Japanese resistance would be even more fanatical if their main islands were invaded.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki—Early End to War

Faced with the losses on Iwo Jima and Okinawa, the Americans decided to try and force Japan into surrendering by unleashing the newly-developed atom bombs. The first bomb was successfully test-exploded at Alamogordo, New Mexico, on July 16, 1945. Two more bombs were built, and dropped over the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki on August 6 and 9 respectively. The effect was devastating. Some seventy thousand Japanese were killed in Hiroshima and thirty-nine thousand in Nagasaki.

The Enola Gay, a B-29 Superfortress bomber, photographed on Tinian Island just a few hours before dropping the first atomic bomb, August 6, 1945.

On August 8, the Soviet Union invaded Japanese-occupied Manchuria, breaking the nonaggression pact with Japan. On August 14, Japan announced its surrender, on condition that it could keep its emperor. Japan was placed under American occupation and General Douglas MacArthur was appointed its military governor.

JAPANESE SURRENDER UNDER PERRY FLAG AFTER ATOM BOMBS

The official surrender of Japan took place on board the USS Missouri, *where the flag flown by US Navy Commodore Matthew C. Perry was displayed (above left). The flag, flown by Commodore Perry during his "opening of Japan" mission in the mid 1850s, was brought from the US Naval Academy Museum to Japan for the surrender ceremony in 1945 at the request of General Douglas MacArthur, who led the American side at the ceremony*

The Nuremberg Trials

Once the war was over, the surviving leaders of Germany and Japan were put on trial by the Allies for what was called "War Crimes." While some of the charges were based on wartime atrocities committed by the accused—any atrocities committed by the victors were ignored—the main defendants faced the chief charge of “waging aggressive war.”

In Germany, the major war crimes trials took place in Nuremberg. All of the defendants, which included Luftwaffe head Herman Goering, Foreign Minister Joachim von Ribbentrop, Minister of Production Albert Speer, former Hitler deputy Rudolf Hess (who had been in British captivity since 1941 after he flew to a friend in Britain to try and make peace), and many General Staff members, were found guilty and sentenced to death or long periods of imprisonment.

The trials broke many established legal principles, most notably the principle of retroactive prosecution, which holds that a person cannot be convicted of a crime if the act in question was not a crime at the time that it was committed. This was the case with the main charge of “waging aggressive war”—in 1939, there was no legal precedent or law forbidding the “waging of war.”

The most shocking failure of the Nuremberg Trials was the inclusion of representatives of the Soviet Union on the panel of judges, rather than in the accused box.

The Soviet Union had also “waged aggressive war” against Poland, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia before it was attacked by Germany. No mention was ever made of the Soviet attacks at the trials, and the inclusion of a Soviet judge on the bench made the entire process a mockery and showed that the trials were mainly an act of political revenge.

The massacre of eleven thousand Polish army officers at Katyn, carried out by members of the Soviet military, was entered into the official Nuremberg Trial records as having been carried out by the Germans.

Similar trials were held in Tokyo, although they never achieved the same prominence as the Nuremberg Trials.

Racial Implications of the War

The Second World War was yet another catastrophe for Europe with millions of people killed in what was ultimately a pointless conflict.

Losses were estimated at the following:

USSR — Military: 13,000,000; Civilian: 5,000,000

USA — Military: 415,000

Germany — Military: 3,500,000; Civilian: 3,740,000

Poland — Military: 120,000; Civilian: 200,000

Yugoslavia — Military: 300,000; Civilian: 300,000

Romania — Military: 200,000; Civilian: 20,000

France — Military: 250,000; Civilian: 30,000

British Empire and Commonwealth — Military: 452,000; Civilian: 60,000

Italy — Military: 330,000; Civilian: 50,000

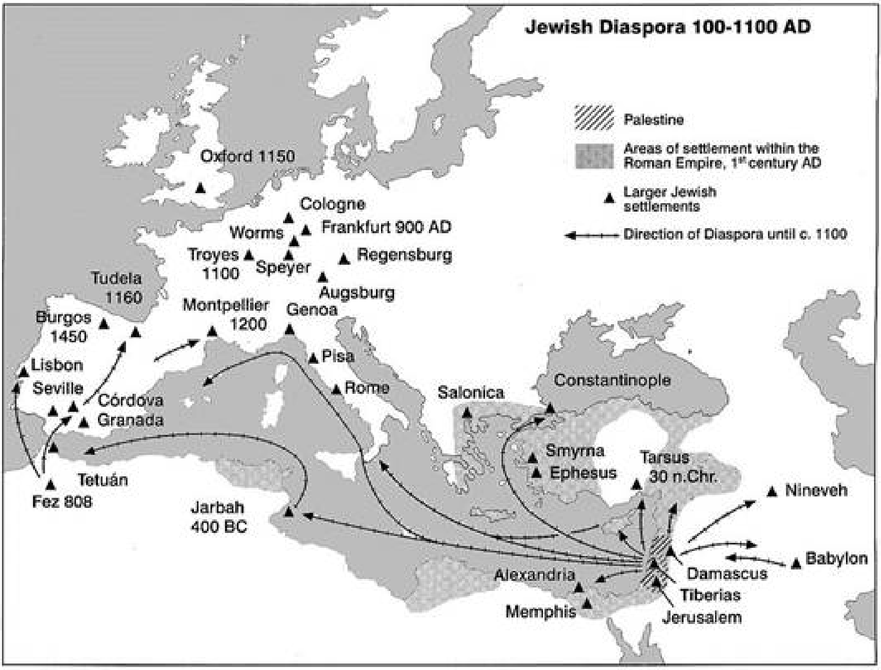
Hungary — Military: 120,000; Civilian: 190,000

Czechoslovakia — Military: 10,000; Civilian: 10,000.

CHAPTER 64: The Shadow of the Ghetto—the Saga of the European Jews

It is often incorrectly claimed that anti-Semitism in Europe originated with Adolf Hitler in the era before World War II. In reality, anti-Semitism in Europe has a long history which stretches back to the first appearance of Jews in Europe, during Roman times.

Another oft-held misconception is that anti-Semitism is the product of Christianity (because the Bible specifically accused the Jews of responsibility for the crucifixion of Jesus Christ). However, anti-Jewish sentiment predates Christianity, and the only effect of the introduction of that religion was to provide an additional means of expressing anti-Semitism, rather than creating the phenomenon in the first place. The historical record shows that anti-Semitism has always existed wherever Jews have come into contact with non-Jews, irrespective of the prevailing religions of the time.


Jewish Diaspora 100-1100 AD
Palestine
Areas of settlement within the Roman Empire, 1st century AD
Larger Jewish settlements
Direction of Diaspora until c. 1100
Oxford 1150
Cologne
Worms
Frankfurt 900 AD
Troyes 1100
Speyer
Regensburg
Augsburg
Tudela 1160
Burgos 1450
Montpellier 1200
Genoa
Pisa
Rome
Lisbon
Seville
Córdova
Granada
Salonica
Constantinople
Smyrna
Ephesus
Tarsus 30 n.Chr.
Nineveh
Babylon
Tetuán
Fez 808
Jarbah 400 BC
Alexandria
Memphis
Damascus
Tiberias
Jerusalem

Origins of Anti-Jewish Sentiment

Genetic studies of modern Jewish populations have shown a large degree of similarity between Jews living in various parts of the world, even among Ashkenazim and Sephardic Jews. This DNA evidence has confirmed that Jews, to a large degree, have been able to preserve their distinct identity. The admixture which has taken place is in line with what one would expect from generations of coexistence with non-Jewish populations. Modern DNA studies can, however, determine if an individual is of Jewish descent by analyzing genetic markers.

Judaism is a racial religion with a specifically inward-looking culture. It is this which has always allowed Jews to maintain their status as a separate and isolated community and culture, regardless of the nation in which they have settled.

The closed nature of Jewish society led to the creation of Jewish areas in many towns, which became known as "ghettoes." It is important to understand that the first Jewish ghettoes were entirely voluntary.

The god of the Christian Bible, and of Judaism's holy books, the Torah and the Talmud, is one and the same deity. All three books say that god has chosen, or favored, the Jews to the exclusion of all other nations, which led to the Jews becoming known as "the Chosen People."

This special status is reinforced by religious laws which limit Judaism by race. To the present day, most Jewish communities only accept an individual as a Jew if their mother was one. People who have no direct Jewish ancestry can only become Jews with great difficulty, and even then, large numbers of the Jewish community (mainly Orthodox Judaism) will not recognize such converts as true Jews.

The teachings of the Jewish religion have also played an important role in generating anti-Semitism. In this regard, it is important to bear in mind that Judaism is older than Christianity. The Talmud, which is the collected writings of those rabbis and Jewish scribes held to be the most important scholars of their people, contain many strongly anti-Gentile injunctions and laws. In summary, these injunctions can be divided into two categories: firstly, they command Jews to regard themselves as superior to all non-Jews (Gentiles are referred to as "goy," which literally translates as "cattle"), and secondly the Torah contains a number of shocking comments on Gentiles (such as passages comparing non-Jewish women to whores; specific instruction on how it is permissible for Jews to cheat non-Jews in business; and, possibly most astounding of all, a command that "even the best of the Goyim must be killed," which can be found in the Talmud's *Abodah Zara* 26b, Tosefoth).

These religious laws have had a self-selecting process among followers of Judaism, in that those Jews who were not attracted to the concept of a favored status, or dismissed the more outrageously anti-Gentile precepts of the Torah, usually "stopped" becoming Jews, either by resorting to agnosticism or, as was more common, by intermarriage and assimilation with non-Jews.

Finally, the well-known Jewish propensity for business and the ability to accumulate vast amounts of money also served to generate much anti-Semitism. Gentiles of many nations (some examples are given below) objected to Jewish financial practices, with the most common accusations being that of moneylending with exorbitant interest rates and other unsavory financial dealings.

The true origins of anti-Semitism lie, therefore, in a combination of these factors:

- The self-imposed isolation of the Jewish people;

- The open hostility to non-Jews as espoused in Judaism's ethnocentric and tightly binding racial religion; and

- Disreputable business practices in which a large number of Jews have engaged.

Egypt—First Documented Anti-Jewish Riot 38 AD

The first documented anti-Jewish riots broke out in the Egyptian city of Alexandria in 38 AD, as part of a general resentment against what the Alexandrians perceived to be Jewish influence in the local government. The riots reoccurred in 66 AD and 115 AD, when the main synagogue in Alexandria was burned to the ground.

Egypt was one of the first nations in which Christianity became established. The chronicler Agapius reported that in the year 411 AD, some Jews who had been forcibly baptized "took a statue of Christ and crucified it, mocked the Christians, and cried out, 'That is your Messiah!' A riot ensued in which many Jews and Christians lost their lives."

Three years later, fresh disturbances broke out again on a much more serious scale, and the archbishop of Alexandria, Cyril, ordered the expulsion of all Jews from the city.

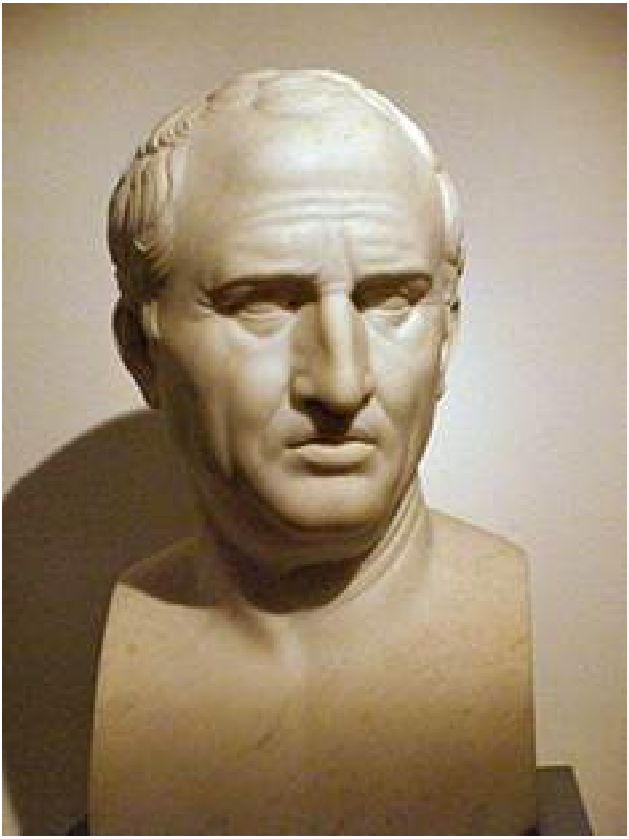
The Roman historian Socrates, in his *Ecclesiastical History,* recorded the reasons for this first great expulsion of Jews from a non-Jewish city in detail, and is worth quoting at length to gain insight into the events of the time:

"...[T]he Jews were continually factious; and there was added to their ordinary hatred of the Christians . . . Cyril, on being informed of this, sent for the principal Jews, and threatened them with the utmost severities unless they desisted from their molestation of the Christians. These menaces, instead of suppressing their violence, only rendered the Jewish populace more furious, and led them to form conspiracies for the destruction of the Christians, one of which was of so desperate a character as to cause their entire expulsion from Alexandria" (Socrates, *Hist. Eccl.,* VII, 13; PC, LXXXII, 759 ff).

Mesopotamia and Persia—Anti-Jewish Riot 40 AD

In 40 AD, an anti-Jewish riot broke out in the city of Seleucia on the Tigris River, in which a number of Jews were killed. The book of Esther in the Old Testament deals exclusively with a Persian anti-Jewish movement.

CICERO—OPPOSED JEWS IN ROME



Marcus Tullius Cicero (106 BC–43 BC), the famous Roman philosopher and statesman, was one of many Romans who spoke out against the Jewish presence in Rome. His Pro Flacco *oration in particular, contained a virulent denunciation of Jews.*

The Romans and Jews

It was in Imperial Rome that the very first Jewish community in Europe was formally established in 139 BC. It was not long before Roman opinion was roused against them. The famous orator Cicero, among others, frequently spoke against the presence of Jews during sittings of the Roman senate.

In his famous *Pro Flacco* oration (which dealt with the case of a Roman aristocrat, Lucius Valerius Flaccus, accused of unlawfully confiscating Jewish money), Cicero said: “Now let us take a look at the Jews and their mania for gold. You chose this site, [chief prosecutor] Laelius, and the crowd which frequents it, with an eye to this particular accusation, knowing very well that Jews with their large numbers and tendency to act as a clique are valuable supporters to have at any kind of public meeting.”

Many other prominent and famous Romans, such as Seneca, Juneval, and Tacitus all went on record as complaining about the activities of Jews within the Roman Empire. The Roman historian Tacitus, in his most famous work, *Histories,* described the Jews as follows: “In order to secure the allegiance of his people in the future, Moses prescribed for them a novel religion quite different from those of the rest of mankind. Among the Jews all things are profane that we hold sacred; on the other hand they regard as permissible what seems to us immoral . . . The other practices of the Jews are sinister and revolting, and have entrenched themselves by their very wickedness. Wretches of the most abandoned kind who had no use for the religion of their fathers took to contributing dues and free-will offerings to swell the Jewish exchequer; and other reasons for their increasing wealth may be found in their stubborn loyalty and ready benevolence towards brother Jews.

“But the rest of the world they confront with the hatred reserved for enemies. They will not feed or intermarry with gentiles. Though a most lascivious people, the Jews avoid sexual intercourse with women of alien race. Among themselves nothing is barred. They have introduced the practice of circumcision to show that they are different from others.

“Proselytes to Jewry adopt the same practices, and the very first lesson they learn is to despise the gods, shed all feelings of patriotism, and consider parents, children, and brothers as readily expendable. However, the Jews see to it that their numbers increase . . . [T]he Jewish belief is paradoxical and degraded” (Tacitus, *Histories*, 5.2–5).

Anti-Jewish literature during Roman times was very widespread. One work by the Greek, Apion, was so well-known that the Romanized Jewish historian Josephus (who wrote the famous account of the Jewish uprising of 70 AD, called *The Jewish Wars*) wrote an entire book trying to refute Apion’s arguments.

The Roman Emperor Tiberius formally expelled the Jews from Rome in 19 AD. They returned shortly thereafter, only to be expelled once again in 49 AD. In 116 AD, Emperor Trajan ordered that all Jews in Mesopotamia should be killed, saying that they were the cause of continual uprisings in that region.

The Great Revolt of 66 AD

After the Romans had been invited to annex Palestine by Jewish leaders in an attempt to quell internal political dissension, Jewish nationalists launched a long running war against the Roman rulers of Palestine. In 66 AD, a violent insurrection, led by the Zealots, a fanatical Jewish sect, was launched against Roman authority. Emperor Nero sent the Roman general Vespian and a legion to put an end to the conflict. By 70 AD, the revolt had been crushed and Jerusalem was razed.

The Roman emperor Publius Aelius Hadrianus (or Hadrian, as he is better known) ordered Jerusalem rebuilt as a pagan city, called Aelia Capitolina, in honor of Jupiter and himself. At the same time, he issued an edict banning circumcision, a practice which had become popular among Romans trying to imitate Jews.

Jewish nationalists continued their agitation against Roman rule under a new leader, Simon bar Kokhba, and a three-year-long struggle erupted in 132 AD. As punishment, the victorious Romans then attempted to obliterate all Jewish presence in the province. The land's name was changed to Syria Palaestina, and Jerusalem was declared a non-Jewish city. The death penalty was decreed for any Jew who entered its gates.

One of the most famous emperors of the Eastern Roman Empire, Justinian (527–565 AD), adopted a comprehensive anti-Jewish policy which barred Jews from the civil service, military posts, and any other positions of influence in his government.

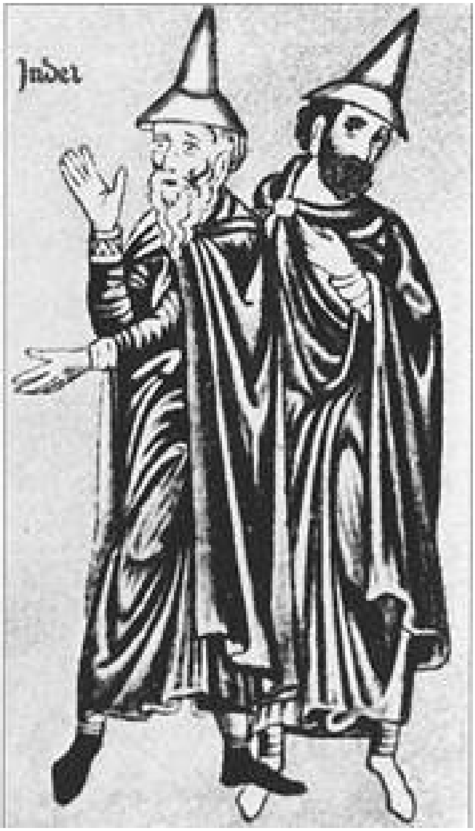
Christianity Condemns and Elevates Jews

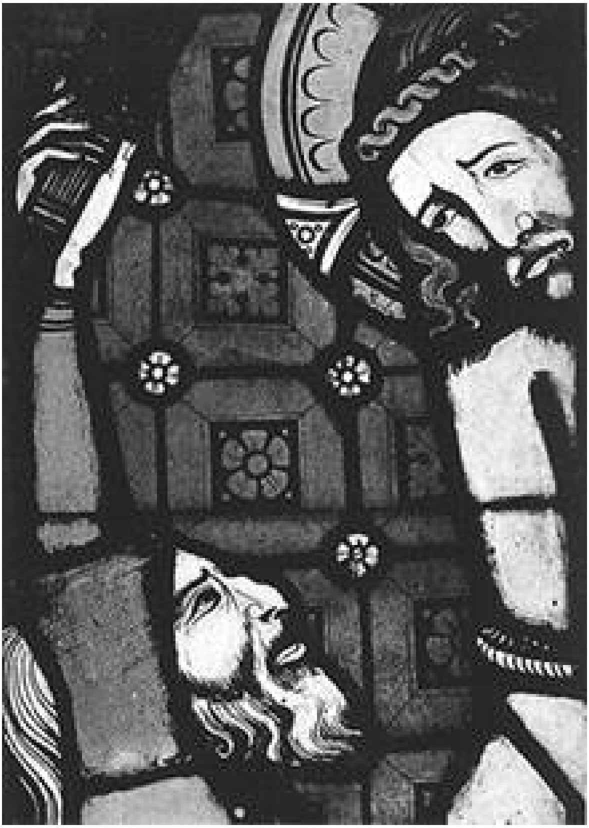
The coming of Christianity was a double-edged sword for the Jews. On the one hand it elevated them to a special place as the "Chosen People" or the "People of the Book," but on the other hand they were blamed for the death of Christ. Anti-Jewish Christians used this "Christ-killing" accusation—and other overtly anti-Semitic passages in the Bible—to further justify their beliefs. In Matthew 27:24–25, for example, the Roman governor of Palestine, Pontius Pilate, when refusing to have anything to do with the crucifixion of Christ, said that he was innocent of the "blood of this just person" and the Jews responded by saying, "his blood be on us, and our children." The Catholic Church only formally repudiated the charge that all Jews were responsible for the death of Christ at the Second Vatican Council (1962–1965).

In John 8:44, Jesus tells a group of Jews, "You are of your father, the devil, and you want to do the desires of your father." In John 1:47 Jesus says of a Jew named Nathanael, "behold an Israelite indeed, in whom there is no guile." The hostility between Judaism and

Christianity was however reciprocated. The Talmud contains many violently anti-Christian remarks, including claims that Jesus's mother was a whore and that he will be boiled in semen.

JEWS ORDERED TO WEAR DISTINCTIVE CLOTHING BY POPE INNOCENT II IN 1215





Pope Innocent II's Fourth Lateran Council of 1215 ordered that Jews "whether men or women, must in all Christian countries distinguish themselves from the rest of the population in public places by a special kind of clothing." The reason given for this was to prevent physical mixing. The papal order said that such clothing was necessary so that "henceforth in case of such criminal intercourse no mistake can be alleged as an excuse." In November 1215, a papal bull gave these decisions of the council the force of canon law. The bull confined itself merely to ordering the distinguishing mark and the legislators of each country were left to execute the decree as they saw fit. In many countries, Jews were ordered to wear pointed hats, as in the thirteenth century illustration above. Two of Innocent's successors, popes Gregory IX and Innocent IV, repeatedly reminded rulers to pay strict attention to the requirement and to allow no exceptions to the wearing of badges. Above right: A detail from the window of the Minorite Church, Regensburg, Germany (1360), showing Christ on the cross being tortured by a Jew.

Islamic Tolerance of Judaism

The rise of Islam in the Middle East and its later violent spread along North Africa, Spain, and southeastern Europe, provided a major respite for the Jews, who entered into an informal partnership with the various Islamic powers. This period, known in Jewish history as the time of "Islamic Tolerance," was beneficial for Jews in Muslim-held territories—but it increased their unpopularity in all other areas of Europe. As a result, Jews and Muslims were regarded as one and the same, and this was the reason for the numerous violent attacks against Jews which accompanied the Crusades.

In 1215, the Fourth Lateran Council of the Roman Catholic Church, called by Pope Innocent III, proclaimed an official policy of restrictions and ordered all Jews to wear badges to distinguish them from the rest of the population. The Muslim conquest of Spain brought peace to the Spanish Jews, who came to occupy prominent positions as statesmen, physicians, financiers, and scholars. This era ended in the middle of the fifteenth century, when the Muslims were driven out.

Jews Favored by Islamic Invaders of Europe

After the decline of the Roman Empire, Jews settled in larger numbers in western Europe. Many Jews crossed from Africa into Iberia, followed closely by the Muslim Moors. Jews filled the highest positions in the Moorish caliphates of Granada in Spain, and owned one-third of all the real estate in Barcelona.

When the Moorish occupation of Spain came to an end, the Christian victors did not take kindly to what they (correctly) interpreted as Jewish collaboration with the Moors. This led to the Spanish Inquisition, which was primarily aimed at Jews who had falsely converted to Christianity in an attempt to escape Christian revenge attacks.

Finally, the Jews were formally expelled from Spain in 1492, the same year that Christopher Columbus set foot in the Americas.

Taking its lead from Spain, Portugal expelled all its Jews in 1497. Thousands of Spanish Jews migrated to southeastern Europe which had been seized by the Ottoman Turks. There they once again benefited from the Islamic toleration of Jews. The Turkish-occupied city of Constantinople became the site of the largest Jewish community in the world during the sixteenth century.

JEWS OFFERED REFUGE IN 1492 BY OTTOMAN TURKS

The Muslim Ottoman Empire formally offered Jews refuge after they were expelled from Spain in 1492. A large number of Jews took up the offer, and settled in Constantinople (today called Istanbul). Above, the entrance to the Ahrida Synagogue, located in Balat, which is still the "Jewish quarter" of Istanbul. The synagogue was originally built by Roman-iotes (Greek Jews) from the city of Ohrid in the Ottoman Empire (and now the Republic of Macedonia). The Jews who were expelled from Spain boosted the number of worshippers at the Ahrida Synagogue so that it became known as the center for all Spanish Jews. To the present day, Jews in the area still speak Ladino, the Judeo-Spanish dialect. As can be seen from the picture above, taken in 2010, the synagogue entrance is heavily fortified out of fear of attacks by Muslims, but this hostility only broke out after the advent of Zionism which displaced the Palestinians and arouse the ire of the Islamic world.

Jews and the Banking Profession

Jews became prominent in banking and moneylending in most European countries. The Jewish banker Aaron of Lincoln (circa 1125–1186) was the richest man in twelfth century Britain and his wealth exceeded that of the king. He was first mentioned in England's government records of 1166 as creditor of King Henry II.

Aaron of Lincoln's success was duplicated in other European nations, most notably by Jahudan Cavalleria and Benveniste da Porta in Aragon, Esmel de Ablitas in Navarre, and Nathan Official in France. All were listed as creditors to the royal treasuries.

This tradition has been carried through to the present day, and the emergence of international Jewish banking houses such as the House of Rothschild (established in Frankfurt), became a feature of European economic life.

At the same time, many of these leading Jews converted to Christianity, partly as an attempt to avoid anti-Jewish propaganda, and also to comply with European laws. For example, Benjamin Disraeli, a Jew who became British prime minister, converted to Christianity in 1868 as a considered political move. Karl Marx, author of *The Communist Manifesto,* was the son of a German Jewish rabbi who had converted to Christianity to practice law in Germany at a time when only Christians could take oath before a court.

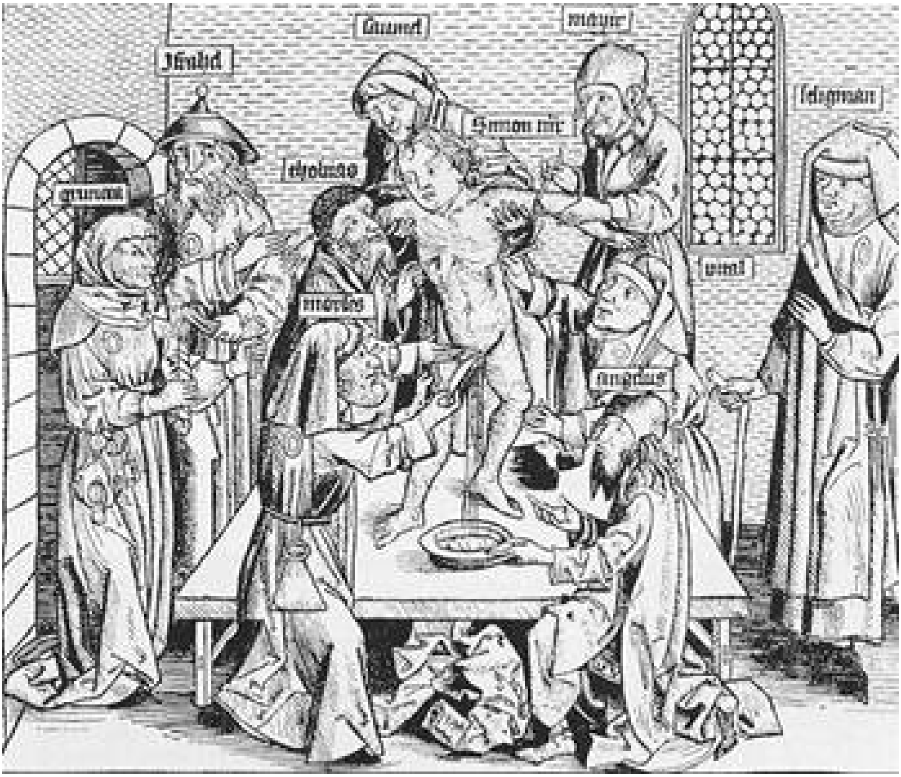
Jews Expelled from Austria, Italy, and Hungary

In 1420, all Jews in Austria were compelled by law to convert to Christianity. Those who refused were either killed or driven out. They were back within a few years, and in 1475 the Jews in Rinn and Linz were expelled after riots erupted in protest at their presence. In 1498, the city of Salzburg expelled all its Jews.

By 1670, a large number of Jews had settled in Austria once again, only to be expelled the same year. This pattern of expulsion and return would repeat itself many times over in different countries. Vienna’s most famous mayor, Karl Lueger, barred Jews from the city’s public service in 1887 and later segregated Jews from Austrians in the public school system.

In Italy, Jews were expelled from Trent in 1475, from Florence in 1495, from the Tyrol region in 1520, from Naples in 1541, and Milan in 1597. Hungary expelled its Jews in 1367.

RITUAL MURDER ACCUSATIONS AGAINST JEWS FLOURISH IN MEDIEVAL EUROPE



A woodcut of the alleged ritual murder by Jews of the Christian boy, Simon of Trent in 1453. Ritual murder accusations flourished in medieval Europe. These and similar allegations against Jews of "well poisoning," and of being responsible for the bubonic plague, can all be dismissed as without foundation.

Jews Expelled from England

Jews first entered England in large numbers with the Norman Conquest of 1066. There, Jews fell victim to the bizarre "Blood Libel" charge, which claimed that rabbis murdered young Christian children and drained their blood for use in rituals. Even though the allegation was patently false, the "Blood Libel" was so common that it featured in English writer Geoffrey Chaucer's famous *Canterbury Tales*.

At the time of the Third Crusade (1189–1190), there were anti-Jewish riots all over England. Jews in London were put on trial for ritual murder in 1238, 1244, and 1276. In 1290, King Edward I expelled all Jews. They were only allowed back into Britain in 1655 by Oliver Cromwell, who issued a special dispensation which granted them permission to settle.

Jews Expelled from France

Anti-Jewish riots broke out across France in 1096 at the time of the First Crusade. In the town of Blois, Jews were charged with ritual murder in 1171, and thirty-one of their number were burned at the stake after being found guilty.

The Fourth Crusade (1235–1236) provoked a violent massacre of a large number of Jews in the province of Brittany. Jews were expelled from the city of Carcassone in 1253, 1306, and 1394—although each time they came back. Jews were expelled from the province of Dauphine in 1253, although they had returned by 1289. Jews were expelled from the province of Gascony in 1391 and 1394. That same year, they were expelled from Brittany.

Jews were avid supporters of the 1789 French Revolution and were rewarded when the revolutionary National Assembly stripped all restrictions on Jews and enfranchised them in 1791. Napoleon Bonaparte was supported by many European Jews in his campaigns across Europe, as wherever he went, he lifted whatever restrictions had been placed upon them. This was good for the Jews while Napoleon was winning, but once he lost, they were associated with all the destruction he had wrought, and many of the liberal reforms were reversed. However, by the 1860s, most of the liberal reforms instituted in Europe regarding the Jews had been reinstated.

Jews Expelled from Germany

Jews were expelled from the city of Mainz in 1012. They had reestablished themselves by 1096, but were subjected to a massacre and anti-Jewish riot that year which coincided with the First Crusade.

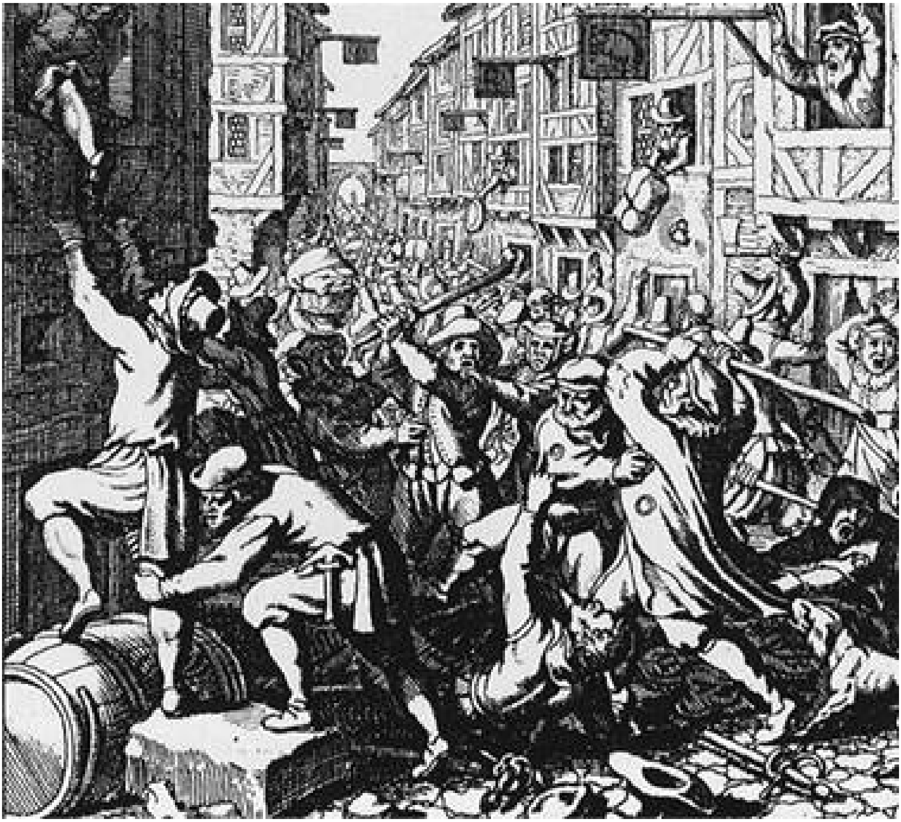
In 1221, anti-Jewish riots broke out in Erfurt, and in 1241, almost the entire Jewish community in Frankfurt was either killed or driven out. In Coblenz, anti-Jewish riots occurred in 1265, 1281, and 1287. Some 728 Jews were killed during an anti-Jewish riot in Nuremberg in 1298. From 1336 to 1339, a series of anti-Jewish riots known as the Armleder attacks took place in Alsace, Swabia, and Franconia.

Jews were expelled from Breslau, Nuremberg, and Rothenburg in 1349, Trier in 1418, Dusseldorf in 1428, and Mainz in 1438, 1462, and 1470. In 1448, Jews were accused of running a coin counterfeiting racket in Dresden and were expelled. In 1493, they were expelled from Halberstadt, and from Nuremburg once again in 1499.

Jews were expelled from Rothenburg for the second time in

1520. By 1594, Jews had reestablished themselves in Halberstadt, only to be expelled once again in that year. In 1614 Frankfurt again became the site of anti-Jewish riots, and in 1796, a large part of the Jewish neighborhood in that city was razed.

FRANKFURT JEWISH GHETTO ATTACKED IN 1647



The Frankfurt Jewish ghetto is attacked in 1614, one of many such events across Europe. During the time of the Crusades, these attacks occurred because of the association between Jews and Muslims, while at other times they centered on allegations of disreputable financial dealings.

The creation of the unified German Empire in 1871 saw an end to the organized pogroms in the individual German states. By this stage, however, the heavy Jewish involvement in Communism and international socialism had became the focus for anti-Jewish sentiment.

Jews Expelled from Poland

In 1399, anti-Jewish riots rocked the city of Posen. In 1407, anti-Jewish riots took place in Cracow, and in 1483, Jews were expelled from Warsaw. In 1491, Jews were expelled from Krakow and a series of anti-Jewish riots in Kalisch lasted for most of the fourteenth century. Finally, in 1656, the entire Jewish community in Kalisch was destroyed by a Polish army under the leadership of the Polish general Stefan Czarniecki. As a result, the unrest became known as the Czarniecki riots.

The city of Posen was rocked by further anti-Jewish riots in 1648, 1577, and 1687. Nonetheless, Poland became home to a large number of Jews, many of whom bore the brunt of the Nazi occupation of Poland during the Second World War.

Jews Expelled from Russia

In 1803, the Russian archduke, Yaroslav the Wise, conquered the Khazar people, who had become associated with Judaism after their leaders had converted to that religion. In 1563, anti-Jewish riots broke out in Polotosk and Vitelisk.

In 1648, Bogdan Chmielnicki headed a rebellion of Cossacks and Ukrainians against Jews and Polish landowners. Jewish estimates are that at least 744 Jewish communities were destroyed, and the attacks have come to be known as the Chmielnicki massacres. In 1667, Jews were expelled from the Ukraine.

Jews were expelled from Russia three times, in 1727, 1738, and 1742. By 1762, they were back, and Catherine the Great of Russia ordered them expelled once again. Nearly thirty years later, in 1791, Jews were restricted to an area known as the Pale of Settlement, which lay on the Polish-Russian border.

Tsar Alexander I expelled twenty thousand Jews from the cities of Vitebsk and Mohilev in 1824. In 1881, a series of anti-Jewish riots spread across Russia and all of Eastern Europe. In 1891, anti-Jewish riots took place in Moscow which led to the expulsion of Jews from that city in that year.

In the aftermath of the unsuccessful 1905 revolution in Russia —in which a large number of Jews had participated—some six hundred villages and cities drove out their Jewish inhabitants. Hundreds of thousands of Jews fled, either to western Europe or the United States.

In 1903, a publication called *The Protocols of the Learned Elders of Zion* first appeared. This document claimed to be the minutes of a meeting of Jewish elders who planned world domination through the use of war, money, and control of the media. *The Protocols* were an obvious Orthodox Russian Christian fabrication, yet found traction among anti-Jewish circles in Russia and across the world. The long-standing and deeply-rooted anti-Jewish feeling among the Russian ruling class was one of the major reasons for the heavy Jewish involvement in the Communist Revolution of 1917, a phenomenon discussed in an earlier chapter of this book.

Jews in the United States

In 1780 (just after the American Revolution), the Jewish population of the colonies numbered around two thousand. By 1880, this had risen to an estimated 250,000. A few Jews became prominent at the time of the American Civil War, with the most notable being Judah Benjamin, who was Secretary of State for the Confederacy. He fled to England after the fall of the South, and was given refuge by British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli.

Jews Expelled from Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi

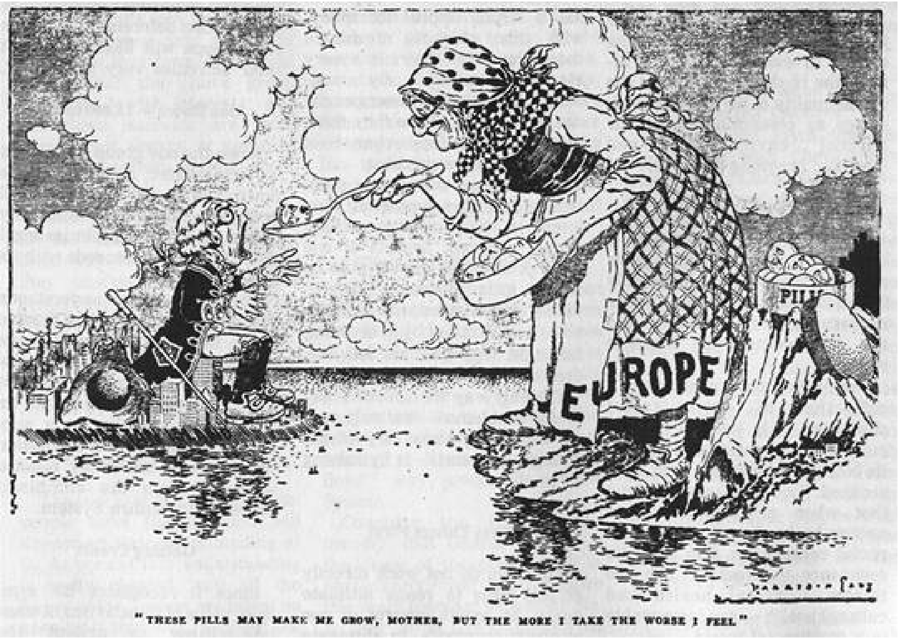
Jews were also expelled from the states of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi by General Ulysees S. Grant on December 17, 1862, during the American Civil War. His "General Order No. 11" was issued in an attempt to crack down on the Southern cotton black market.

Grant's order said that "The Jews, as a class violating every regulation of trade established by the Treasury Department and also department orders, are hereby expelled from the department [the "Department of the Tennessee," an administrative district of the Union Army of occupation composed of Kentucky, Tennessee, and Mississippi] within twenty-four hours from the receipt of this order.

"Post commanders will see to it that all of this class of people be furnished passes and required to leave, and any one returning after such notification will be arrested and held in confinement until an opportunity occurs of sending them out as prisoners, unless furnished with permit from headquarters. No passes will be given these people to visit headquarters for the purpose of making personal application of trade permits."

There was an immediate outcry from prominent American Jews who appealed directly to President Abraham Lincoln to intervene. Lincoln ordered Grant to revoke General Order No. 11 early in January 1863. Grant's popularity among Americans remained undiminished, and he was later elected president.

LIFE MAGAZINE OF 1911 VOICES AMERICAN RESERVATION OVER JEWISH IMMIGRATION


EUROPE
PILL
"THESE PILLS MAY MAKE ME GROW, MOTHER, BUT THE MORE I TAKE THE WORSE I FEEL."

This cartoon, which appeared in the prestigious American magazine Life *of October 5, 1911, reflected a popular concern at the large number of Jews entering the US from Europe. The "child," America, is being fed Jewish pills by Mother Europe, and complains that "the more I take, the worse I feel." The fact that a cartoon like this could in appear a well-known mainstream magazine is an indication of the level of dissatisfaction over Jewish immigration to America. Note the caricature Jewish "pill."*

1920s US Immigration Laws

By 1920, some 2.5 million Jews from Eastern Europe had immigrated to America. This persuaded the US Congress to pass the 1921 and 1924 immigration acts, which closed off immigration from those countries with large Jewish populations. In response, Jews settled in large numbers in other regions such as Canada, South America (notably in Argentina), the Union of South Africa, and Palestine. The American policy of barring Jewish immigration was reversed after the Second World War when several million European Jews entered the US.

Anti-Zionism and Anti-Semitism

Zionism, the movement to create a homeland for Jews in Palestine, was created by Theodeor Herzl in 1897 in Switzerland. Zionism is an overtly racially-based movement, which defines Jews strictly by inheritance. This policy is still adhered to by the present-day state of Israel, which the Zionists succeeded in creating in 1948.

The end of the Second World War did not see an end to anti-Jewish agitation. In the Soviet Union (which ironically had largely been created by a clique of Communist Jews), anti-Zionist sentiment increased after the creation of the state of Israel. This occurred because many Soviet Communists saw the existence of Israel and Jewish loyalty toward it as a potential fifth column within the Soviet state.

There was justification for this concern, as Israel's famous "Law of Return" guarantees Israeli citizenship to any Jew providing they can prove a direct biological—in other words, racial—link to Judaism. In addition, Communism specifically rejected racial nationalism (a principle upon which Israel was—and still is—based).

The Soviet Union allied itself to the anti-Zionist movement, and attempted to build bridges with the Arab world. This attempt largely failed because of a traditional anti-Communist sentiment among Arabs, even though some of their states accepted Soviet aid because of their desire to wreak revenge on Israel for the expulsion of millions of Arabs from Palestine.

It would, however, be incorrect to claim, as many uninformed sources do, that the Soviet Union was anti-Jewish. Many Communist Jews were in the forefront of anti-Zionist activism and held prominent positions in Soviet society until the fall of Communism. The so-called "anti-Jewish persecutions" in the Soviet Union were in fact anti-Zionist. Only a small number of genuine anti-Jewish activities ever took place, and none were officially sanctioned by the Soviet state.

Jewish Influence in Postwar America and Europe

The end of the Second World War saw the last of any organized opposition to Jewish influence in America and Europe. Anti-Semites were silenced by the wave of propaganda which followed the discovery of the Nazi concentration camps. Since then, many European nations have introduced "anti-racist" laws which have made anti-Semitism a criminal offense.

Jewish influence in Western society is, however, no secret and is often openly discussed. Many of the mass media outlets of the US and Europe are owned, or heavily influenced, by Jewish groups. Thus, any criticism of Israel's treatment of the Palestinians or of the racial nature of that state, is given little, if any coverage, in the West's media.

This situation has led to the deliberate suppression of news and information which is not supportive of Israel. The wider public is not informed of uncomfortable facts, with the most vivid example being the September 11, 2001 attacks on New York's World Trade Center and the Pentagon in Washington DC. These events were triggered exclusively by the unflagging support the US has given to Israel against the Palestinians, yet this is never mentioned in news coverage of the attacks.

The fact that the US (and many other European nations) continues to support Israel at any cost (including the deaths of thousands of its own citizens) is the surest evidence yet of the power of the Jewish lobby in both the mass media and in the corridors of power on both sides of the Atlantic.

SEPTEMBER 11, 2001—MUSLIM RETALIATION FOR AMERICAN SUPPORT OF ISRAEL

The attack on the World Trade Center, New York, September 11, 2001. The attack, by Muslims, was in retaliation for the support given to Israel by the US, whose foreign policy is heavily influenced by Zionist lobbies such as the American-Israel Public Affairs Committee (AIPAC). Such attacks will continue as long as the West's political processes are dominated by Jewish interest groups.

It is ironic, therefore, that one of the Jewish lobby's most successful efforts in America and Europe has been the encouragement of an "open borders" immigration policy. This has allowed millions of Third World immigrants—many from Arab or Muslim nations who are inherently hostile to Israel—to enter Europe and America.

This demographic racial sea change has resulted in the growth of a Third World-origin population in Western nations which is far more prone to anti-Zionist sentiment than the Europeans who they are replacing. The rise of modern anti-Semitism in Europe, for example, has been conclusively linked to the rising number of Muslim immigrants.

The cycle of Islamic terrorism against the West, which reached a highpoint with the attacks of September 11, 2001, will not be broken until the Zionist lobby's influence on Western politics is broken. If not, the West faces continued attacks from Islamists—at least until Third World immigrants form the majority populations in Europe and America.

CHAPTER 65: The Racial State—the Third Reich

The figure of Adolf Hitler towers over the twentieth century. He, and the state which he created, National Socialist Germany, remains one of the most controversial topics of contemporary history and can still command media and popular attention more than half a century later.

Despite all the intense scrutiny, it is difficult to obtain a source which presents an objective overview of Hitler and the Third Reich. A large amount of what has been written about Hitler and Nazi Germany has varied between outright lies and sycophantic (and distorted) praise—neither of which contribute to a proper understanding of the correct historical context of this time period. The reason for these distortions is that the Third Reich era still influences politics in the twenty-first century, and as a result, is the object of a large number of subjective opinions.

Adolf Hitler, unquestionably the single most popular politician in European history.

NSDAP
NSDAP

The faithful gather at the "Reich Party Day" at Buckberg, Schleswig Holstein, October 1933. In a referendum held after he came to power, Hitler polled over 99 percent approval from the German people, and their willingness to fight to the end for him showed that this result was not faked.

The Jesse Owens and the "Big Lie" Myths

Two examples of distortions which have entered the popular consciousness about Hitler are the story of the 1936 Olympics and the black American athlete Jesse Owens, and the equally famous story of the "Big Lie" technique.

It is often claimed that Hitler refused to shake Owens' hand after he had won a race at the 1936 Olympics, because the athlete was black. For example, the *Encarta Encyclopedia's* entry on Owens said that "Owens . . . [was] one of the greatest track-and-field athletes of all time . . . A member of the US track team in the 1936 Olympic Games, held in Berlin, Owens won four gold medals . . . Despite Owens' outstanding athletic performance, German leader Adolf Hitler refused to acknowledge his Olympic victories because Owens was black."

The reality was substantially different. Hitler attended the first day of the track-and-field events on August 2, 1936, and personally congratulated the German athlete Hans Woellke, who was the first German to win a gold medal in the Olympics since 1896. Throughout the rest of the day, Hitler received and congratulated all the event winners, German and non-German, in his VIP box.

The next day, August 3, the chairman of the International Olympic Committee, Comte Baillet-Latour, approached Hitler early in the morning and told the German leader that he had violated Olympic protocol by having winners paraded in his box. Hitler apologized and promised that he would from then on refrain from publicly congratulating any winners, German or otherwise. It was on this second day that Owens won his gold medals, and in line with the Olympic Committee's ruling, Hitler did not shake his hand, or anybody else's, at the games again. It is therefore false to claim that Hitler deliberately chose to ignore Owens.

In Owens' autobiography, *The Jesse Owens Story,* he recounted how Hitler had stood up and waved to him. "When I passed the Chancellor he arose, waved his hand at me, and I waved back at him. I think the writers showed bad taste in criticizing the man of the hour in Germany," wrote Owens. Ironically, the only person who refused to shake Owens' hand was American president Franklin D. Roosevelt. The president, involved in an election and concerned about winning the vote in southern states, refused to see Owens at the White House as was traditional for the American Olympic champions. Owens was later to remark that it was Roosevelt, not Hitler, who snubbed him. "The president didn't even send me a telegram," Owens wrote in his autobiography, adding that Hitler, on the other hand, sent the black athlete a commemorative inscribed cabinet photograph of himself.

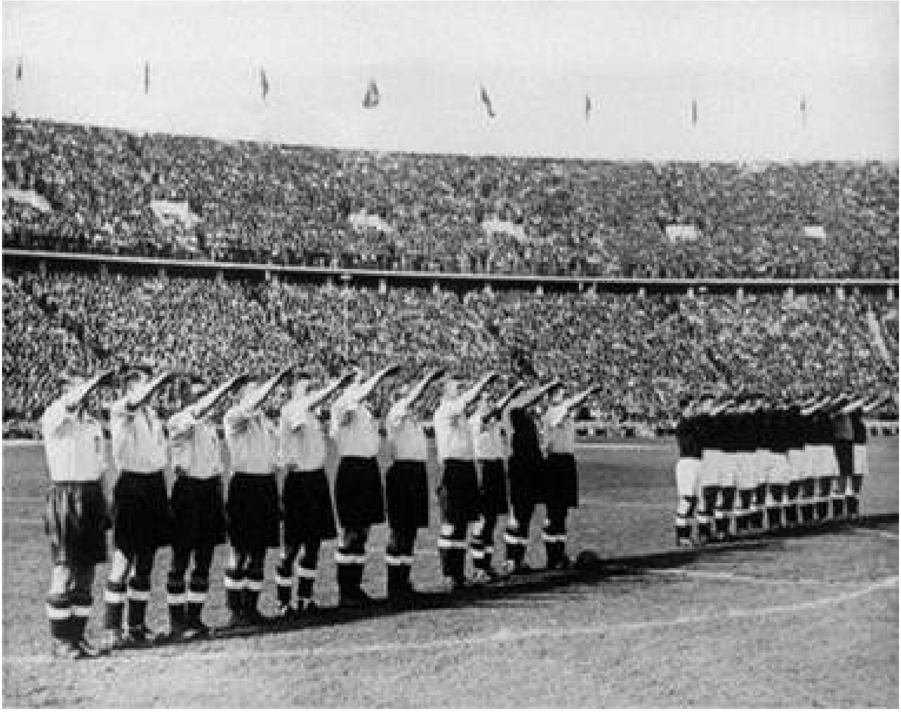
Another common allegation about the 1936 Olympic Games is that Owens' victory "disproved the Nazi master race theory." In fact, Germany won the Olympic Games with a total of eighty-nine medals, and the US came second with fifty-six.

The story about the "Big Lie" technique is yet another widely-believed distortion. The most common version of this story is that Hitler invented or advocated the principle "the bigger the lie, the more people will believe it." In fact, the truth is precisely the opposite, and Hitler actually warned people against the "Big Lie" technique, which, he said, was used by Jews.

The quotation comes from chapter ten of Hitler's book, *Mein Kampf,* where he wrote that the technique was used by Jews against the World War I German general Ludendorff: "But it remained for the Jews, with their unqualified capacity for falsehood, and their fighting comrades, the Marxists, to impute responsibility for the downfall [of

Germany in WWI] precisely to the man who alone had shown a superhuman will and energy in his effort to prevent the catastrophe which he had foreseen and to save the nation from that hour of complete overthrow and shame. By placing responsibility for the loss of the world war on the shoulders of Ludendorff they took away the weapon of moral right from the only adversary dangerous enough to be likely to succeed in bringing the betrayers of the Fatherland to Justice. All this was inspired by the principle—which is quite true in itself—that in the big lie there is always a certain force of credibility; because the broad masses of a nation are always more easily corrupted in the deeper strata of their emotional nature than consciously or voluntarily, and thus in the primitive simplicity of their minds they more readily fall victims to the big lie than the small lie, since they themselves often tell small lies in little matters but would be ashamed to resort to large-scale falsehoods. It would never come into their heads to fabricate colossal untruths, and they would not believe that others could have the impudence to distort the truth so infamously" (*Mein Kampf,* Chapter X, Adolf Hitler).

ENGLISH SOCCER TEAM AT 1936 OLYMPICS



Hidden by all the false propaganda about Jesse Owens and the 1936 Berlin Olympics is the reality that many of the competing teams were overawed by Hitler's Germany and enthusiastically supported it. Above, the English *soccer team greets the crowd with Nazi salutes before kickoff.*

Nazis Suppress Democracy

It is also claimed that Hitler “subverted democracy.” This is an allegation which is most certainly true, except for the fact that there was never any pretense over this matter. The Nazi Party openly abhorred democracy and aimed to replace it with the “leadership principle” which it claimed was in line with the natural order of the world. Resultantly, as soon as the Nazis came to power, they implemented a program which resulted in the imposition of a one-party state.

One month after Hitler came to power, a Dutch Communist, Marinus van der Lubbe, assisted by three other men, set fire to the Reichstag building in Berlin. The Nazis used the arson attack to pass a law, the Enabling Act, which turned Germany into a legal dictatorship. By the end of June 1933, all other parties had been banned or had dissolved themselves. On July 14, 1933, the Reichstag passed a law which turned the Nazi Party into Germany’s only legal political party.

The Reichstag became little more than a rubber stamp for Nazi Party decisions, and the German voters were allowed to vote in referenda on set issues which only required “yes” or “no” votes. In each case, the voters returned over 98 percent endorsements for whatever the government had done. This anti-democratic drive extended to the press and freedom of speech as well. Newspapers were placed under state, or state-sympathetic, control. One of the most interesting examples of this control was, ironically, provided with the case of the famous anti-Semitic broadsheet *Der Stürmer,* printed by Nazi Party member Julius Streicher. Hermann Göring outlawed *Der Stürmer* in East Prussia (where he was state premier) and the leader of the Hitler Youth, Baldur von Schirach, banned the newspaper within his organization.

In addition, literature and art deemed to be undesirable were placed on a banned index. The famous book burning incident occurred only once—after that, such books were simply not printed in Germany.

Although the suppression of free speech and freedom of the press were characteristic of Nazi Germany, there are in reality almost no countries, even to the present day, which have complete freedoms. In most present-day European nations, for example, there are laws which make it a criminal offense to discuss racially related topics.

Hitler Elected to Office

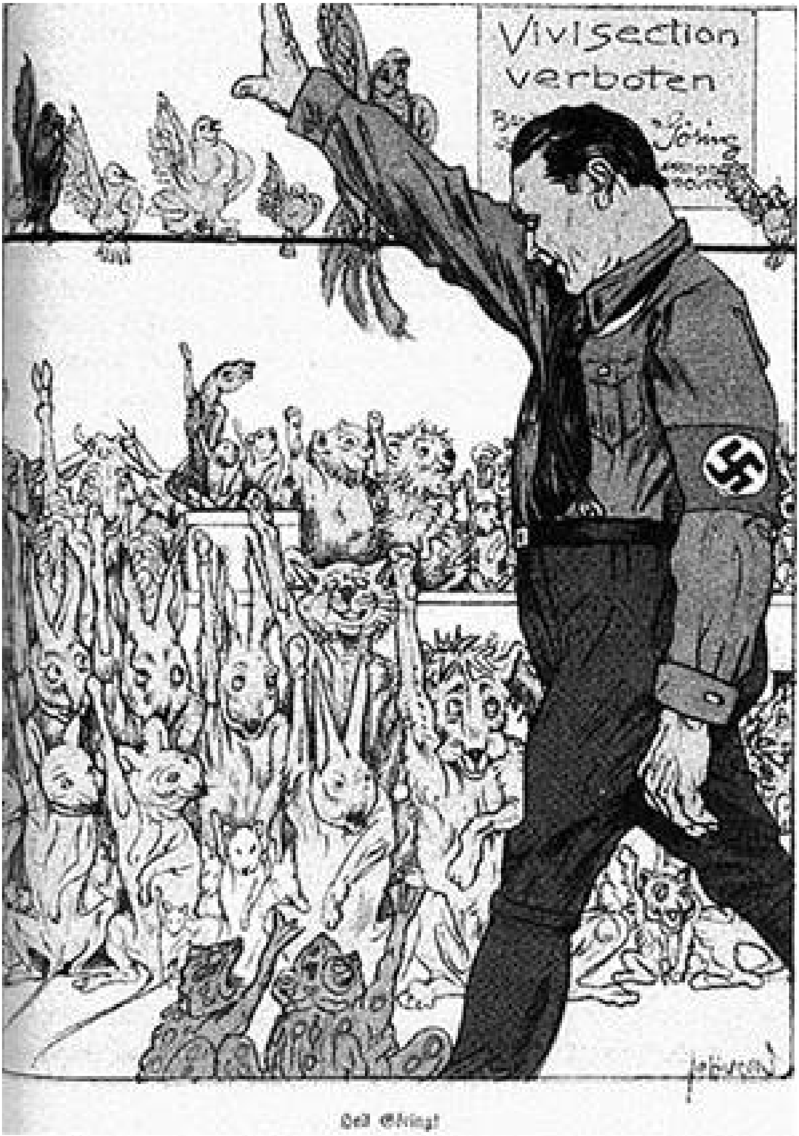
It was thus ironic that Hitler came to power by being voted into office. In the election of March 1933, the Nazi Party received the single largest share of the vote, with 44 percent of the seats in the German Reichstag, or parliament. Hitler entered into a coalition with a number of smaller nationalist and right-wing parties, and thereby achieved a bare majority. These smaller parties were to later merge with the Nazi Party of their own free will.

Once in power, the Nazis combined their mastery of propaganda with an extended program of political and social reform. Within three years, this had persuaded the vast majority of Germans to support Hitler. Upon taking office in 1933, Hitler asked the Germans for four years in office, after which, he said, a referendum would be held to test the popularity of his government.

This referendum was duly held in 1938 with the question, “Do you approve of the National Socialist Government or not?” The result was a staggering 44,461,278 “yes” votes, or 98.8 percent of the number of voters. “No” votes amounted to 540,211.

This result could not have been produced through mass intimidation, and represented a level of support which was breathtaking by any standard. Hitler’s personal popularity remained very high for almost the entire war, and was the single most important reason why Germans fought to the bitter end without large-scale mutinies (as had happened in the First World War). This was even more amazing when it is considered that the Nazi state was strictly authoritarian.

NAZIS OUTLAW ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION



Heil Goring! The lab animals of Germany salute Hermann Goring for his order banning vivisection. In August 1933, the reichsmarschall announced an end to the "unbearable torture and suffering in animal experiments" and threatened to commit to concentration camps "those who still think they can treat animals as inanimate property."

Vivisection Outlawed

One of the very first laws passed by the Nazi-controlled parliament of East Prussia in 1933 was the abolition of vivisection, or experimentation on animals. This law also banned shechita, which is the Jewish form of animal slaughter whereby meat is made kosher.

The method of slaughter (in which the animal’s throat is slit so that it bleeds to death while a rabbi prays over the scene) was rejected by the Nazis as barbaric and inflicting unnecessary pain. This anti-vivisection law was soon extended throughout Germany.

Nazi Germany also forbade the use of the pesticide DDT on the grounds that it was a health hazard (it would be decades before this policy was adopted by other countries), and instead used a German produced version known as Cyclone-B (Zyklon-B).

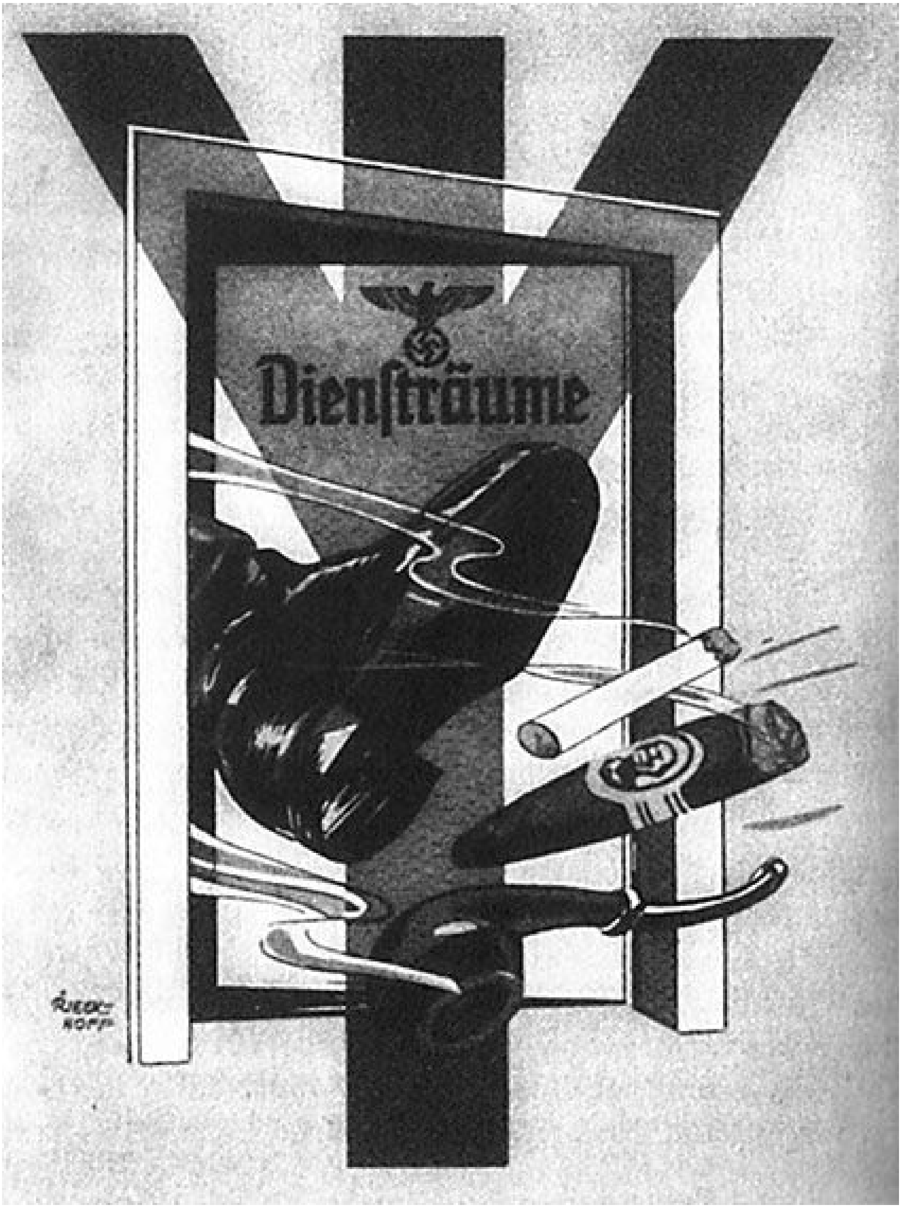
Nazi scientists were among the first to warn of the dangers of radiation, asbestos, lead, cadmium, and mercury. In addition, German medical journals of the 1930s and 1940s were the first to warn against the ill effects of artificial food colorants and preservatives in food and drinks. They also stressed the need for a return to “organic” or natural ingredients in pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, fertilizers, and foods.

Hitler Backed Anti-Smoking Drive

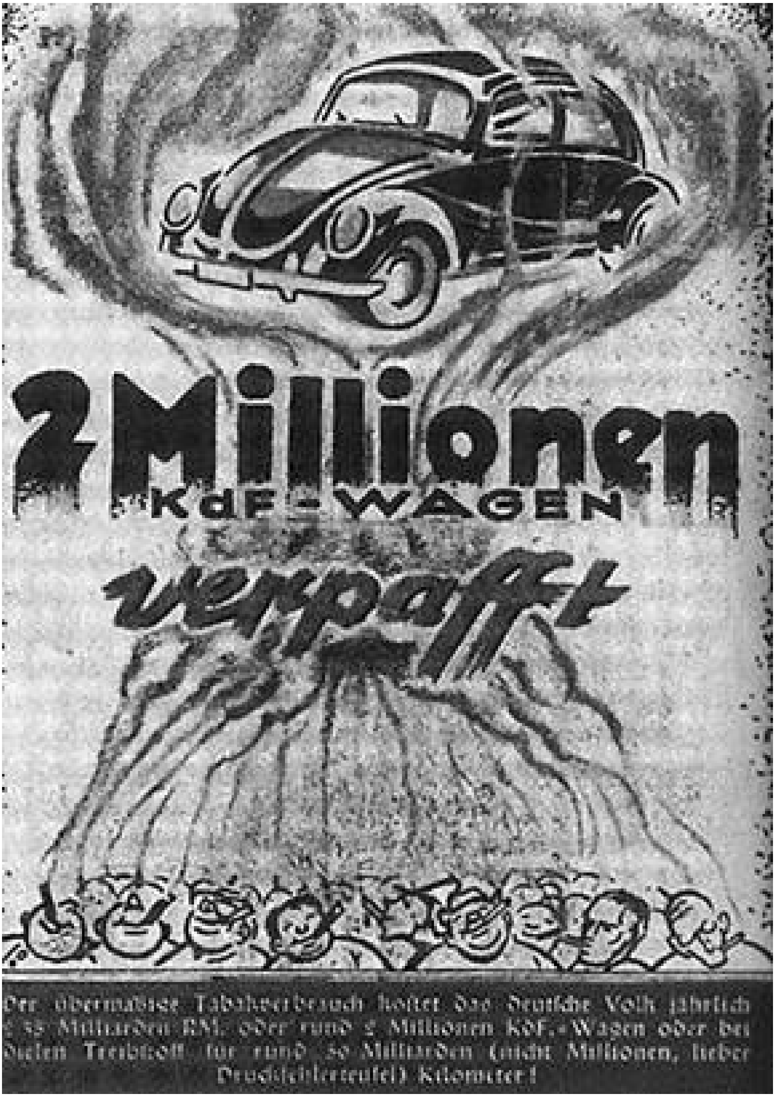
Nazi Germany was also the world’s first government to actively campaign against smoking. In July 1939, the Bureau against the Dangers of Alcohol and Tobacco was founded, and the Reich Health Office sponsored cash prizes for research into the effects of nicotine upon human chromosomes.

In June 1942, Hitler personally funded the Institute for the Struggle against Tobacco at the University of Jena in Saxony with 100,000 reichsmarks of his own money (the German leader was a millionaire from the sale of his book, *Mein Kampf*). In 1944, Germany became the first country in the world to ban smoking on public transport.

NAZI WAR ON SMOKING—YEARS AHEAD OF ITS TIME



The Nazi Party banned smoking in many public places, including party offices, waiting rooms, and in 1944, on public transport. Above: Nazi anti-tobacco activists tried to associate smoking as something not done by Germans. Note the Negroid head on the cigar.


2 Millionen
KdF-WAGEN
verpafft
Der übermäßige Tabakverbrauch kostet das Deutsche Volk jährlich 2½ Milliarden RM. oder rund 2 Millionen KdF.-Wagen oder bei diesem Treibstoff für rund 50 Milliarden (nicht Millionen, lieber Druckfehlerteufel) Kilometer!

A poster which pointed out that Germans smoked the financial equivalent of two million Volkswagens per year.

Nazis Discourage Alcohol Abuse

In 1937, the Nazis enacted the world's first laws which prohibited the sale of alcohol to minors and enacted stiff penalties for drunken driving. They also introduced the first blood tests for automobile drivers suspected of driving under the influence of alcohol.

As part of the state's efforts to control alcohol consumption, the SS promoted the production and consumption of mineral water.

The SS's business interests expanded considerably so that by 1945, it controlled 75 percent of all mineral water production in Germany.

Economic Reforms Transform Economy

When Hitler came to power in 1933, the unemployment rate stood at 30 percent. By 1938, Germany had a shortage of labor.

This economic recovery was achieved not by "rearming Germany" as some propagandists have claimed, but rather by reforming and reinvigorating the German economy. The unemployment problem was also tackled by the creation of great building projects, most notably Hitler's pet project, the autobahns.

Among the many reforms was one which antagonized the international banking community. Nazi Germany's economy was based on a barter system, through which German surplus goods were exchanged for what was needed from other countries—in common language, by swapping. This replaced the previous system of government funding through enormous loans from foreign and local banks, and had the practical effect of reducing the German government's dependency on the vagaries of international finance.

Hitler also abandoned the gold standard as a means of weighting the reichsmark. Money in Nazi Germany was not based on gold but on the capacity of the German people to produce goods.

Hitler said in 1937: "We were not foolish enough to try to make a currency coverage of gold of which we had none, but for every mark that was issued we required the equivalent of a mark's worth of work done or goods produced . . . we laugh at the time our national financiers held the view that the value of a currency is regulated by the gold and securities lying in the vaults of a state bank."

Workers' Rights and Benefits

Labor unions were dissolved and reformed under the authority of the state-controlled Labor Front. It became illegal to strike and for management to lock workers out, and the state actively intervened in labor disputes.

The economic upturn increased the average standard of living, and working-class Germans were (for the first time ever) able to travel abroad in state-sponsored holidays through a program known as "Strength through Joy."

Children were obligated to serve in the Hitler Youth (or its female equivalent) as a form of national service. The meetings of these youth organizations were timed to be on Sundays at exactly the times that the main churches held their services. Soon the pews began to empty of young people who preferred to go camping, shooting, or playing sport.

Nazi Atomic Science

Another common myth about Nazi Germany is that the country was not able to build an atomic bomb of its own because it rejected the "Jewish science" of Albert Einstein and other Jewish scientists. This allegation was proven false with the release in 1999 of previously top secret files on the Nazi atomic bomb project which were made available in the Munich state museum. The papers, which contain research notes by famous German physicists such as Werner Heisenberg and Otto Hahn, show that German research into the atomic bomb was parallel with efforts in the United States, and that the only reason the Third Reich had not built an atom bomb by 1945 was due to the Allied carpet bombing campaign which had disrupted the supply of raw materials. One of the documents is a November 1945 report by two US investigators which says that "only the lack of plutonium" kept Germany from completing an atomic bomb.

If the Allied bombing campaign had been any less severe, there can be no doubt that Nazi Germany would have been able to field nuclear weapons before the Americans.

Hitler and Christianity

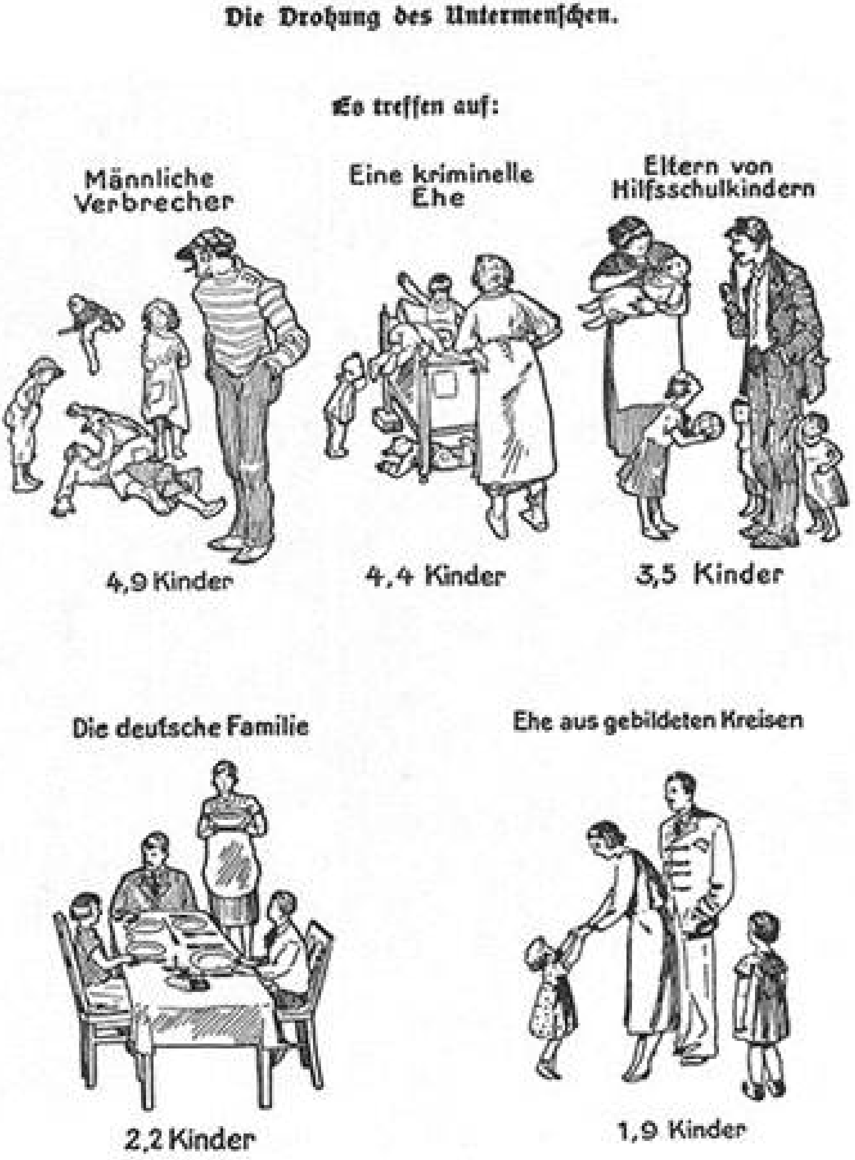
Contrary to popular belief, Hitler and the inner core of the Nazi party were not Christians. In public, Hitler accepted or even praised Christianity, but in private, he detested religion, as a reading of his personal dinner table chat recorded by Martin Borman, and published as *Hitler's Table Talk,* reveals.

Of Christianity, Hitler said: "The heaviest blow that ever struck humanity was the coming of Christianity. Bolshevism is Christianity's illegitimate child. Both are inventions of the Jew. The deliberate lie in the matter of religion was introduced into the world by Christianity.

"Bolshevism practices a lie of the same nature, when it claims to bring liberty to men, whereas in reality it seeks only to enslave them. In the ancient world, the relations between men and gods were founded on an instinctive respect. It was a world enlightened by the idea of tolerance. Christianity was the first creed in the world to exterminate its adversaries in the name of love. Its keynote is intolerance.

“Without Christianity, we should not have had Islam. The Roman Empire, under Germanic influence, would have developed in the direction of world-domination, and humanity would not have extinguished fifteen centuries of civilization at a single stroke. Let it not be said that Christianity brought man the life of the soul, for that evolution was in the natural order of things. Christianity is a rebellion against natural law, a protest against nature. Taken to its logical extreme, Christianity would mean the systematic cultivation of the human failure” (*Hitler’s Table Talk,* 1941–1944, Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1953, p 7).

“UNTERMENSCH” REFERRED TO DEGENERATE GERMANS, AND NOT TO OTHER RACES


Die Drohung des Untermenſchen.
Es treffen auf:
Männliche Verbrecher
4,9 Kinder
Eine kriminelle Ehe
4,4 Kinder
Eltern von Hilfsschulkindern
3,5 Kinder
Die deutsche Familie
2,2 Kinder
Ehe aus gebildeten Kreisen
1,9 Kinder

Nazi eugenics was primarily concerned with German whites, not other races. The word Untermensch (or under-man) was actually used to refer to degenerate whites, as this illustration from the 1937 publication Volk in Gefahr ("A People in Danger") *shows. The illustration deals with the issue of criminality among degenerate Germans in this way: "The Threat of the Untermensch (Under-man). Male criminals have an average of 4.9 children; a marriage of criminals has 4.4 children; parents of slow learners have an average of 3.5 children; a [healthy] German family has an average of 2.2 children; and a marriage from the educated circles has on* *average 1.9 children." The Nazis were, therefore, primarily concerned with preventing degenerate whites from overwhelming society.*

The Racial State

It is also often claimed that Nazi Germany's racial policies consisted of wishing to breed a "master race" of blue-eyed blond people. Leading Nazi-era racial theorists, such as Hans F. K. Günther, however, were well aware that the majority of Germany's population were not of the classic Nordic racial type, but rather a mixture of Nordic, Alpine, and other influences.

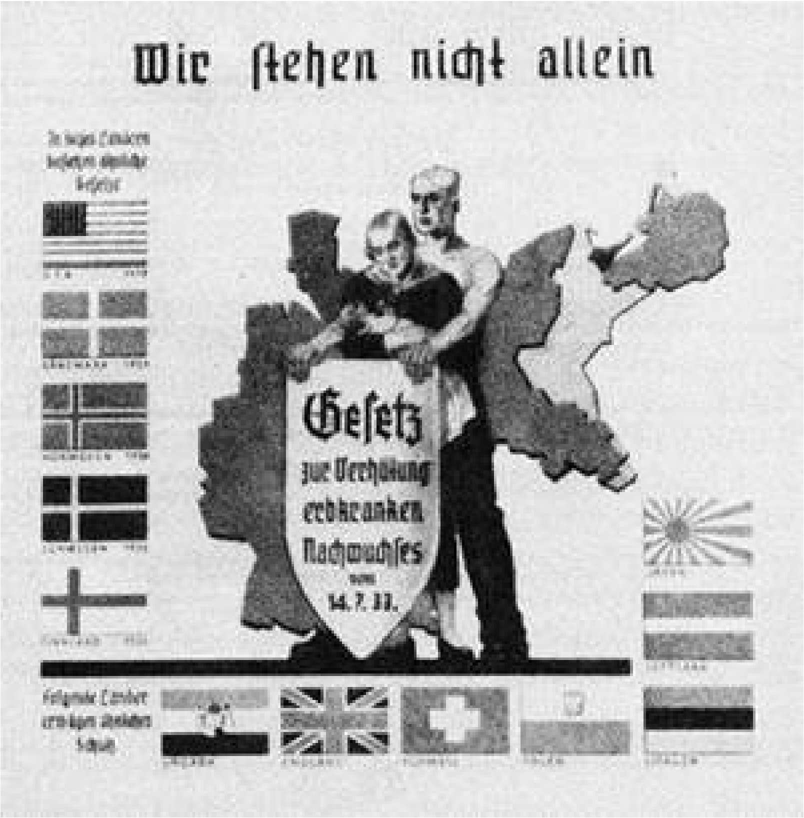
Hitler personally was a prime example of this "average" German. The American writer T. Lothrop Stoddard (who was granted a personal interview with the German leader in December 1939) provided the only English-language firsthand description of Hitler as follows: "There are certain details of Hitler's appearance which one cannot surmise from photographs. His complexion is medium, with blond brown hair of neutral shade which shows no signs of gray. His eyes are very dark blue" (*Into the Darkness, Nazi Germany Today,* T. Lothrop Stoddard, New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, Inc., 1940).

Nonetheless, it is true that under the influence of Nordicists such as Günther, certain Nazi officials held out the hope that through a process of what they called "racial regeneration," German society would become increasingly Nordic, hence the "master race" claim.

The Nordic racial type often assumed an abstract notion rather than a racial reality in Nazi literature. Hitler preferred to use the term "Aryan" to describe Europeans (his most important writing on race, Chapter eleven of *Mein Kampf,* called "Race and Nation," never uses the word "Nordic"). There was, of course, no detailed definition of what comprised an "Aryan" (probably because there was not really such a race. The original Aryans were a tribe of Indo-Europeans who occupied northern India and Afghanistan in ancient times, and not a distinct race by themselves).

These theoretical issues aside, the Nazi state introduced a range of racial laws which were designed to prevent admixture from non-European sources and to improve the racial stock of Germany.

NAZI GERMANY NOT ONLY COUNTRY WITH STERILIZATION LAW


Wir ſtehen nicht allein
Geſetz zur Verhütung erbkranken Nachwuchſes vom 14.7.33.

“We do not stand alone”—Nazi propaganda justifying the 1934 sterilization law, shows a German couple surrounded by the flags of nations which already had identical laws.

Sterilization Law

On July 14, 1934, the German government passed the law for the Prevention of Genetically Diseased Offspring, also known as the Sterilization Law. In terms of this law, an individual could be sterilized if, in the opinion of specially established courts, that person suffered from any genetic diseases, identified as feeblemindedness, schizophrenia, insanity, genetic epilepsy, Huntington’s chorea, genetic blindness or deafness, or severe alcoholism. It was only in the early 1990s that American scientists “rediscovered” the genetic link to alcoholism.

This law, for which Nazi Germany became infamous, was by no means the first such regulation in the West. The Swiss canton of Waadt had passed a law in 1928 in terms of which the mentally ill could be sterilized. Denmark had passed similar legislation in 1929, Norway in 1934, Sweden and Finland in 1935, Estonia in 1936, and

Iceland in 1938. Other nations which also had sterilization laws included Mexico, Cuba, Latvia, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Lithuania, Latvia, and Hungary.

In America, the state of Indiana passed a sterilization law in 1907, and by 1930, a further twenty-eight US states and one province in Canada had followed suit. This resulted in the sterilization of some fifteen thousand mentally ill people in America before 1930, a total which rose to more than thirty thousand by 1939.

In 1930, the women's supplement to the anti-Nazi German Social Democratic Party's newspaper, *Vorwaarts,* criticized the 1929 Danish sterilization law for not requiring the compulsory sterilization of "inferiors." In 1931, even the German Communist Party supported sterilization of psychiatric patients under certain conditions.

German records show that, by 1945, just under 400,000 people (none of whom were Jews) were sterilized in Germany as a result of the sterilization law. The only nonwhites to be sterilized were five hundred children born of sexual relationships between German women and black French soldiers who had been used to occupy the Rhineland area after World War I. The claim, therefore, that it was "only the Nazis" who sterilized the mentally ill, is yet another propaganda distortion. In reality, the Nazis were relative latecomers to the sterilization program.

The Mother's Cross

The Nazi government encouraged large families and, in imitation of the ancient Greek and Roman attempts to encourage population growth, introduced laws which rewarded people who had many children. These rewards took the form of financial payments and tax concessions.

In addition, a special Mother's Cross medal was struck, given in bronze to German women who had four children, silver for six children, and gold for eight. Hundreds of thousands of these medals were given out before the war ended.

A combination of these incentives and the abolition of abortions (except in cases of the mentally ill) caused an increase (over and above what would have been the case had Hitler not come to power) of just over three million in the number of children born in Germany during the Third Reich era.

The Nuremburg Laws

In September 1935, the German government passed the Reich Citizenship Law which limited citizenship of Germany to only those of “German and related blood who through their behavior make it evident that they are willing and able faithfully to serve the German people and nation.” Jews and other non-Germans were reclassified as aliens and denied German citizenship.

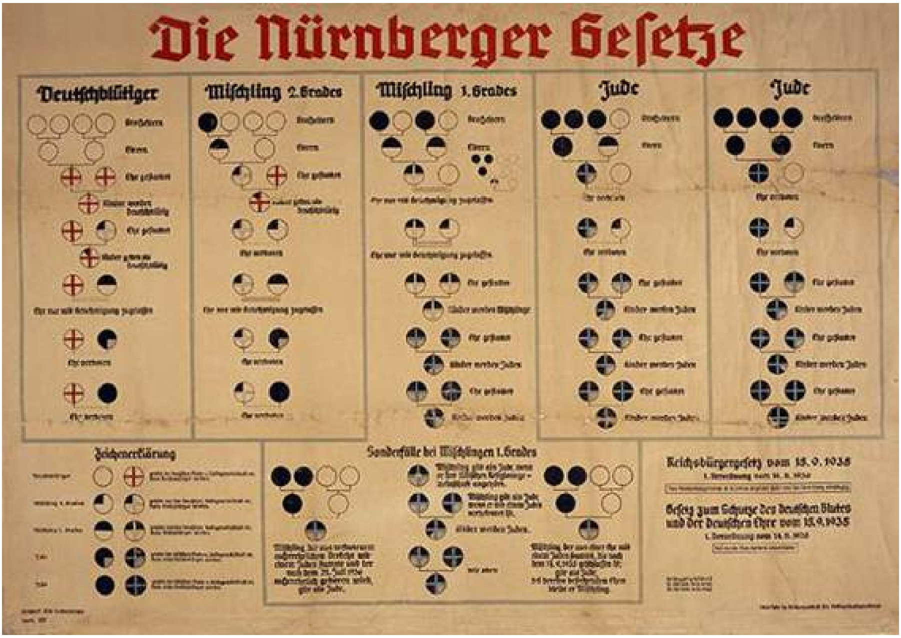
The Blood Protection Law, proclaimed on the same day, forbade all sexual relations between Germans and non-Germans, based on citizenship. It was these two laws which colloquially became known as the “Nuremburg Laws.”

To address the issue of already existing marriages and children, the law defined a Jew as a person who had two Jewish grandparents. Anything less than that and the person was classified as a German, and allowed to marry other Germans. This was a Nazi concession to the fact that many European Jews were to all practical purposes European in racial makeup.

The Blood Protection Law specifically forbade such “one quarter Jews” from marrying other “one quarter Jews”—this was done to promote the further dissolution of Jewish genes, and conversely to prevent the strengthening of any Jewish gene pool in Germany which might result from such unions.

Contrary to propaganda surrounding the Third Reich, many of these one quarter Jews served the new German government faithfully, in all areas of the Reich’s administration, including the armed forces, without persecution of any sort.

NUREMBURG LAWS DETERMINED RACIAL ANCESTRY


Die Nürnberger Geſetze
Deutſchblütiger
Miſchling 2. Grades
Miſchling 1. Grades
Jude
Jude
Zeichenerklärung
Sonderfälle bei Miſchlingen 1. Grades
Reichsbürgergeſetz vom 15.9.1935
Geſetz zum Schutze des deutſchen Blutes und der deutſchen Ehre vom 15.9.1935

*The Nuremburg Laws classified a person as Jewish if they had more than one Jewish grandparent. This chart, issued by the Reich Health Office in 1936, is an overview of "admissibility of marriage between Aryans and non-Aryans." The white circles represent "pure Germans;" the circles with black indicate the proportion of Jewish blood. Allowable (*zulassig*) was a marriage between a full German and a one-quarter Jew; not allowed (*verboten*) was a marriage between a one quarter Jew and a three quarters Jew. The latter was an example of how the Nazis actually sought to assimilate part-Jews into Germany. The law was drawn up with the support and cooperation of the pro-Zionist Council of German Jews, who shared a common aim with the Nazis in that they also wanted the Jews to leave.*

Zionist Support for Nazi Racial Laws

It was not without irony that the Nuremburg Laws were drawn up in consultation with, and approval from, the German Council of Jews, particularly those in favor of the Zionist movement who wanted Jews to leave Europe to settle in Palestine.

Soon after the Nazis came to power, the Zionist Federation of Germany submitted a document to Hitler's office which offered its support in "solving the Jewish question" (Memo of June 21, 1933, as reproduced in *The Third Reich and the Palestine Question,* Francis R. Nicosia, Austin: University of Texas, 1985, p. 42).

The document continued: “Zionism believes that the rebirth of the national life of a people, which is now occurring in Germany through the emphasis on its Christian and national character, must also come about in the Jewish national group.

“Our acknowledgment of Jewish nationality provides for a clear and sincere relationship to the German people and its national and racial realities. Precisely because we do not wish to falsify these fundamentals, because we, too, are against mixed marriage and are for maintaining the purity of the Jewish group and reject any trespasses in the cultural domain, we—having been brought up in the German language and German culture—can show an interest in the works and values of German culture with admiration and internal sympathy” (*ibid.*).

When the Nuremburg Laws were first adopted by the Nazi Party at its congress of 1935, they were specifically welcomed by the Zionist-supporting Jewish German newspaper, the *Jüdische Rundschau,* which published an editorial which read: “Germany ... is meeting the demands of the World Zionist Congress when it declares the Jews now living in Germany to be a national minority. Once the Jews have been stamped a national minority it is again possible to establish normal relations between the German nation and Jewry.

“The new laws give the Jewish minority in Germany its own cultural life, its own national life. In future it will be able to shape its own schools, its own theater, and its own sports associations. In short, it can create its own future in all aspects of national life.

“Germany has given the Jewish minority the opportunity to live for itself, and is offering state protection for this separate life of the Jewish minority: Jewry’s process of growth into a nation will thereby be encouraged and a contribution will be made to the establishment of more tolerable relations between the two nations” (*Jüdische Rundschau,* Sept. 17, 1935).

The head of the Zionist State Organization, the Jewish Cultural League, and former head of the Berlin Jewish Community, Georg Kareski, declared in an interview with the Nazi newspaper *Der Angriff* that “For many years I have regarded a complete separation of the cultural affairs of the two peoples [Jews and Germans] as a pre-condition for living together without conflict . . . I have long supported such a separation, provided it is founded on respect for the alien nationality. The Nuremberg Laws . . . seem to me, apart from their legal provisions, to conform entirely with this desire for a separate life based on mutual respect . . . This interruption of the process of dissolution in many Jewish communities, which had been promoted through mixed marriages, is therefore, from a Jewish point of view, entirely welcome" (*Der Angriff,* Dec. 23, 1935).

The large measure of Jewish support for the provisions of the Nuremburg Laws is deliberately covered up by most present-day historians.

Haavara—the Transfer Agreement

The Transfer Agreement, also known by its Hebrew name, *Haavara*, was a formal agreement between the Nazi government and the World Zionist Organization signed in August 1933. In terms of this agreement, any Jew who wanted to emigrate to Palestine could deposit money in an account in Germany, which was overseen by the government and the Zionists.

This cash was used to purchase German-made agricultural tools, building materials, fertilizer, and other goods, which were then exported to Palestine and sold by the Jewish-owned Haavara Company in Tel Aviv. Proceeds from the sales of these goods were then provided to the emigrant Jews upon their arrival in Palestine.

Jewish Underground in Palestine Offered Military Alliance with Nazis

The British, who controlled Palestine after World War I, realized that a Jewish state would result in the dispossession of the Arabs in the region and had reneged on the 1917 Balfour Declaration which promised support for a Jewish homeland in the Middle East.

The Zionist movement then set up an underground resistance movement, dedicated to driving the Arabs and the British out of Palestine. The most prominent of these Zionist underground factions was called Lehi, better known as the "Stern Gang" after its leader Yair Stern. (Another famous member of Lehi was Yitzhak Shamir, who later became prime minister of Israel.) In December 1940, Lehi contacted Germany with a proposal to aid German conquest in the Middle East in return for recognition of a Jewish state (*The Land Beyond Promise: Israel, Likud and the Zionist Dream,* Colin Shindler, 1995, I.B. Tauris, p. 22). The proposal, made by Lehi's representative, Naftali Lubenchik, to the German embassy in Beirut, offered Jewish help in spying on British troop movements in the Middle East and the sabotage of the Allied army installations.

Finally, Lehi said, it would raise an army of forty thousand Jews from Europe, who, with German assistance, would descend on Palestine to drive the British out. All the Germans had to do in exchange was to facilitate the transfer and recognize the Jewish state which would be created.

This offer was formally transmitted to Berlin in written form by Vice Admiral Ralf von der Marwitz, the German naval attaché in Turkey in 1941. The German response was either not recorded, or has yet to be discovered.

Nazi Eugenics

The third and last racial law passed by the German government was the Law for the Protection of the Genetic Health of the German People, promulgated in October 1935. This law required couples wishing to marry to submit themselves to a medical examination before marriage to see if any genetically undesirable traits might be passed on to children born of such a union.

The law forbade marriage between individuals suffering from venereal disease, feeblemindedness, epilepsy, or any of the diseases encompassed in the Sterilization Law.

Those who were classed as bearing such genetically undesirable traits were only allowed to marry if they agreed to be sterilized—so that no children would be born of the marriage.

The Euthanasia Project

In 1938, a German father by the name of Knauer wrote to Hitler asking that his child, born blind, retarded, and with one arm and one leg, be granted a mercy death, or euthanasia. The case so moved Hitler that he ordered his personal physician, Karl Brandt, to establish if the claims were true, and if so, that the child be granted euthanasia. This Knauer case was to be the start of a legal euthanasia program, the first in Western civilization since the times of the Spartans and early Romans.

In all, some five thousand retarded and deformed children were euthanized by the German government before the end of the war. Each case was individually reviewed by a specially appointed committee.

The policy of administering euthanasia to retarded and deformed children was then also extended to incurably insane adults.

Thanks to the German habit of keeping meticulous records, the exact number of incurably insane adults granted euthanasia is known: 70,273.

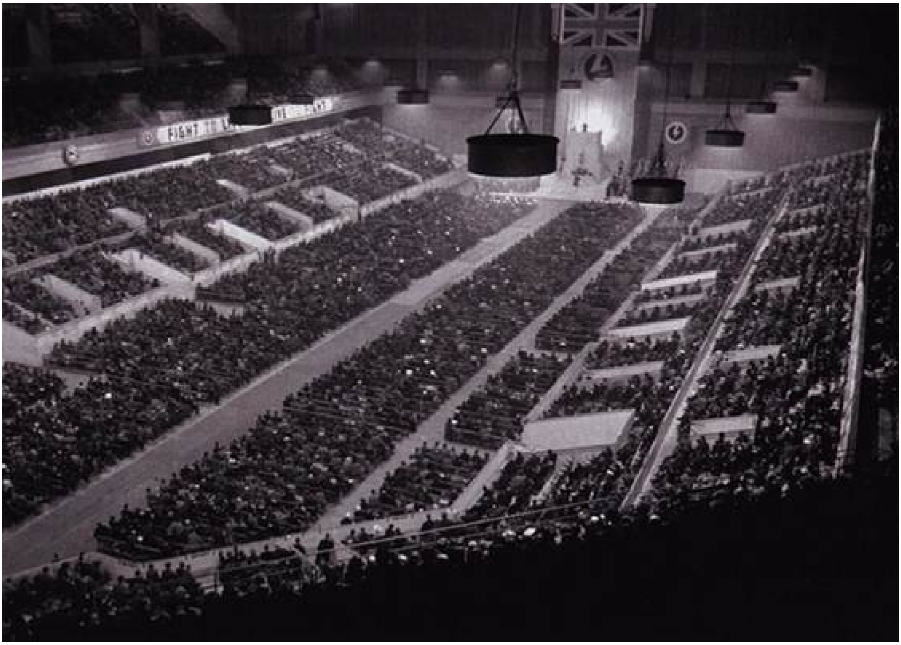
Although the adult euthanasia project was conducted in secret, it was impossible to conceal such a thing from the German public. By 1941, news of its existence had been leaked and public pressure on the Nazi government forced its abandonment in that year. The fact that public opposition could bring an end to the euthanasia program also reveals much about the relative openness of the Nazi state and the government's responsiveness to public opinion.

European Support for Hitler

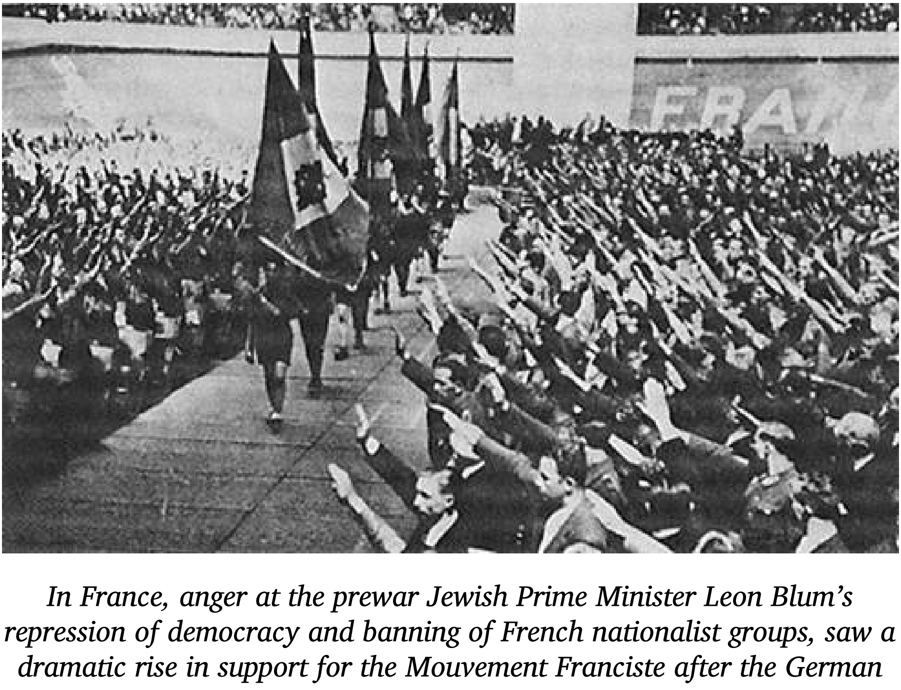
Hitler was not only popular in Germany. Many Europeans of other nationalities openly supported Nazi ideology and volunteered, either as workers or military servicemen, to actively assist the German war effort. Active support came from Britain, Ireland, France, the Low Countries, Scandinavia, Eastern Europe, and Russia.

In many of these nations, parties and movements which openly supported National Socialism, or homegrown variants, were started, and some achieved a significant level of public support. A few of the more famous such parties included the British Union of Fascists and National Socialists, the Mouvement Franciste in France, the Rexist Party in Belgium, the Dutch National Socialist Bund, the Iron Guard in Romania, and the Russian National Liberation Army.

PRO-HITLER SENTIMENT IN EUROPE FROM BRITAIN TO RUSSIA



The British Union of Fascists and National Socialists rally in Earl's Court, London, 1936, was one of the largest public meetings ever held in Britain.



In France, anger at the prewar Jewish Prime Minister Leon Blum's repression of democracy and banning of French nationalist groups, saw a dramatic rise in support for the Mouvement Franciste after the German occupation of France in 1940. This picture shows a Franciste rally at the Velodrome d'Hiver in Paris, attended by thousands.

Contrary to postwar propaganda, the Nazis were not seen by all Europeans as invaders, but often as welcome liberators. Above: Ecstatic Ukrainians welcome the German army, 1941; and below, Dutch civilians greet German troops pouring into Holland, 1940.

Waffen-SS—A Pan-European Army

One of the most striking examples of the popularity of Hitlerian politics in Europe was the emergence of the first pan-European army, the Waffen-SS ("Armed SS"). The original SS, or Schutzstaffel (defense echelons), had started as a small bodyguard unit for Hitler's personal protection but grew into the ideological army of the Nazi Party, eventually forming a state within the state, with its own officers and infrastructure.

The next SS unit to be formed was the SS-Totenkopfverbände ("Death's-Head Units") which administered the concentration camps. The Waffen-SS were the third branch of the SS to be formed, and became the best known.

The Waffen-SS was an entirely voluntary, ideological army which developed a unique spirit among its members. In the ordinary German army, the Wehrmacht, soldiers were under strict orders to keep their trunks containing their personal possessions locked to prevent theft. In the Waffen-SS, however, all personal trunks were open at all times, under order. It was expected that no Waffen-SS man would steal from his comrades. Violators of this rule were severely punished.

EUROPEANS WHO FOUGHT FOR HITLER

A standard-bearer from the Spanish “Blue Division” which fought in Russia.

VE LA LEGION FRANCAISE
HEIL HITLER VIVE LA FRANCE

Above: French Waffen-SS leave Paris by train for the eastern front, and below, French SS men on the Eastern Front. A French Waffen SS unit was the last defender of the Reich Chancellery building in Berlin in 1945, deliberately holding the building long enough to prevent Soviet troops from capturing it on May Day, May 1st.

Danish SS men take the salute at a graduation ceremony.

Dutch Waffen-SS march through Amsterdam.

Cossack Waffen-SS from the steppes of Russia.

General Andrei Vlasov, a former Soviet army general who, when captured by the Germans, raised an anti-Communist army from Russians, reviews his troops.

SS Leader Heinrich Himmler Speaks on the White Race

A valuable insight into exactly how the Nazis viewed the racial situation in Europe vis à vis Germans and other nationalities, is afforded through the memoirs of Arturs Silgailis, chief of staff of the Inspectorate General of the "Latvian Legion" (of the Latvian Waffen-SS). In his book, *Latvian Legion,* Silgailis describes a conversation he had with Heinrich Himmler, head of the SS and second most powerful man in Nazi Germany, in this manner: "He (Himmler) then singled out those nations which he regarded as belonging to the German family of nations and they were: the Germans, the Dutch, the Flemish, the

Anglo-Saxons, the Scandinavians, and the Baltic people. ‘To combine all of these nations into one big family is the most important task at the present time [Himmler said]. This unification has to take place on the principle of equality and at that same time has to secure the identity of each nation and its economical independence, of course, adjusting the latter to the interests of the whole German living space.

“After the unification of all the German nations into one family, this family. . . has to take over the mission to include, in the family, all the Roman nations whose living space is favored by nature with a milder climate . . . I am convinced that after the unification, the Roman nations will be able to persevere as the Germans . . . This enlarged family of the white race will then have the mission to include the Slavic nations into the family also because they too are of the white race . . . it is only with such a unification of the white race that the Western culture could be saved from the yellow race . . . At the present time, the Waffen-SS is leading in this respect because its organization is based on the principle of equality. The Waffen-SS comprises not only German, Roman, and Slavic, but even Islamic units and at the same time has proven that every unit has maintained its national identity while fighting in close togetherness . . . I know quite well my Germans.

“The German always likes to think himself better but I would like to avert this. It is important that every Waffen-SS officer obeys the order of another officer of another nationality, as the officer of the other nationality obeys the order of the German officer” (*Latvian Legion,* Arturs Silgailis, R.J. Bender Pub, 1986). This private discussion shatters the myth that the Nazis viewed Germans as the only superior race, and regarded Latin or Slavic nations as inferior. Both these allegations are false, as revealed in Himmler’s own words.

Sixty Percent of the Waffen-SS Were Non-Germans

The Waffen-SS was also the foremost indicator of the popularity of Nazism beyond the borders of Germany. It is a little known fact that of the one million men who served in the Waffen-SS during the course of the war, 60 percent, or 600,000 men, were volunteers from countries outside of Germany.

Non-German volunteers came from the Netherlands, Belgium, Finland, France, Denmark, Norway, Lithuania, Latvia, Estonia, Spain, Italy, Hungary, Yugoslavia, and included a small number of British ex-prisoners of war. They fought alongside their German comrades to the end, and all but a few thousand of the twenty thousand French

Waffen-SS volunteers, organized into a division called Legion Charlemagne, were killed in the Battle of Berlin in 1945.

Russians Volunteer in Their Thousands

The Waffen-SS also recruited heavily among Russians, Ukrainians, and Cossacks. Thousands of Russians volunteered for service with the conventional German army. In 1944, they were organized into a separate unit under a former Soviet Army general, Andrey Vlasov, who had been taken prisoner by the Germans in 1942 and subsequently defected.

Vlasov and his Russian army surrendered to the Americans and British rather than face capture by the Soviets. His hope was misplaced. In an operation code-named Keelhaul, Vlasov and around twenty thousand of his soldiers were handed over to the Soviets by the Western allies. Vlassov and his commanding staff were charged with treason and hanged by the Soviets in 1946.

Support Dissipated by Defeat

The widespread support for Hitler and National Socialism had dissipated by the end of the war, mainly due to the defeat and subsequent propaganda against Nazi Germany. Few people chose to actively associate themselves with a defeated enemy who was so effectively demonized.

Resistance movements sprang up in almost all countries occupied by Germany during the war. These movements, encouraged by the Allied powers, were in contravention of the Geneva Convention which stated that once a country’s government had formally surrendered, it was against international law to take up arms once again. The most infamous reprisals took place at Oradour, France; Lidice, Czechoslovakia (in both these instances, entire villages were massacred); Amsterdam, the Netherlands (where groups of civilians were rounded up at random and shot in public squares in retaliation for resistance attacks), and at several places on the eastern front.

The “Final Solution”—Nazi Policy toward Jews

The Third Reich and Adolf Hitler will always be associated with an outburst of anti-Jewish sentiment not seen since the Crusades or the Middle Ages. Countless books and films have appeared which explained in detail what the Nazis did, but few have ever attempted to explain why the Nazis were opposed to Jews in Germany. Nazi anti-Jewishness was based on three pillars:

- Firstly, Jews were identified as a racially-alien group who engaged in political and social subversion, and were linked with Communism. As outlined earlier, this belief of a link between Communism and Jews was not a Nazi invention and had been discussed in public by Winston Churchill, Henry Ford, and many others long before the Nazi Party came into existence.

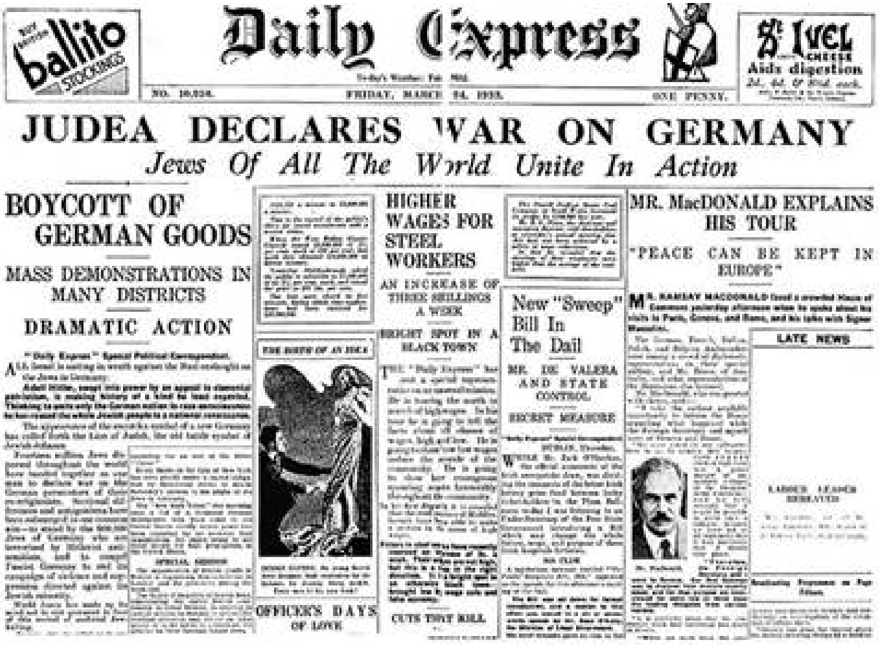
- Secondly, the Nazis associated Jews with hypercapitalism and economic exploitation. This descended directly from the traditional and pre-Christian objections to Jews. Hitlerian anti-Jewishness also accentuated the links between Jewish hypercapitalists and Communism, personified by the financing of the 1917 Russian Revolution by the American Jewish banker Jacob Schiff.

- Thirdly, the Nazis associated Christianity with Jews, arguing that this religion was the product of Middle Eastern thought rather than European.

Only in this light can an understanding of the motivating factors behind Nazi policy be gained. It was a combination of centuries-old anti-Semitism and modern political thought which associated Jews with Communism and subversion.

Jewish Declaration of War on Germany 1933

Even though the Zionists supported Germany’s racial laws, other groups of Jews agitated against the Nazi regime. On March 23, 1933, a meeting of Jewish leaders from around the world formally declared war on Germany. The Jewish declaration of war was carried publicly by a large number of newspapers, including the *Daily Express* in London, which ran a bold full-page headline “Judea Declares War on Germany” on its edition of March 24, 1933.



Daily Express

FRIDAY, MARCH 24, 1933. ONE PENNY.

JUDEA DECLARES WAR ON GERMANY

Jews Of All The World Unite In Action

BOYCOTT OF GERMAN GOODS

MASS DEMONSTRATIONS IN MANY DISTRICTS

DRAMATIC ACTION

HIGHER WAGES FOR STEEL WORKERS

AN INCREASE OF THREE SHILLINGS A WEEK

BRIGHT SPOT IN A BLACK TOWN

New "Sweep" Bill In The Dail

MR. DE VALERA AND STATE CONTROL

SECRET MEASURE

MR. MacDONALD EXPLAINS HIS TOUR

"PEACE CAN BE KEPT IN EUROPE"

LATE NEWS

OFFICER'S DAYS OF LOVE

CUTS THAT KILL

According to that newspaper, the meeting called on "all Jews of the world to unite" and to launch a series of mass demonstrations and institute a worldwide boycott of German goods, presumably through their international business connections.

This public declaration of war on Germany served to inflame anti-Jewish feeling in Germany. Shortly afterward the Nazi government passed laws which barred Jews from holding public office or other positions of influence: university lecturers, journalists, and newspaper editors, among others.

This declaration of war also provided the legal basis upon which Germany would later justify its internment of large numbers of Jews inside Germany. This rationale was used by the American and Canadian governments to inter their Japanese populations after the attack on Pearl Harbor, and by the British government to inter all Italians in Britain after 1940.

Despite this, not all Jews in Germany were interned. A fully functioning Jewish community, several thousand strong and still with synagogue intact, was present in Berlin in 1945 when the Soviet Army overran the German capital.

The Concentration Camps

Nazi Germany is most commonly associated with concentration camps, particularly those in which large numbers of emaciated and dead prisoners were discovered at the end of the war. The first concentration camps were set up soon after the Nazis came to power, with the best known being Dachau, situated to the north of Munich.

These first camps were in reality large prisons to which inmates had been sentenced by the ordinary criminal courts to fixed terms of imprisonment. The offenses for which these prisoners were sentenced ranged from “ordinary” crimes to those of a political nature, with membership or activism in the banned Communist Party being the most frequent.

Imprisonment at the camps was not necessarily permanent, as was proven beyond question by the uncovering in the Moscow State archives of a release note for a prisoner from Auschwitz in 1944—supposedly at the height of that camp’s gas chamber operations. The large Jewish involvement in the Communist Party’s activities meant that a significant number of the internees in these early camps were Jews. However, by the time the Second World War started, the majority of Germany’s Jews (some 319,900 out of a total population of 500,000) had emigrated for good.

Nazi Plans to Evacuate all Jews Founder with Reversals on Eastern Front

The outbreak of the Second World War meant that the Nazi and Zionist polices of getting Jews to emigrate from Germany largely came to an end. German territorial conquests in Europe by 1941 also meant that an ever-increasing number of Jews came into the Nazi sphere of influence.

Initially the Nazi plan to evacuate all Jews under its control was open-ended. A number of projects and possibilities were considered, including resettling the Jews in Rhodesia, Madagascar, or Palestine. In this way one of the more remarkable alliances of the war was struck up between SS General Reinhard Heydrich, chief of the Reich Main Security Office, and the Zionist movement.

Heydrich, in cooperation with the Zionists, set up farms in German-occupied Czechoslovakia where Jews who wished to emigrate to Palestine were taught basic agricultural skills. These Nazi-trained Jewish farmers were then smuggled through Turkey into Palestine during the war.

However, these plans proved impractical as the war raged on. Eventually, a conference of top Nazi leaders was called in January

1942 at a villa in the suburb of Wannsee outside Berlin. This meeting is known as the “Wannsee Conference.”

It is often claimed that this conference was the place where the mass murder of the Jews was planned, but the minutes of the meeting —which survived the war—show nothing of the sort. Instead, the conference actually discussed evacuating Jews to the newly occupied areas of Russia, and never mentioned mass extermination. Even then, the minutes said, certain groups of Jews were to be excluded from these deportations, such as World War I veterans, those married to Germans, and those working in vital industries in Germany. It is widely claimed that the use of the word “resettlement” in the Wannsee minutes meant murder, but there is no evidence for this allegation in the document.

Finally, the Wannsee Conference minutes provided a list of how many Jews were in Europe. According to the official Nazi records, there were some 11,292,300 Jews in Europe—but only 4,536,500 were under direct German control. The rest—some 6,755,800—were either in countries not occupied by Germany, or were not under direct German control (Bulgaria: 48,000; England: 330,000; Finland: 2,300; Ireland: 4,000; Italy, including Sardinia: 58,000; Albania: 200; Croatia: 40,000; Portugal: 3,000; Romania, including Bessarabia: 342,000; Sweden: 8,000; Switzerland: 18,000; Serbia: 10,000; Slovakia: 88,000; Spain: 6,000; Turkey: 55,500; Hungary: 742,800; and the USSR: 5,000,000).

According to the present-day German government, some 4,384,138 individual claims for compensation were made by Holocaust survivors against the postwar German government (West German Federal Indemnification Law-BEG “Wiedergutmachung.” German Finance Ministry, *Leistungen der öffentlichen Hand auf dem Gebiet der Wiedergutmachung Stand:* December 31, 2009).

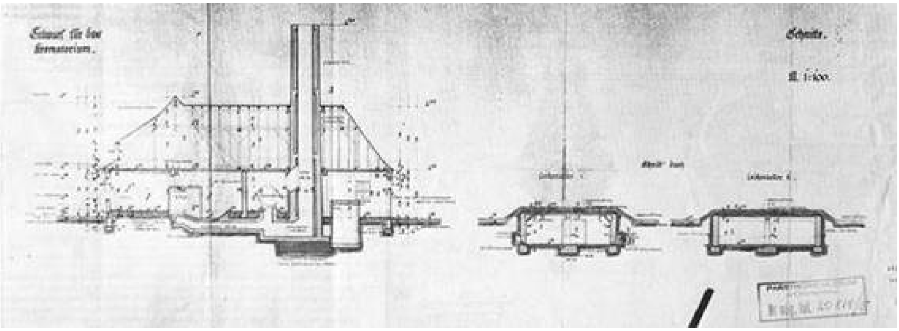
This is a significant figure when the total number of Jews, as calculated by the Nazis as being under their control, was some 4.5 million.

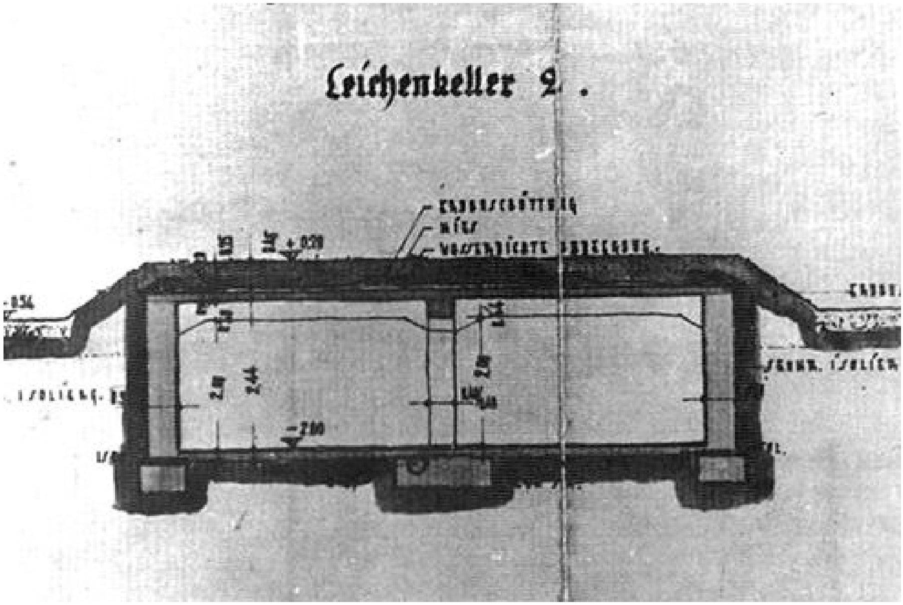
In the interim, Germany had invaded the Soviet Union and conquered huge areas. Behind the front lines, resistance to the German occupation flared, and specialist anti-partisan units, known as Einsatzgruppen (“Special Action Groups”) were formed to stamp out the Communist-organized underground movement. In addition, the Einsatzgruppen were instructed to execute, by shooting, all Communist functionaries, partisans, or other “politically unreliable” elements behind the front line.

The Einsatzgruppen carried out their task with Germanic efficiency and sent back regular reports to Berlin which detailed how many people they had killed in each time period. Due to the fact that a large number of Communist functionaries were Jews, this group made up a large number, but not always a majority, of the people eliminated by the Einsatzgruppen.

The battle with Communist partisans was sometimes particularly fierce: more than one Einsatzgruppen commander was killed in combat. Although a final tally of Einsatzgruppen victims has never been conclusively estimated, it is claimed that around 200,000 people were killed during the war behind the Russian front line. The Einsatzgruppen were dissolved in the wake of the German retreat from the occupied areas.

AUSCHWITZ—ORIGINAL ARCHITECT PLANS DO NOT SHOW GAS CHAMBERS, ONLY MORGUES





*The original German architectural building plans for Auschwitz can be seen at the camp museum. They do not contain plans for gas chamber. It is claimed that the underground structures, marked as mortuaries (*leichenkeller*), were used as gas chambers—something which would technically be almost impossible, given the extremely high airtight specifications which would be needed. The absence of any German records showing homicidal gas chambers (as opposed to defumigation chambers for clothes, which every camp had), has served as grist to the mill of Holocaust revisionists who question the extent of the mass murder claims at Auschwitz and elsewhere. The camp museum has also admitted that the only gas chamber on display to tourists was built after the war. While a full evaluation of the veracity of all the mass murder claims falls outside of the scope of this book, it is clear that the topic should be the subject of an independent forensic examination.*

The Concentration Camps in Poland

In the part of Poland set up as a German protectorate, called the Government General, six new concentration camps were built, with the first starting to function in late 1942, and the last being closed by August 1944. The six camps became known by the towns to which they were nearest situated: Chelmno (also known as Kulmhof), Belzec, Sobibór, Treblinka, Majdanek (also known as Lublin), and Auschwitz.

Auschwitz and Majdanek were originally built as prisoner-of-war camps to hold Polish and Russian soldiers captured during those campaigns, and were sited next to large industrial centers. In Auschwitz, for example, nearby factories which used labor from the camp included Agfa, Bayer Pharmaceuticals, and Siemens. In addition, the famous Buna rubber plant (which produced much of Germany's supplies of rubber and innovated the oil-from-coal process) was also sited there.

As the plan mapped out at the Wannsee Conference was implemented, the other four camps (Chelmno, Belzec, Sobibór, and Treblinka) were established as transit centers to hold Jews on their way to the east. These camps have become known as the "Aktion Reinhard" camps, named after Fritz Reinhard, a civil servant in the Finance Ministry who designed the logistical process whereby personal effects seized from deported Jews were transferred back to Germany.

The Wannsee Conference's plans to resettle Jews in the far east of Russia fell into chaos when the expected military victory against the Soviet Union did not occur, and soon the camps in Poland were overcrowded.

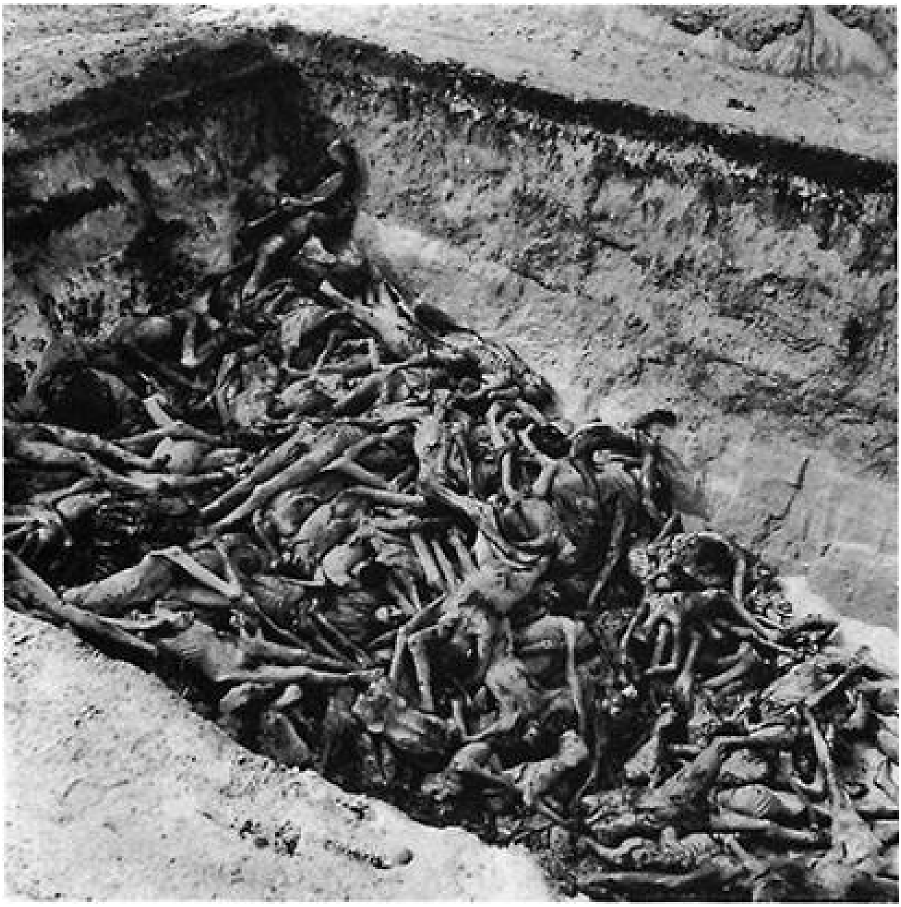
The Six Million

Despite the presence of massive industrial operations and the short time that the camps were in existence (less than two years all told), it is claimed that some six million Jews were killed in gas chambers at these six camps in Poland. (The other concentration camps in Germany, such as Dachau or Bergen Belsen, did not, it is claimed, have gas chambers.)

There is, however, considerable confusion over the exact number of Jewish deaths in all the camps, and indeed a debate over whether gas chamber executions even took place on the scale so often alleged. The complete lack of German documentation on the issue has not helped: unlike the *Einsatzgruppen,* where at least a partial record was kept of all killings, the Germans kept no records of mass murders in any of the camps. An increasing number of historian dissidents are challenging the claim of mass exterminations of Jews and others by the Nazis during World War II, to the point where such revisionism has been declared illegal in many European countries. This in itself is cause to question the allegations, as truth should not need to be defended by law.

As the over 4.3 million claims against the postwar German state from Jews who suffered as a result of the Nazi persecution showed, it is almost certain that the Jewish fatality rate was less than what is often claimed. Increasingly, all the evidence urges a complete revision of this aspect of the history of World War II. An analysis of all the claims and counterclaims is, however, outside of the scope and purpose of this book.

HORROR SCENES AWAIT ALLIES IN BERGEN-BELSEN AND OTHER CAMPS



Nightmarish scenes awaited Allied troops who seized control of the Bergen-Belsen camp in Germany, 1945. The bombing of Germany had prevented the supply of food and delousing material to the camp, with the result that many inmates were starving, and a typhus epidemic (borne by lice) had broken out. The Allied soldiers found thousands of dead and dying prisoners in advanced stages of typhus (which includedthe characteristic thinness caused by uncontrollable diarrhea). The unfortunate victims had to be buried in mass graves (as pictured above). These images came to symbolize the concentration camps, even though the dead had not been executed. The Allies quarantined the camp to bring the typhus epidemic *under control. The quarantine proved ineffective in halting the epidemic, and the Allied soldiers were forced to set fire to the camp with flamethrowers to kill the lice infestation. Below, a photograph of the Allied quarantine of Belsen, with a sign warning visitors to drive slowly to prevent the spread of typhus.*

DUST
SPREADS
TYPHUS
5 MPH

Jewish Persecution in Nazi Germany

All the debate around the Holocaust and its impact upon Jews and Nazi Germany aside, no one would question that the Jews, like everyone else in the Second World War, suffered great misfortune and were in particular subjected to unprecedented persecution and harassment on racial grounds. International Jewry had, however, publicly and openly declared war on Nazi Germany, and the Nazis therefore regarded Jews as a hostile combatant group of special significance. Jews were prohibited in many German towns completely, and barred from many professions, including operating mail order businesses, offering services at public markets, taking orders for goods, and from holding leadership positions in German factories.

In 1938, they were forbidden from changing their names to “German sounding” ones. Later that year, they were compelled to add Sarah or Israel as a middle name to their original names (depending upon their sex) so as to distinguish them further.

German Jews were prevented from attending public theaters and film shows in 1939. Places were denied to them at universities and other institutions of learning and they were subjected to special taxes. Crude anti-Jewish propaganda was taught and encouraged at schools, and in November 1938, Jews were barred from attending

German schools.

They were also subjected to bouts of physical attacks. One of the most serious examples of this came in 1938 after a Polish Jew living in Paris, Herschel Grynszpan, assassinated a German diplomat, Ernst vom Rath. This murder provoked anti-Jewish riots in Germany the next day which became known as the *Kristallnacht* ("Crystal Night"—so named because the glass from the broken Jewish shop windows lay like crystal in many streets).

The German government was, however, receptive to public opinion. This was illustrated in 1943 when a public demonstration in Berlin, known as the Rosenstrasse Protest, took place. Around one thousand German women voiced their objection to the planned deportation to the east of their Jewish husbands and teenage sons. The protests resulted in the release of all 1,200 interned Jews and half-Jews, and most survived the war.

Even though the Nazi state was destroyed in 1945, and its surviving leaders executed shortly after the war by the victorious allies, Hitler and the Third Reich remain one of the most discussed topics in popular culture. Films, books, art works, tours, political discussions, and debate still rage about this time period, and show no sign of abating in the near future. The intense amount of propaganda directed against Hitler, which still emerges to the present day, on a daily basis, has created a climate where even an objective attempt to overview this time period is attacked. One day, if the European people last that long, it will be possible to discuss Hitler and the Third Reich in its proper historical context without attracting emotive responses.

CHAPTER 66: The End of White Supremacy—Decolonization and "Civil Rights"

The forty-five years following the end of the Second World War were dominated by three issues: the decolonization process in Africa and Asia; the revocation of racial segregation in the United States and the accompanying "civil rights" era; and the period of hostility between the USSR and the West, known as the Cold War. In all of these developments, race played a critical factor.

At the end of the Second World War, the nations of Europe were physically and psychologically weakened. The balance of power passed firmly to the United States and the Soviet Union. These factors, combined with an upswing of racial consciousness and ethnic nationalism among nonwhites led directly to the postwar wave of decolonization.

Simultaneously, racial segregation in America came to an end as blacks emerged as a powerful political force once again. The "civil rights" era, as it became known, produced some of the greatest racial clashes in America's history—but never solved the real issue at hand, namely the bringing of true racial equality which has remained as elusive as ever.

British Empire Dissolves

As the holder of the largest number of colonies, Britain had the hardest task of all in its endeavor to get rid of its possessions in the most dignified manner possible. This was not always possible, particularly in light of the many violent nonwhite liberation movements which emerged after the Second World War.

More often than not, these movements were funded or supplied by the Soviet Union which saw the decolonization process as a way of striking at the West while creating firm allies in the Third World.

The Labour Party government in Britain, which had replaced Winston Churchill's government at the first election after the war, formally acknowledged that the era of the empire was over. It started the postwar decolonization drive by granting independence to India and Pakistan in 1947 and to Burma and Ceylon (Sri Lanka) in 1948. Thereafter, the British dispensed of all their other colonies in quick order, giving the last of the African territories full independence by the mid-1960s.

Zionist Terror Campaign against British in Palestine

Jewish nationalists in Palestine waged a protracted terrorist war against Palestinians and the British authorities in Palestine during the 1940s. Many British soldiers were killed in these incidents, which included the bombing of the King David Hotel in Jerusalem in July 1946, which killed ninety-one people. The bomb was planted by the Irgun terrorist group, whose members included Menachem Begin, later to be a prime minister of Israel.

ZIONIST TERROR IN PALESTINE

The King David Hotel, Jerusalem, 1946: blown up in a bomb attack by Zionists; some ninety people, including senior British personnel, were killed in the attack.

After several such incidents, Britain finally made good its 1917

Balfour Declaration promise and granted independence to Palestine. The newly-established United Nations organization was given the unenviable task of partitioning the region between the Arabs and the Jews. A war erupted between the two sides which has continued at various levels of intensity to the present day. Israel, mainly due to the unqualified backing it received from the US and most of Europe, has kept the upper hand and expanded its borders. This process caused the displacement of large numbers of Palestinian Arabs and is still the single greatest cause of conflict in the Middle East.

Ghana Becomes First African Country to Gain Independence

Anti-white riots broke out for the first time in Accra, the Gold Coast, in February 1948. Nine years later, the British granted the nation independence and it was promptly renamed Ghana—the first African state to gain independence in the postcolonial era.

Ghana's example led to agitation for independence across the rest of Africa. Guinea became independent in 1958 and, by 1960, a further seventeen African states became independent. These included Nigeria (1960), Sierra Leone (1961), Tanganyika (1961, later Tanzania), Uganda (1962), Kenya (1964), Zambia (1964), Malawi (1964), Gambia (1965), Botswana (1966), and Swaziland (1968).

The only British colony to reverse this trend was Southern Rhodesia, where the white settlers refused to hand over power to the Africans. A bitter war followed, as detailed elsewhere in this work, before power was eventually handed over in 1980.

THE WHITE QUEEN HAS FALLEN

A black child looks at an overturned statue of Queen Victoria in Guinea, dumped by the Africans after that colony became independent from Britain in 1958.

Uhuru *Spreads through East Africa*

Uhuru is the Swahili word for “freedom” and became the most commonly used phrase for the decolonization process in Africa. Swahili is most commonly spoken on the east coast of Africa, and it was there in the 1950s that a number of anti-white terrorist movements sprang up in the British colonies.

In the east African colony of Kenya, a group called the Mau-Mau emerged as the champions of black nationalism, at least among one tribe, the Kikuyu. The Mau-Mau engaged in voodoo-like induction sessions, which allegedly included human sacrifice, and were regarded with horror by the British authorities.

The Mau-Mau waged a reign of terror against the scattered British colonists and after a series of murders, a state of emergency was declared in 1952.

Two years later, in an astonishing maneuver called Operation Anvil, twenty-five thousand white British troops sealed off the capital city of Nairobi and arrested every African in the metropolis. The Africans were taken to barbed wire encampments where each individual was interrogated. All those suspected of Mau-Mau affiliations were either moved to other detention centers outside the city, or deported to the “reserves” (which were the traditional Kikuyu tribal grounds).

The rest were released, but some fifty thousand Kikuyu were removed from the city by Operation Anvil.

The British believed that this move would kill off the Mau-Mau. Instead, it served to alienate even more Africans, and thousands fled to the outlying forests to take up arms against the whites. In response, the British set up “protected villages” for the Kikuyu, which were in reality sealed off areas from which it was hoped that the Mau-Mau would not be able to operate.

By 1956, this aim had been largely achieved and the Mau-Mau’s operational reach had been curbed—but it was a solution which could only be maintained by continued force of arms.

By 1960, the British government accepted this reality and set in place the procedure for a handover to African rule.

In 1964, the Republic of Kenya was proclaimed, with Mau-Mau underground leader Jomo Kenyatta as its first president.

The Congo Crisis

In the colony called the Belgian Congo—one of the largest land areas in central Africa under colonial control—African nationalists also raised tribally-based resistance movements against the white Belgian rulers. In 1959, riots in the lower Congo and Léopoldville (the capital city, now known as Kinshasa) sparked off a low-intensity war against the white settlers.

The Belgian colonial authorities announced that elections for partial self-rule would be held in 1960, but refused to make an announcement about outright independence. This partial concession only served to inflame the Africans further, and a renewed bout of attacks occurred. The police were unable to contain the unrest, and the Congolese army, made up mostly of African recruits, was considered unreliable. Units which were deployed to suppress riots joined the uprising, and a reign of terror was waged against all whites in the country. Gangs of armed, uniformed troops looted shops, raped women in their homes, and indiscriminately beat and murdered whites.

The entire white population of Léopoldville fled and the Belgian government responded by sending in troops to evacuate all Europeans. The arrival of thousands of Belgian soldiers was interpreted by the African resistance as an attempted counterrevolutionary act, rather than a rescue mission, and the violence only increased.

Regular battles erupted between the Belgian soldiers and the Congolese army deserters (who, ironically, had been armed and trained by the Belgians), and very often the only way to evacuate whites was by fighter-escorted helicopters. Even so, the rescue missions were often too late for outlying posts, and on more than one occasion rescue teams were confronted with gruesome massacre sites, especially of nuns and priests, who were a favorite target of the rebels.

Once the rescue mission had completed its most urgent tasks, the Belgians then withdrew and left the Africans to their own devices. In June 1960, the country became independent as the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). The remaining 100,000 whites fled shortly afterward, and the DRC spiraled into years of tribal warfare. It was renamed Zaire along the way, but after another coup in 1997, was renamed the DRC once again.

The British Empire Disappears

In 1952, the last of the British-controlled puppet kings of Egypt was overthrown in a coup organized by Egyptian army officers and the country was declared a republic. Two years later, the British granted the Sudan independence.

In 1960, Britain gave formal independence to Cyprus. In 1974, Greece and Turkey came to blows over possession of the island, and it was subsequently partitioned between those two nations.

The islands of Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago became independent in 1962, with most of the other islands in the region following suit at intervals. Ironically, these island states originally had no indigenous black population at all, and what is called the Caribbean culture is in fact only the product of the trans-Atlantic slave trade.

Portuguese Abandon African Colonies in 1975

Portugal held onto its African colonies of Mozambique and Angola throughout the 1950s and 1960s, resisting all international calls to grant independence to those nations. As a result, African resistance movements emerged in both those territories. A vicious bush war erupted, and the Portuguese colonialists soon found themselves living under a state of siege.

The deadlock was broken in 1974, when a left-wing military coup in Portugal ejected the right-wing government. By the next year, all Portuguese forces were withdrawn from Angola and Mozambique and those nations became independent.

In addition, the new Portuguese government also withdrew from the two remaining colonies of the Cape Verde islands and Guinea-Bissau. Over one million Portuguese colonists fled the newly-independent colonies.

Dutch Grant Suriname Independence

The Dutch colony of Suriname, located in South America, became a self-governing province of the Netherlands in 1954 and was granted full independence in 1975. The first years of independence were marked by a mass exodus of forty thousand Surinamese, who, drawing upon their previous Dutch citizenship, settled in the Netherlands.

French Retreat from Africa

In 1956, France granted independence to the colonies of Morocco and Tunisia, while in sub-Saharan Africa, an effort had been made to stave off nationalist movements by granting the inhabitants of the black colonies full status as citizens and by allowing deputies and senators from each territory to sit in the French National Assembly. These concessions—which had racial implications as they allowed Africans to settle in France—were insufficient to satisfy African demands for full independence. As a result, a large number of territories became independent of French rule completely.

These included the Ivory Coast (1960), Dahomey (now called Benin, 1960), French Sudan (now called Mali, 1960), French Guinea (1958), Mauritania (1960), Niger (1960), Senegal (1960), French Upper Volta (now called Burkina Faso, 1960), French Togoland (now called Togo, 1960), Chad (1960), Oubangui-Chari (now called the Central African Republic, 1960), the Republic of

Congo or French Congo (1960), Gabon (1960), French Cameroon (now incorporated into the nation known as Cameroon, 1960), and the island of Madagascar (1960).

WHITE SETTLERS MASSACRED IN ALGIERS

White French civilians lie massacred on the steps of the post office, Rue d'Isly, Algiers. Fifty whites were gunned down by Algerian police, under French colonial command, during a protest rally against the planned handover of power to the Algerians.

Charles de Gaulle Orders Withdrawal from Algeria

The French colony of Algeria attracted more than a million white settlers by 1950. These settlers came to be known as the *Pied-Noir.* The spirit of independence also took hold of the Algerian Arabs, and by the mid-1950s, an anti-French nationalist movement emerged which plunged the country into a civil war which ran from 1954 to 1962.

The Algerian resistance movement, known in French as the *Front de Libération Nationale,* or FLN, launched its guerrilla campaign in November 1954 with a series of attacks on white settlers which became known as *Toussaint Sanglante* (or "Bloody All-Saints' Day").

Pied-Noir opposition to the FLN turned into a formal resistance movement known as the *Organisation de l'armée secrète* (OAS, or "Secret Army Organization") which was comprised of French soldiers who had fought the Algerians. The OAS also launched a campaign of violence against the French government figures instrumental in the process of granting Algeria independence. In April 1962, the OAS even tried to carry out a coup d’état against the French government under Charles de Gaulle, but ultimately failed in its attempts to prevent the handover of power to the FLN, which occurred on July 1962.

White Settlers in Algeria Massacred

On April 7, 1962, fifty *Pied-Noir* civilians were gunned down in the Rue d’Isly in Algiers by Arab police during a protest against the government’s decision to hand over power to the FLN.

On the day Algeria became independent, Arabs entered the coastal city of Oran, where the white population was concentrated, and proceeded to attack the Europeans at random. The attacks included lynching, torture, and shootings, and carried on for several hours.

In the ensuing massacres, it is estimated that at least three thousand whites were killed. The vast majority of white settlers fled, and within a few weeks, Algeria was stripped of its First World population. Algeria has however come back to haunt France.

Millions of Arab Algerians settled in France, bringing with them a mix of militant Islam and ethnic conflict.

French Indochina Colony Leads into Vietnam War

France’s colonies in Asia were largely obliterated by the Japanese occupation of Indo-China during the Second World War. At the end of the conflict, France tried to reestablish its mastery over its prewar colony of Vietnam in conjunction with British forces in the south and nationalist Chinese armies in the north. This provoked a renewed war with the Viet Minh, a Communist army led by Ho Chi Min.

The French fought the Vietnamese in what became known as the First Indochina War from 1946 to 1954. This conflict ended when the French forces—which contained a large number of mercenaries—were defeated by Ho Chi Min’s forces at the decisive Battle of Dien Bien Phu in May 1954. The French agreed to leave Indochina the same year in terms of a settlement known as the Geneva Agreements. The United States then became involved in Vietnam as part of the ongoing Cold War with the Communists (as outlined in the next chapter). This would ultimately turn into a conflict which was called the “Vietnam War” in America, and as the “American War” in Vietnam.

The End of Racial Segregation in the United States

The decolonization of the Third World was paralleled in the United States with an upsurge in black consciousness and racial awareness. This in turn led to what became known as the “civil rights” movement, which resulted in the collapse of all formal racial segregation in America.

There had been clear racial divides in American politics since the presidency of Franklin Roosevelt, when for the first time, the majority of blacks voted for the Democratic Party. They have maintained that affiliation ever since. The first time that black voters played a significant role in electing an American president was in 1948 when Harry Truman was elected to the office by a combination of the bloc black vote and a minority of white votes. Truman gained black support by promising to initiate the desegregation of the armed forces.

The next president, Dwight D. Eisenhower, completed the desegregation of all government offices and the armed forces, but refused to tackle the social segregation which was still prevalent, particularly in the south.

NAACP Evolves under Jewish Leadership

Blacks, led by an organization named the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), turned to the courts to force the repeal of all racial segregation laws. Despite its name, the NAACP was founded in 1909 by a number of Jews, namely Julius Rosenthal, Lillian Wald, Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, Stephen Wise, and Henry Malkewitz. The only “black” among the NAACP’s founders was W.E.B. Dubois, who was actually a light-skinned mulatto.

Joel Spingarn, an English professor at Columbia, became the NAACP’s chairman in 1914 and served intermittently in that role until his death in 1939. His brother, Arthur Spingarn, headed the NAACP’s legal wing, and the head of the American Jewish Committee, Louis Marshall, argued on behalf of the NAACP before the Supreme Court. Jewish involvement in the top leadership of black civil rights organizations continued until the 1980s. Stanley Levison, a Jewish lawyer who the FBI had marked as a Communist agent, was the top adviser of Martin Luther King, Jr., the most prominent black activist of the civil rights era.

The president of the NAACP in the 1960s, and one of King’s top contributors was Kivie Kaplan, a retired Boston businessman.

According to the book *Broken Alliance: The Turbulent Times Between Blacks and Jews in America,* by Jewish historian Jonathan Kaufman, the movers and shakers of the other main civil rights organization, the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE), were also Jews. “Over at CORE, James Farmer’s top fundraiser and a key speech writer was Marvin Rich, later succeeded by another Jewish civil rights advocate, Alan Gartner. Jews made up more than half the white lawyers who went south to defend the civil rights protesters.

“They made up half to three-quarter of the contributors to civil rights organizations, even to the more radical organizations, like [the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee] SNCC ” (*Broken Alliance: The Turbulent Times Between Blacks and Jews in America,* Jonathan Kaufman. New York: Charles Scribner’s Sons, 1988, pp. 85–86).

One of the earliest NAACP legal victories came in 1944, when the all-white Democratic Party primary was outlawed. In May 1954, the NAACP won a ruling from the US Supreme Court, known as Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, which outlawed racial segregation in all American public schools. This decision reversed the principle of “separate but equal” which had been the basis of all social segregation since the Plessy v. Ferguson Supreme Court decision of 1896.

Subsequent court decisions in 1955 and 1956 compelled local governments to announce plans for desegregation and ended racial segregation in intrastate transportation.

AMERICAN WHITES FORCED TO INTEGRATE AT GUNPOINT

Racial integration at gunpoint. White pupils are forced by soldiers with drawn bayonets to attend the racially integrated high school at Little Rock, Arkansas, September 1957.

Little Rock—Forced Integration at Gunpoint

Whites in the southern states bitterly opposed the moves to desegregate schools. In September 1957, the governor of Arkansas, Orval E. Faubus, ordered the state's National Guard to prevent nine black students from attending Central High School in Little Rock, Arkansas.

On September 23, following a number of clashes between blacks and whites in Little Rock, President Eisenhower dispatched federal troops to force white students to attend the school with the black students. The soldiers, with rifles drawn and armed with bayonets, frogmarched the protesting white pupils into the classrooms.

By December 1955, a series of public protests led by King succeeded in forcing the desegregation of public transport in the south.

Busing

Even though formal residential racial segregation was abolished, whites and blacks still lived in separate neighborhoods in most towns and cities. In response to this, federal courts ordered neighborhood school district lines to be redrawn, and started the practice of "busing." This involved the use of buses to transport children from racially segregated neighborhoods to schools where the majority of pupils were of a different race. Sometimes these bus trips were in excess of a fifty mile round trip.

Busing created a large number of racial incidents, and although it is in theory still on the US statute books, massive white flight from American cities has made the practice largely obsolete. A 2005 report on the state of American schools said that "the proportion of black students at majority-white schools was at a level lower than in any year since 1968" ("Overcoming Apartheid," Jonathan Kozol, *The Nation,* December 19, 2005).

Desegregation measures were also applied to institutions of higher education. A major racial incident occurred in 1962 when a black student attempted to register at the University of Mississippi. A protest by white students was met with a black counterdemonstration, and a race riot erupted in which two people were killed and 375 wounded. The Mississippi National Guard was called in to patrol the university campus. Further incidents at the University of Alabama saw American president John F. Kennedy send federal troops to enforce integration on that campus as well.

The US state laws which forbade racial intermarriage were next to be challenged in the courts. Between 1942 and 1967, fourteen US states repealed antimiscegenation laws. In the case known as Loving v. Virginia (1967), the US Supreme Court struck down all laws banning interracial marriage and, by 1968, all forms of de jure segregation had been declared unconstitutional.

Voting Rights Act 1965

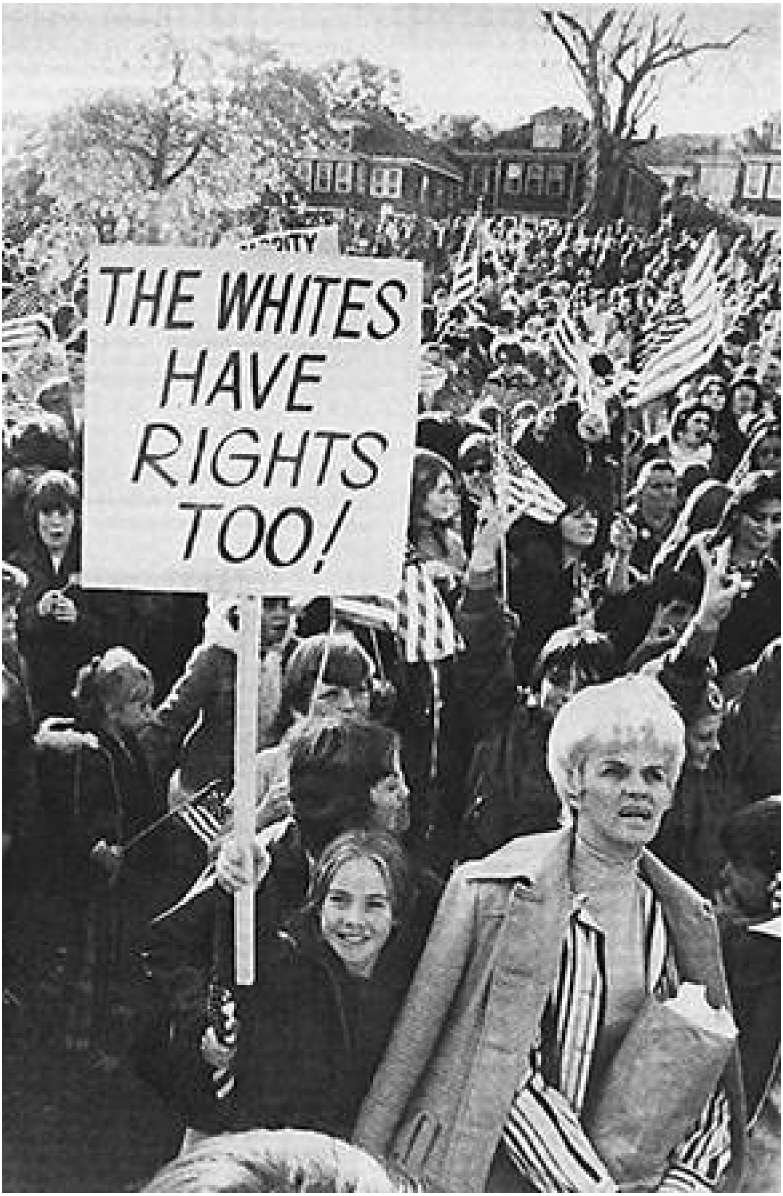
Kennedy was on the point of preparing a comprehensive law to enforce "civil rights" when he was assassinated in Dallas, Texas, in 1963. His successor, Lyndon B. Johnson, announced that he would proceed with Kennedy's legislation, and the result was a July 1963 law which prohibited discrimination in the use of federal funds and in public accommodations.

At the same time an "Equal Employment Opportunity Commission" was set up to ensure that whites employed an equal number of blacks in private businesses. This was the beginning of the racial quota system which had the practical effect of enforcing antiwhite discrimination. American businesses were (and in some areas, still are) forced to employ nonwhites once a certain quota had been reached, even if better qualified white candidates presented themselves.

The US Constitution was amended in January 1964 to prevent any local authority from using poll tax registration as a voting qualification. Finally, in 1965, a comprehensive “Civil Rights Act,” more correctly called the Voting Rights Act, was signed into law by Johnson. This gave legislative enforcement to the January 1964 constitutional amendment.

The Voting Rights Act also banned the use of literacy tests for voters. This enabled large numbers of blacks to finally register to vote. In Mississippi, for example, the percentage of blacks registered to vote increased from 7 percent in 1964, to 59 percent in 1968.

SCENES FROM THE RACIAL TURMOIL OF AMERICA 1960–1980


THE WHITES HAVE RIGHTS TOO!

Forced integration at school level in Boston drew thousands of whites onto the streets, as evidenced in this 1974 demonstration which opposed a court order forcing racial integration.

SCHOOL BUS
SCHOOL BUS

Police provide armed protection to black children being bused across Boston to white schools, 1974.

A National Guardsman at the ready as buildings collapse in flames in Detroit during the black riots of 1967. Shots were fired at the white firemen when they attempted to put out the fires.

Black Riots Erupt Despite Social Changes

Despite the rapidity of the social changes, many blacks found no improvement in their immediate quality of life or standard of living. As a result, a new wave of black unrest occurred as expectations failed to meet reality. The first serious disturbances broke out in Cambridge, Maryland, in 1963. The National Guard was called in to restore order. It was a foretaste of what was to come.

The 1965 Watts Riots in Los Angeles, one of the worst of the 1960s, lasted six days, took thirty-four lives, and caused $40 million in damage. Copycat riots broke out in black areas across thirty major American cities.

Almost every major city center was turned into a battle zone as white police attempted to bring mobs of rioting and looting blacks under control. From 1964 to 1968, a total of 215 people were killed and $250 million in damage was caused by black riots.

The government leaders were baffled by the riots. In theory there should have been less reason than ever for blacks to riot, as all segregation had been abolished and affirmative action programs had swung into full force. President Johnson appointed a commission, headed by the former governor of Illinois, Otto Kerner, to investigate the causes of black unrest.

The report of the Kerner Commission, issued in 1968, warned of increasing racial polarization in the United States and said that the "nation is moving toward two societies, one white, one black—separate and unequal."

No sooner had this warning been made, than a fresh wave of riots broke out in April 1968 when Martin Luther King, Jr. was assassinated in Tennessee by a white man. Once again, federal troops had to be called out to suppress the resultant anarchy. Black riots continued to plague American cities for decades afterward, most often sparked by a perceived case of "police racism" (usually where a police officer had allegedly shot a black suspect). Each time, millions of dollars in federal aid was distributed in the affected area to try and placate the rioters.

US Cities Face White Flight

Increasing black urbanization, coupled with problems of an increased crime rate, increased racial tensions, and integrated schools—which without exception led to a fall in educational standards—created the phenomenon of "white flight." Entire neighborhoods of whites moved out of the major US cities into outlying suburbs.

In this way, many city centers became blacks-only areas. As the whites fled, so did businesses and the tax base. As a result, many of these cities faced economic collapse and some, such as the former industrial powerhouse of Detroit, collapsed into smashed ruins, although still inhabited by large numbers of blacks.

"WHITE FLIGHT" AND THE DESTRUCTION OF AMERICA'S CITIES

BLACK OWNED
Peacefuls
IN-OUT
LIQUOR
LOTTO
Five Brothers Market
LIQUOR
PIZZA·LOTTO

By the end of the twentieth century, almost every major American city had become "majority-minority" as the politically-correct term goes—nonwhite by any other name. This situation came about due to white flight (where whites simply fled growing nonwhite numbers and behavior) and declining white birthrates. The two images above and below, both taken in Detroit, exemplify the problem, and the future of America unless the decline is reversed.

The Bakke Case Prohibits Racial Quotas

The system of racial quotas for educational and private institutions was struck a blow by a 1978 US Supreme Court case, Regents of the University of California v. Bakke, in which the University of California was prohibited from creating racial quotas but was permitted to consider race as one factor in admissions policies. The court later ruled that racial preferences by a private corporation designed to remedy prior discrimination did not violate the Civil Rights Act, and it upheld a federal statute that required a certain percentage of government contracts to be given to nonwhite businesses.

In 1991, an order from President George H. W. Bush attempted to strike down all affirmative action programs. This order was never enforced, and led to the US Congress passing the Civil Rights Act of 1991 which limited the rights of employees to sue for proven discrimination.

As a result, affirmative action programs still exist and are avidly pursued by the US government, more than half a century after the last segregation laws were struck down. Section 717 of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Section 501 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, for example, require all United States Federal Agencies to implement affirmative employment opportunity programs for all federal employees.

A separate government body—the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is used to enforce these laws, which are in reality just legalized antiwhite discrimination regulations.

Civil Rights in Review—a Colossal Failure

Although the Civil Rights era achieved its immediate aims—ending segregation—there can be no doubt that it has failed. By all social indicators, standards for blacks in America have fallen. For example, a 2011 report by the “Detroit Regional Workforce Fund” (a government-private sector partnership organization) revealed that 47 percent of adults in Detroit were functionally illiterate—a massive decline since the 1960s.

In 2009, a US Bureau of Justice Department report said that there were more than 840,000 black men in prison, a figure which dwarfs the 1960s incarceration rate. When counted with those on probation, the figure rises to well over a million.

In 2004, 24.7 percent of blacks lived below the poverty level. Homicide is the leading cause of death among black men aged 15 to 34. In 2004, blacks accounted for 64 percent of all violent crime arrests and 71 percent of all robbery arrests in the US. All this has happened despite the US subsidizing its black poor to the tune of more than $2.5 trillion in federal aid since the 1960s. The cities run by black Americans—Washington DC, Detroit, Philadelphia, and others—are marked by collapse, decay, exceedingly high levels of violent crime, drugs, gang wars, and economic decline.

Race Determines All

The imperative of race has dominated the paths of both the independent colonies, and their diaspora peoples in the First World. Almost all of the colonies have declined in wealth, status, infrastructure, and achievement—a development which has been mirrored by the nonwhite populations in the First World.

CHAPTER 67: The Wall Falls—the Collapse of Communism

The British and American governments realized before the end of World War II that the Soviet Union had no intention of adhering to its earlier pledge to install democratic governments in Eastern Europe.

The Western powers' suspicions were confirmed when the Communists instituted one-party systems in East Germany, Poland, Hungary, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Romania, Albania, and Yugoslavia. In all of these states, the basic principles of Marxism were implemented; private ownership of property became impossible, and all means of manufacturing and trade fell under state control. Finally, police-state systems were set up in each nation to monitor the population for any signs of unrest.

The Cold War

Although the USSR and the Western powers were allies during the war, relations soured after Germany's defeat. Friction between the two sides grew incrementally, and several times over the next few decades the two sides nearly went to war. Fortunately, they never did, and the "war" remained "cold," giving rise to the use of that term to describe the period from 1945 to 1990.

Germany's division between the USSR and the Western allies became the focal point of the conflict. At the end of the war, Berlin, although laying inside the Soviet sector, was divided up into four zones, each occupied by one of the victorious allies—France, Britain, America, and the USSR. In June 1948, the Soviets attempted to force the Western allies out of Berlin by closing all road and rail access to the city.

The Western allies responded by keeping the city supplied by air in a round-the-clock operation which became known as the Berlin Airlift. The Soviets relented in May 1949 and lifted the blockade.

NATO and the Warsaw Pact

In April 1949, the United States, Canada, and ten western European nations drew up a treaty of mutual defense and assistance, known as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). In response, in 1955, the Soviet Union formed its Eastern European allies into an organization which became known as the Warsaw Pact.

For the following thirty-six years, the Warsaw Pact and NATO faced each other as potential belligerents along the borders between eastern and western Europe. Both sides were armed with large numbers of conventional and nuclear weapons and drew up contingency plans to invade each other's territory. The standoff only ended when the Communist bloc fell and the Warsaw Treaty was formally dissolved in 1991.

Anti-Communist Rebellions Erupt in Eastern Europe

The Communists experienced sporadic, but serious, opposition in setting up their dictatorships in Eastern Europe. The first major uprising occurred in East Germany in 1953, after a strike in Berlin turned into large-scale protests in hundreds of towns in the Communist state. The uprising was violently suppressed by Soviet tanks. Over six hundred people lost their lives in the ensuing street battles or during post-uprising executions.

Further uprisings took place in Poland and Hungary in 1956, and in Czechoslovakia in 1968. All were put down by the Warsaw Pact's combined armed forces, and did not reoccur until just before the collapse of Communism.

BERLIN UPRISING 1953

ARE LEAVING
ERICAN SECTOR
ВЫЕЗЖАЕТЕ ИЗ
КАНСКОЙ ЗОНЫ
US SORTEZ
CTEUR AMERICAIN

Soviet tanks line up at the famous "Checkpoint Charlie" crossing point between east and west Berlin during the 1953 Berlin uprising against Communist rule in East Germany.

Conflict in the Third World

Although the two great powers behind the Warsaw Pact and NATO—the USSR and the US—never came to open war with each other during the Cold War, they traded blows through a number of proxies in Latin America and Africa. In addition, Communist China, although not formally allied to the Soviets, supported Communist insurgent movements in Southeast Asia, which proved to be highly costly to America in financial and human terms.

The Korean War

In June 1950, South Korea was invaded by the forces of Communist North Korea. The Americans announced that they would intervene to assist the South Koreans, and in November, the Communist People's Republic of China announced that it would support North Korea. A "hot" war between an American-led United Nations task force and Chinese forces broke out in Korea. The USSR did not directly intervene and restricted its involvement to the supply of military aid to the Communist armies.

Initially, it appeared that the Communist invaders would win, but a counterattack drove them back across the 38th parallel, which was the border between the two nations. The commander of the western-backed UN forces, World War II veteran General Douglas MacArthur, at one stage threatened to invade China, but was prevented from doing so by the American government for fear of sparking off a direct war with the Soviet Union.

The Korean War ended in 1953 with North and South Korea's borders restored to their original position along the 38th parallel. The US lost in excess of thirty-three thousand men in the conflict.

The Cuban Missile Crisis

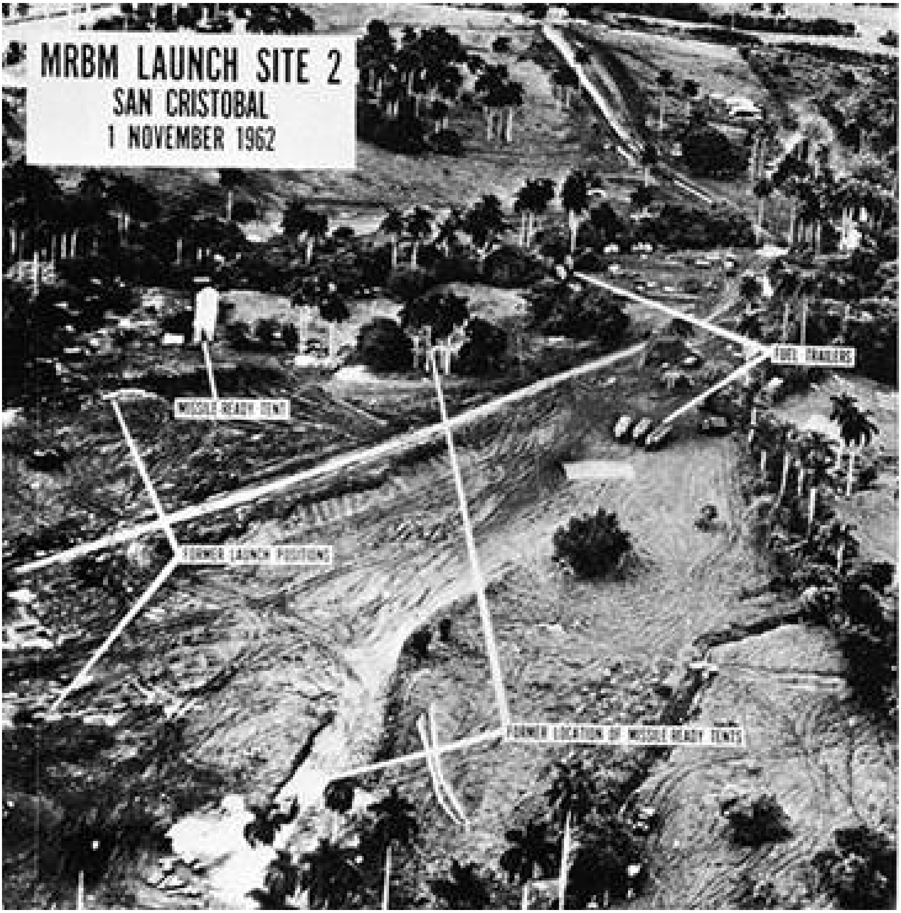
The island of Cuba, located in the Caribbean Sea some ninety miles off the Florida coast, was seized by Communist-backed insurgents under Fidel Castro in 1959. Soon, Communist Cuba was firmly in the USSR's orbit as a military ally, much to the US's consternation.

In August 1962, the US government secretly funded an attempt by Cuban dissidents to overthrow the Castro regime with a failed invasion known as the "Bay of Pigs." Shortly after that attack, the Cubans allowed the USSR to build missile launch sites in Cuba, from where intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBMs) could easily reach targets in the US. The secret bases were detected by American U-2 spy planes in October 1962. The US president, John F. Kennedy, announced that America had placed Cuba under a military "quarantine" and demanded that the USSR withdraw all its hardware.

Soviet ships carrying bombers and missiles were intercepted and followed by US forces in the Atlantic Ocean, and a U-2 spy plane was shot down over Cuba. For several weeks, it appeared increasingly likely that the much-feared "hot" war between the US and the USSR would break out.

The standoff ended in October 1962, when the Soviets agreed to dismantle and remove their missile bases in Cuba. In return, the US had to undertake never to invade Cuba, and to dismantle certain types of ICBMs which it had deployed in Europe and Turkey.

US SPY PLANE PICTURES REVEAL SOVIET MISSILES ON CUBA


MRBM LAUNCH SITE 2
SAN CRISTOBAL
1 NOVEMBER 1962
MISSILE READY TENT
FUEL TRAILERS
FORMER LAUNCH POSITIONS
FORMER LOCATION OF MISSILE READY TENTS

US spyplane photographs, released by John F. Kennedy's government in 1962, showed the presence of Soviet missiles ready for launch in Cuba. Further shipments of missiles and Soviet bomber aircraft were intercepted at sea by the US navy (below), and for several weeks the world teetered on the brink of a Third World War.

Vietnam War Ends in Predictable Disaster

The French withdrawal from Indochina in 1954 left a power vacuum which resulted in a Communist-dominated north, under longtime Vietnamese nationalist Ho Chi Min, and an anti-Communist south, under the influence of the Western allied powers who had tried to prop up the French colonial regime.

In 1956, the southern part of the country declared independence, and the north organized a Communist underground army, called the Vietcong, to launch a guerrilla war against the south. The war gradually escalated, and by 1960 the first American military personnel were deployed as advisors. In 1965, the first US combat troops were deployed, and a fierce jungle war erupted.

By 1968, more than 550,000 American troops had been deployed in Vietnam. Despite an overwhelming material advantage, the southern Koreans were unable to make headway, and were gradually forced back. It also became clear that the majority of the Vietnamese population supported the Vietcong and were opposed to foreign intervention in Vietnam. American forces were eventually withdrawn in August 1973, and the south fell to the Communists in 1975. At least 58,000 Americans died in the pointless conflict, and it is estimated that as many as 500,000 Cambodians and Laotians were killed.

The Vietnam War was a resounding success for the

Communists, and the first major military defeat the US had ever suffered.

African States Used as Fronts in Cold War

The Communist bloc also successfully created allies in Africa. The Soviet Union and Red China even competed with each other to supply and influence the anti-colonial black insurgent armies in Africa. As a result, the various black nationalist organizations were easily influenced to proclaim themselves as “communists” or “socialists” (although in reality they had little deeper understanding of the philosophical concepts behind those ideologies).

The USSR was more successful in gaining allies in Africa because the Communists were more than happy to supply weapons to the black nationalists for use against European settlers—something which even liberal US administrations balked at doing.

The Communists also played a highly successful race card in the Cold War through their support of the anti-white black guerrilla armies in Rhodesia and South Africa.

This aid was more than just material: during the 1970s and 1980s, thousands of Cuban troops were deployed in Angola to battle the South African army. The US covertly helped the anti-Communist black guerrillas in Angola and used the South Africans as a supply line. The venture ultimately failed, and a black Communist regime came to power in Angola as well.

Ultimately, the US and the West were unable to establish any significant allies in Africa during the period of decolonization or the Cold War, and only gained a measure of influence once the Soviet Union collapsed.

Soviet Invasion of Afghanistan, 1979 Becomes Their Vietnam

During the mid-1970s, the Communist-aligned Afghanistan government faced an increasing level of insurgency from Islamic militants. An increase in tensions along the border, failing influence in Iran, Iraq, and Pakistan, and a fear of the Islamic fervor spreading into the Soviet Union, combined to persuade the USSR to invade Afghanistan in October 1979.

Although the invasion was successful on a conventional level—in that the Soviet forces swept through the country and captured all the main centers, a guerrilla war, led by the Islamic militants known as the Mujahideen, erupted.

The USSR high command also found that its troops from the Muslim Soviet republics were unreliable as many deserted to the Mujahideen. As a result, the Soviets were forced to rely on white Russian troops for the main military operations in Afghanistan.

AFGHANISTAN—SOVIET UNION'S VIETNAM

Soviet armor on the move in Afghanistan, late 1980s. The Soviet invasion of Afghanistan proved that the white Russians could not rely on the Muslim troops of the southern Soviet republics. This in turn showed that the ethnic breakup of the USSR was inevitable. The ultimately fruitless war became one of the turning points in the dissolution of the USSR and, ultimately, world Communism.

The war in Afghanistan provided a rare opportunity for the US to turn the tables on the Soviet Union with regard to armed insurgencies. The American secret service funded, armed, trained, and supplied the Mujahideen to fight the Soviets, and it was only through this lifeline that the Afghan rebels remained in the field long enough to wear the Communists down. The war in Afghanistan proved highly costly and unpopular in the USSR. By 1989, some 620,000 Soviet soldiers had served in the conflict and at least 14,000 had been killed. By 1989, the winds of change had started to sweep through the Soviet Union, and its leader, Mikhail Gorbachev, ordered the last Russian troops to leave.

The war in Afghanistan precipitated the fall of the Soviet Union, and the army's inability to rely on any but its white Russian troops in the conflict exposed the searing racial and ethnic divisions which would lead to the breakup of the USSR.

Mikhail Gorbachev and Perestroika

In March 1985, the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) elected Mikhail Gorbachev as its new general secretary. To his colleagues' surprise, he endorsed the concept of perestroika ("restructuring," or "rebuilding"), and instituted a number of reforms which were anathema to the hard-liners within his party.

One of the earliest reforms Gorbachev insisted upon was the introduction of multicandidate elections within the CPSU (previously there had only been one candidate for the "voters" from which to choose). Opposition to Gorbachev's reforms mounted, and in June 1988, the CPSU called a special party conference—the first since 1941—to discuss the reforms.

At the conference, Gorbachev outmaneuvered his opponents and persuaded the party to adopt reforms which further reduced the CPSU's control over the state.

The reforms gathered pace, and by December 1988, the USSR's ruling body, called the Supreme Soviet, dissolved itself after passing a law which created a new legislative body, the "Congress of People's Deputies" as the USSR's highest legislative body. This congress had 2,250 seats, of which a third were reserved for the CPSU, but the rest were open to nonparty individuals, although not to other parties.

The congress also elected a new, smaller body of "only" 542 members to be elected from the congress. This new body became the effective parliament of the Soviet Union, and was named the Supreme Soviet once again. The newness of the concept of elections open to nonparty members resulted in only three hundred genuinely non-CPSU delegates being elected to the congress—and thus far fewer to the new Supreme Soviet, but it was enough. The parliament's proceedings were broadcast live on television for the first time in Soviet history. Viewers were shocked to hear delegates openly attack the shortcomings of Communism.

The floodgates were opened, and by June 1989, the first opposition party had been formed out of the non-CPSU delegates, called the "Interregional Group of Deputies," led by a reformist legislator by the name of Boris Yeltsin. Gorbachev retained overall control of the congress, mainly because of the one-third reserved seating for the CPSU.

In February 1990, Article 6 of the USSR's constitution, which enshrined the authority of the CPSU over the state, was repealed. This effectively abolished the one-party state. The following month, Gorbachev was elected by the congress to a newly-created executive position, that of president of the Soviet Union.

Economic Reforms Hasten Splintering of USSR

Along with the political reforms, Gorbachev had also instituted a cautious program of economic perestroika. By July 1987, a new law allowed the state-owned companies to determine their output levels based on consumer demand. Many of these companies were instructed to become self-sufficient, which was a cunning way of teaching them to become private enterprises.

In 1988, a "Law on Cooperatives" was passed which allowed private ownership of certain classes of businesses, including, for the first time, foreign investment. Initially, the reforms seem to work, but as regional and ethnic splits widened, tax revenues declined as some states withheld money from the central government. This was a sure indication that a reformed Soviet state was not sustainable as a unified country.

The now-freely elected legislative bodies of the Soviet republics passed new laws which further undermined the central government's control and some even called for independence and an end to the union.

Communist Regimes in Eastern Europe Collapse

Another of Gorbachev's reforms which was to have far-reaching consequences was his announcement that the Soviet Union would follow a policy of nonintervention in the internal affairs of other Warsaw Pact members. This was a significant shift from the previous policy where Soviet military units intervened on occasion to shore up the Communist regimes of those nations.

In Poland, a popular revolt against the one-party Communist state had found expression in the Solidarity Trade Union, led by Lech Walesa. Although Solidarity was banned, its level of popular support forced the Polish Communists to legalize it in 1989 after years of suppression. The same year, the Polish government allowed semi-free elections in which Solidarity participated by nominating candidates. The election results returned an overwhelming Solidarity victory, and a non-Communist government, under the premiership of Tadeusz Mazowiecki, was installed.

POLAND'S SOLIDARITY UNION BREAKS COMMUNIST GRIP ON EASTERN EUROPE

NIE MA wolnosci
BEZ BOGA
SOLIDARNOŚĆ
STOCZNIA
WISŁA
SOLIDARNOŚĆ

Lech Walesa, leader of the Solidarity Trade Union, greets supporters. The Solidarity Trade Union was the front through which the collapse of the Communist regime in Poland was engineered. This sparked off the "Revolutions of 1989" which ultimately brought all the Communist regimes in Eastern Europe to a fall.

The Polish Communist Party polled pitifully few votes and was eliminated as a political factor. Solidarity's electoral victory served as an encouragement to anti-Communist movements in the Warsaw Pact nations, and is credited with sparking off what became known as the "Revolutions of 1989" which brought an end to one-party rule in Eastern Europe.

Hungary Breaks with the Soviet Union

The next Communist state to fall to popular opinion was Hungary. After a series of mass public demonstrations in 1988 and 1989, the Hungarian Communist Party adopted a series of comprehensive reforms which paved the way for multiparty elections and full democracy.

In May 1989, the Hungarian government started dismantling its fence along the Austrian border, and thereby became the first Eastern European state to remove its section of the "Iron Curtain" between east and west. In October 1989, the Hungarian parliament adopted legislation providing for multiparty parliamentary elections and a direct presidential election. On the 23rd of that month, Hungary was declared a republic and democratic multiparty elections were scheduled for March 1990.

The elections were won by the main opposition party, the Hungarian Democratic Forum. (The Communist Party dissolved itself before the election and reformed as the Hungarian Socialist Party. It fared poorly in the election, but made a comeback in the second election after an economic downturn, only to be removed from office by 2010.)

East Germany and the Fall of the Berlin Wall

Some thirty thousand East Germans seized the opportunity caused by the collapse of the Hungarian-Austrian border to stream into West Germany via Hungary and Austria. In response, the ruling East German Communist Party (known as the "Socialist Unity Party," or by its German acronym "SED") government closed the border with Hungary. The East German escape route was redirected to Czechoslovakia before doubling back into Hungary to cross the border. The East German government then closed the border with Czechoslovakia as well.

This was a step too far, and large public demonstrations started in East German towns and cities. The demonstrations became a regular feature every Monday, and hundreds of thousands of people filled the streets in protest against the government. The regime panicked, and reopened the border with Czechoslovakia. East Germans were then allowed to travel freely to West Germany through the border which divided those two regions.

On November 9, 1989, after a mistaken announcement by an East German government official on television that the borders were open with "immediate effect" (they were not), crowds of East and West Germans descended on the Berlin Wall and took it over. The feared East German border guards stood to one side, passive observers. The next day, even more Germans poured across the wall, and started to physically tear it down.

By the beginning of December, peaceful political change had swept through East Germany. The East German parliament revoked the SED’s one-party state clause in the constitution, and scheduled multiparty elections for March 1990. The SED dissolved and reemerged as the “Party of Democratic Socialism” the same month.

In September 1990, East Germany formally reunified with West Germany, and one of the Soviet Union’s strongest allies in Eastern Europe was gone.

Czechoslovakia and the “Velvet Revolution”

Faced with the rapid collapse of its neighboring regimes, the Czech Communist Party government threw in the towel soon after the first mass demonstrations in Prague during November 1989.

More than half a million Czechs took part in the demonstrations and strikes, and on November 28, the government announced that it would leave office and hand over power to a multiparty democracy.

By December 10, a new non-Communist government had been appointed, and in June the following year, the first democratic elections were held.

The Communist Party dissolved itself after Czechoslovakia broke up into the Czech and Slovak republics in 1992, only to reform as separate parties under new names in both those states. In 1993, the Czech parliament declared the Communist Party, as it existed until 1992, a criminal organization.

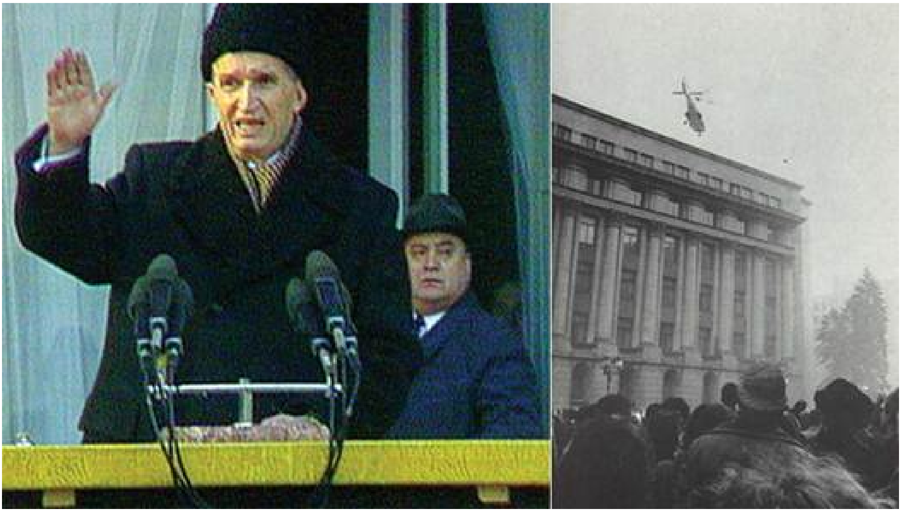
Bulgarian Communists Abandon Power, but Are Voted Back In

By November 1989, the demands for democracy had reached Bulgaria, and on November 11, the Communist Party of Bulgaria sacked its leader in preparation for the dismantling of its one-party state apparatus.

Mass protests in the nation’s capital, Sofia, brought the city to a standstill, and in December the regime announced that it would abandon power in February 1990. A caretaker government was appointed, and the first democratic elections were held in June of that year.

The Bulgarian Communist Party had in the interim dissolved and renamed itself the Bulgarian Socialist Party (BSP). Under this banner, it won the elections, becoming an oddity in post-Cold War Eastern European politics. The Bulgarian economy however soon collapsed, and at the next election the BSP was voted out of power.

OUT-OF-TOUCH CEAUSESCU TRIES TO CALM ROMANIAN CROWD DECEMBER 1989



Two images from Romanian Communist Party leader Nicolae Ceausescu's last appearance in public, December 21, 1989. The aged dictator appeared completely unaware of the strength of the anti-Communist sentiment among the huge crowd which had gathered before the party's headquarters in Bucharest. At one stage he tried to silence the 250,000-strong crowd by raising his hand up and down in a "quiet down" gesture, and when that did not work, offered the crowd a raise of one hundred lei (about the 1989 equivalent of $6) per month. The crowd turned nasty, and Ceausescu was forced to flee the building by helicopter. He was arrested and executed three days later.

Romanian Revolution Ends in Execution of Communist Party Leaders

Romania was the only Eastern European Communist state to dispense with its rulers through outright violence. The ruling Romanian Communist Party (or in Romanian, the Partidul Comunist Roman, or PCR) was the most Stalinist of all the Warsaw Pact nations, and the most intransigent.

The end, however, came quickly, if violently. Mass street protests in December 1989 were met with government violence, force, and over one thousand Romanians were killed during ongoing battles between crowds and state security forces in many of the nation's cities. The killings only served to inflame passions further, and after a week, the state's power structure could not maintain itself in the face of such a mass popular uprising. On December 22, the Romanian Army announced that it would no longer support the regime, and instead led the mass protests in an attack on the PCR headquarters in Bucharest.

PCR leader and longtime hard-liner, Nicolae Ceausescu, was forced to flee by helicopter from the roof of the building, but was arrested two days later by Romanian Army soldiers near Targoviste. After a two-hour trial, Ceausescu and his wife were shot dead by a firing squad. The proceedings were broadcast later that day on Romanian television. An interim government took over and multiparty elections were held in April 1990. The PCR ceased functioning in December 1989.

Albania

Albania had been under Communist control since the end of the Second World War, and was a member of the Warsaw Pact until 1968, when it withdrew to follow its own ideological path.

Nonetheless, the anti-Communist uprisings of 1989 spread to Albania and took the form of protests and riots in several major cities. The Communist regime collapsed under the wave of protests, but won the first multiparty elections held in March 1991. Economic collapse followed, and the Communists were voted out of office the following year.

Yugoslavia

The Communist state of Yugoslavia, or to give it its proper name, the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, was, like Albania, not a member of the Warsaw Pact and veered away from Soviet Communist theory.

Constitutional reforms in Yugoslavia started in the mid-1980s, and by 1988 the first non-Communist opposition party was formed. Several more were created the next year, but the final breakdown in the Yugoslav state came about with the ethnic splits which divided up the country, as outlined in an earlier section of this work. Yugoslavia was the last quasi-Communist state in Eastern Europe to collapse, and none of the successor Communist groups achieved any significant measure of success in elections held in the partitioned states.

Soviet Union's Communist Hard-liners Plan Gorbachev's Downfall

Communist Party hard-liners in the Soviet Union watched the unfolding drama in Eastern Europe with horror. They realized that Gorbachev's reform process would inevitably lead to democracy, westernization, and the destruction of the USSR.

The turning point came when the state of Russia declared its sovereignty on June 12, 1990, under the premiership of Boris Yeltsin. The Russian state parliament then passed a number of laws which contradicted the laws passed by the Supreme Soviet (which was still dominated by Gorbachev reformers).

By the next year, the crisis had deepened. The economic reforms had stalled and the states of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Georgia had declared their independence from the Soviet Union. The Supreme Soviet attempted to compromise with the states and form a "New Union Treaty" which would have turned the Soviet Union into a federation of independent republics with a common president. The signing date of the new treaty was set for August 20, 1991. The Communist hard-liners knew that time was running out.

The head of the KGB (Soviet secret police), Vladimir Kryuchkov; Soviet Defense Minister Dmitry Yazov; Internal Affairs Minister Boris Pugo; Premier Valentin Pavlov; Vice-President Gennady Yanayev; Soviet Defense Council deputy chief Oleg Baklanov; Gorbachev secretariat head Valeriy Boldin, and CPSU Central Committee Secretary Oleg Shenin, together formed a conspiracy to seize power and reverse the reforms before the new treaty could be signed.

Four of the conspirators went to see Gorbachev at his holiday home in the Crimea on August 18 in an attempt to persuade him to declare a state of emergency or to resign. Gorbachev refused, and he was then held prisoner in his house by a KGB squad.

BORIS YELTSIN LEADS ANTI-COMMUNIST COUP DEFIANCE AT RUSSIAN PARLIAMENT

Elected president of Russia, Boris Yeltsin, addresses the huge crowd in front of the Russian parliament building, August 19, 1991. Communist hard-liners had attempted to seize power to prevent the breakup of the Soviet Union and had ordered tanks into Moscow. The Russian people rose in revolt and the coup attempt was crushed. It was the final step in the dissolution of the USSR.

The "August Putsch"

The conspirators now gathered once more in Moscow to launch what would become known as the "August Putsch." They issued a "Declaration of the Soviet Leadership," declared a state of emergency, and seized control of all the state radio and television stations. Vice-President Yanayev issued a proclamation declaring himself president with the excuse that Gorbachev was too ill to fulfil his duties, and ordered the banning of all non-CPSU-supporting newspapers in Moscow.

Tanks and armored cars appeared in the streets of Moscow in preparation for the resistance which the hard-liners expected to erupt. Russian president Yeltsin, an early target of the plotters, who was somehow missed in an early set of planned arrests, appeared in public on the morning of August 19, 1991 in front of the Russian parliament building. He issued a declaration which called for a general strike, demanded that Gorbachev address the nation, and urged the army not to take part in the coup attempt.

Within hours, thousands of Muscovites had gathered around the parliament building. Barricades were erected and Yeltsin supporters prepared themselves for a fight. Suddenly, one of the tank battalions declared itself loyal to Yeltsin and Russia, and took up position with Yeltsin outside the parliament building.

The coup planners then ordered the military units which had not defected to Yeltsin to attack the parliament building. After a single clash between an armored vehicle and a civilian barricade not far from the parliament (in which three Yeltsin supporters were killed), the army units withdrew. The coup attempt had failed.

The conspirators then tried to get Gorbachev to speak to them, but he refused and instead demanded that he be freed from house arrest and that his lines of communication (which had been cut off by the KGB) be restored. Faced with no alternative, the conspirators agreed.

Gorbachev issued a statement in which he denounced the conspirators and dismissed them from all their offices. He returned to Moscow, and together with Yeltsin, was given a hero's welcome in the city. All the conspirators—bar one, Boris Pugo, who committed suicide, were put on trial for treason. Surprisingly, they were all granted amnesty in 1994 and some were even reelected to office.

The CPSU and Soviet Union Dissolved

The Supreme Soviet moved to replace the heads of some regional administrations who had supported the attempted coup. The old Russian imperial colors replaced the hammer and sickle as the new Russian flag.

On August 24, Gorbachev announced his resignation as general secretary of the CPSU, and on August 29, Yeltsin issued an order which effectively banned the party in Russia. The CPSU, which had ruled the Soviet Union with an iron hand since 1917, was no more. Hard-line Communists reorganized themselves into new parties, some of which enjoyed significant support in the post-Soviet era.

The August Putsch also spelled the death knell for the Soviet Union. By the end of 1991, eleven of the former Soviet Republics had declared independence and broken away to form their own sovereign states.

Finally, on December 8, 1991, the Soviet Union was formally dissolved at a meeting in Belarus between Belorussian state president Stanislav Shushkevich, Russian state president Boris Yeltsin, and Ukrainian state president Leonid Kravchuk.

THE LAST "SOVIET"

The last Supreme Soviet meets, December 26, 1991, to vote itself out of existence. It was a fait accompli, hence almost none of the delegates even bothered to attend, as is clearly visible in this photograph.

The Soviet Union was formally dissolved and replaced with the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). Gorbachev denounced the dissolution of the Soviet Union, but reality had overtaken him and he resigned. The last Supreme Soviet met on December 25, 1991, and voted itself out of existence.

The USSR had come to an end and split up into eleven distinct ethnic and racially separate units: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belorussia (renamed Belarus), Kazakstan, Kirghiziya (renamed Kyrgyzstan), Moldavia (renamed Moldova), Russia, Tadzhikistan (renamed Tajikistan), Turkmenia (renamed Turkmenistan), the Ukraine, and Uzbekistan.

This breakup did not take place without incident. In December 1994, Russian troops invaded the republic of Chechnya in southern Russia, which had declared its independence in November 1991.

After a devastating war in which more than thirty thousand people were killed, the Russians withdrew in March 1996. Chechnya remained a thorn in Russia's side and is the source of much Islamic-origin terrorism in Russia.

Economic Hardship Follows Communist Collapse

The history of Russia and many of the former Eastern European Communist bloc nations since 1990 has been one of extreme economic hardship caused by the problems inherent in transferring an economic system from state to private ownership.

This process, particularly in Russia, also opened the door to economic exploitation by an elite group of insiders who had access to important market information before it became public knowledge.

Many of these insiders—often former Communist Party apparatchiks—were able to gain huge wealth in the privatization process of Russian state industries such as the gas and oil supply sectors by buying up the rights and infrastructure at rock-bottom prices.

A disproportionately large number of this new ultrarich class were Jewish. According to an article published by the Jerusalem Center for Public Affairs in September 1999, the claim by Russians that "Jews control a disproportionately large share of the Russian economy and Russian media certainly has some basis in fact. Between 50 and 80 percent of the Russian economy is said to be in Jewish hands, with the influence of the five Jews among the eight individuals commonly referred to as 'oligarchs' particularly conspicuous. (An oligarch is understood to be a member of a small group that exercises control in a government.

"The five oligarchs of Jewish descent are Boris Berezovsky, Mikhail Friedman, Vladimir Gusinsky, Mikhail Khodorkovsky, and Alexander Smolensky. The other oligarchs are Vagit Alekperov, Vladimir Potanin, and Rem Vyakhirev.)

"Perhaps the most famous (and simultaneously the most infamous) of the oligarchs is Boris Berezovsky. In common with most of the other Jewish oligarchs, Berezovsky controls industries in three critical areas: the extraction and sale of a major natural resource, such as oil, as a source of great wealth; a large bank (useful in influencing industry and transferring assets abroad); and several major media outlets (useful for exerting influence and attacking rivals).

"He also controls a significant share of the Aeroflot airline and the Moscow automobile industry" ("The Role of Politics in Contemporary Russian Anti-Semitism," Betsy Gidwitz, *Jerusalem Letter,* Jerusalem Center for Public Affairs, No, 414, September 15, 1999).

The Jewish dominance of the "oligarchs" and their role in post-Soviet Russian society has become controversial in and outside Russia, and steps by the state to prosecute individuals guilty of the worst excesses resulted in claims of anti-Semitism levelled against many Russian politicians.

Largest Concentration of Whites on Earth

The population of the territories which made up the USSR at the time of its dissolution was estimated to be around 250 million.

In 2010, some 187.5 million people lived in the three main states which comprised the Commonwealth of Independent States, or CIS, namely Belarus (9.5 million), the Ukraine (46 million), and Russia (141 million).

Of this total, as many as 160 million or more are of white European origin. Although official projections are that the white Russian population will decline by several million within the first few decades of the twenty-first century, the combined population of Eastern Europe and "white" Russia is still the largest concentration of Europeans on the planet.

This fact will, without question, play an important role in the unfolding events of racial history.

CHAPTER 68: The Changing Face—Nonwhite Immigration into the White Heartlands

The dominating theme of white history during the last quarter of the twentieth century was the large-scale immigration of Third World immigrants into Europe, Australia, New Zealand, and North America.

This population movement—which is almost exclusively one-way (nonwhite to white countries) has occurred via two avenues: legal and illegal immigration. Whatever the channel used, the reality is that millions and millions of nonwhites have entered these formerly majority white nations, and, unless this situation is reversed, will overwhelm them before the end of the twenty-first century.

AFRICAN INVASION OF EUROPE ACROSS THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA

An Italian immigration patrol intercepts an overloaded boat full of would-be immigrants from Africa off the coast of Malta in the Mediterranean Sea. During the first decade of the twenty-first century, hundreds of thousands of Africans attempted to enter Europe in this manner. Most managed to stay in Europe thanks to liberal "human rights" laws in the European Union.

Europe—Nonwhite Immigration Steadily Increasing

According to the European Union's (EU) official statistics agency, Eurostat (based in Brussels, Belgium), as of January 2009 there were officially 31,779,900 "non-nationals" resident in the twenty-seven nations which make up the EU (Eurostat, "Total population and resident non-national population by group of citizenship," Migration and Migrant Population Statistics, 2009).

Eurostat's 2010 report on migration trends said that "Looking at the distribution by continent of origin of citizens from non-member countries living in EU Member States, the largest proportion (38.1 percent) were citizens of a European country outside of the EU-27, a total of 7.2 million people; among these more than half were citizens of Turkey, Albania or Ukraine.

"The second biggest group was from Africa (24.6 percent), followed by Asia (19.8 percent), the Americas (16.6 percent) and Oceania (0.9 percent). More than half of the citizens of African countries that were living in the EU were from North Africa, often from Morocco or Algeria. Many Asian non-nationals living in the EU came from south or east Asia, in particular from India or China. Citizens of Ecuador, Brazil and Colombia made up the largest share of non-nationals from the Americas living in the EU" (ibid).

These figures do not, of course, detail the true racial implications of the mass immigration process which is underway—because the Eurostat counts are based only on nationality and not racial origin. Therefore, any Third World immigrant who has acquired EU nationality is counted as an "EU" citizen and excluded from the migration statistics.

Eurostat has refused to provide population figures based on race, but did add in its 2010 report that "90 percent of those who acquired citizenship of a Member State in 2008 were previously citizens of non-member countries; this was the case in nearly all of the Member States. As in previous years, the largest groups that acquired citizenship of an EU Member State in 2008 were citizens of Morocco (64 000, corresponding to 9 percent of all citizenships granted) and Turkey (50 000, or 7 percent). Compared with 2007, the number of Moroccans acquiring citizenship in the EU rose by 7 percent while the number of Turkish people acquiring citizenship fell by 10 percent. The largest share of Moroccans acquired their new citizenship in France (45 percent), Italy (14 percent) and Spain (13 percent). The largest share of Turkish people acquired their new citizenship in Germany (49 percent) or in France (21 percent)" (ibid).

It is clear that the vast number of "new citizens"—and therefore of population growth—in Europe have originated in the Third World. Furthermore, the majority of the "new" residents of the EU are young, which means that the racial demographic change will be even more obvious as the white population dies off due to old age.

Nonwhite Majority in Western Europe before 2050

Nonwhite immigration into Europe started in significant numbers after the 1950s, and has sped up considerably since then. It was previously estimated that at the rate of immigration and natural reproduction rates among Third World immigrants, Europe would become majority nonwhite by 2090.

New immigration trends have however made that estimate obsolete. The nonwhite immigrant population grew exponentially during the 1990s and the first decade of the twenty-first century, and demographers have predicted that western Europe is set to be overrun by the Third World before the year 2050.

The problem is twofold: massive nonwhite immigration and a declining white birthrate. The figures speak for themselves: in 1998, 3.2 percent of the population of Spain were "foreign-born" according to government statistics. By 2007 (less than ten years later), the figure was 13.4 percent.

Islamic immigration and reproduction rates (paid for by Europe's welfare system) have ensured that Europe's Muslim population doubles every seven years. In 2009, the top seven baby boys' names in Brussels, Belgium, were Mohamed, Adam, Rayan, Ayoub, Mehdi, Amine, and Hamza.

Portugal and Spain

As of 2007 Portugal had 10,617,575 inhabitants of whom about 332,137 were legal immigrants, mostly from the Third World. By the end of 2003, legal immigrants represented about 4.1 percent of the population. This is a dramatic increase, considering that in 1992, only 1.3 percent of the population was foreign-born. This does, of course, exclude a significant number of illegal immigrants, of whom there is no exact number available.

Since 2000, Spain has absorbed more than three million immigrants, boosting its population by 10 percent. By 2005, the Third World immigrant population had topped 4.5 million—with the vast majority being Moroccan, Ecuadorian, and Colombian. In that year, a regularization program increased the legal immigrant population by 700,000 people. Since 2005, the immigrant population has continued to grow by leaps and bounds, and by 2008 it was estimated that the Third World element had reached 15 percent—out of a total population of some 40.5 million. The growing immigrant population is the main reason for the slight increase in Spain's fertility rate. From 2002 through 2008 the Spanish population grew by 8 percent—of which 6 percent were of foreign extraction.

NONWHITE RIOTS MARK DISAPPEARANCE OF WHITES IN FRENCH CITIES

France has suffered from annual nonwhite riots since the 1980s, but starting in 2005, the unrest assumed a more serious nature. This is because nonwhite immigrants have started to form majorities in the urban areas of many French cities. This in turn has established many "no-go" areas for French police.

France

Excluding the descendants of already legally admitted non-European immigrants, the French National Institute of Statistics (INSEE) estimated that there were 4.9 million foreign-born immigrants in France in 2006. This means that fully 8 percent of the population in that year were new arrivals in France. To this figure must be added the number of French citizens who are second or more generation descendants of immigrants from the Third World. In 1999, the INSEE estimated that this figure was around 6.7 million.

According to a 2004 study, there were approximately 14 million persons of foreign ancestry, defined as either immigrants or people with at least one immigrant parent, grand-parent, or great-grandparent.

These are, of course, only the official figures, and do not include illegal immigration, which has been, and continues to be, substantial. In 2004, it was estimated that the total legal and illegal immigrant presence in France was approximately 14 million individuals. Considering that France's total population in July 2008 was some 60.8 million, it is a reasonable estimate to assume that, in total, some 21 or 22 percent of the population was non-European in origin.

Belgium and the Netherlands

Although geographically a small country, Belgium is one of the most densely populated countries on the mainland of Europe. In July 2008, official figures estimated that some 10.4 million people were living in some thirty thousand square kilometers—and at least 10 percent of the population was foreign born.

In Brussels, the foreign-born population makes up 28.5 percent of the city's 970,000 residents. Third World immigrants are mostly Moroccans, Turks, and Congolese, the latter from the ex-Belgian colony in Africa. In 2008, about half of the Moroccan community were younger than fifteen, which means that well within their lifetime, Brussels, the capital of the EU, will be a massively majority Third World—and Muslim—city.

According to the Dutch government figures from 2009, about 20 percent of the population of the Netherlands is defined as having "non-Western" roots. This translates to about 3 million out of the total population of 16.6 million—with at least one and a half million being Muslims, mostly from Turkey and Morocco. Among the young in the big cities such as Rotterdam, these immigrants are already in the majority.

RACIAL DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE IN THE NETHERLANDS

This street scene in Amsterdam, the Netherlands is repeating itself all over Europe. By 2005, more than a quarter of all school-age children in the Netherlands were nonwhite. This means that in less than three generations, white Dutch people will become a minority in their own country.

Germany

In 2007, more than 16 million people in Germany were of non-German descent (first and second generation, including mixed heritage). This represents 20 percent of the total population of 82 million. However, not all of these immigrants were of Third World origin, and estimates are that between 12 and 15 percent of the resident population of Germany are nonwhite.

Ominously, the young are more likely to be of foreign descent than the old. Some 30 percent of the population aged fifteen years and younger have at least one parent born abroad. In the big cities, 60 percent of those aged five years and younger have at least one parent born abroad. The largest source of nonwhite immigration into Germany has been from Turkey, although the liberal asylum laws that country had until the mid-1990s encouraged several million other nonwhite immigrants from Africa and Asia as well.

Britain

According to official Office for National Statistics (ONS) government estimates, the UK's population in 2010 was just over 61 million, of which 6,620,200, or 11 percent, were of nonwhite origin.

This figure is most likely inaccurate, as it does not include the estimated one million illegal immigrants which government sources estimated were present in Britain in 2008, and also the large number of persons of mixed racial origin. Immigration statistics produced by Professor David Coleman at Oxford University in 2010 predicted that white British people would become a minority in Britain by 2066. Among younger age groups, this racial demographic swing will occur even sooner, he said.

Furthermore, the age spread of the immigrant population has made it likely that white British people will become a minority within thirty or forty years. For example, in January 2001, white British children were a minority in London, Birmingham, and Leicester, three of the UK's largest cities. A 2007 report from Manchester University said that Birmingham would become a minority white city by the year 2027.

In 2005, the ONS issued a report which said that 36 percent of all births in England and Wales were not "white British" ("Birthweight and gestational age by ethnic group, England and Wales 2005: introducing new data on births," Kath Moser, Office for National Statistics).

This figure did not include births to second and third generation immigrant mothers. Figures released by the ONS in January 2009 revealed that the Muslim population in Britain had grown by more than 500,000 to 2.4 million in just four years. Their population multiplied ten times faster than the rest of society ("Muslim population 'rising 10 times faster than rest of society,'" the *Times,* January 30, 2009).

BRITISH GOVERNMENT ACTIVELY RECRUITS NONWHITES INTO BRITAIN

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PECKHAM
£75,000 +SURPLUS =VER
LLU 714

During the 1950s, the British government launched a deliberate policy of recruiting nonwhites from the Caribbean and elsewhere within the Commonwealth to work and settle in Britain. In this way, Jamaicans such as those above found employment as bus drivers in London. Nonwhite immigration into Britain has continued ever since.

Austria and Switzerland

According to the Austrian Statistical Bureau, there were 814,800 foreigners legally resident in Austria in 2006. This represented 9.8 percent of the total population of 8.2 million. This does not take into account all naturalizations, which, when added to the 2006 figure, give a foreign population of at least 15 percent. In 2008, 16 percent of Vienna's population was Third World in origin. A Third World-origin figure of around 10 percent is therefore the most likely accurate estimate as of 2010.

In 2008, the total resident population of Switzerland was estimated at around 7.5 million—of which at least 1.5 million were not Swiss in origin. While this figure will, of course, include First

Worlders, an increasing number are from the Third World.

An idea of the extent of Third World immigration to Switzerland can be gained from the Muslim population size. By 2006, Muslims were officially tallied at 4.3 percent of the population, or over a third of a million.

Over 20 percent of all people living in Switzerland in 2009 were foreign nationals. According to government statistics, over half of these foreigners came from non-European countries, which means that it is likely that at least 10 percent of Switzerland's population is Third World in origin.

Italy and Greece

Italy's population in 2008 was estimated to be around 60 million, and official government figures for that year claimed that there were 3.7 million legal immigrants in the country, an increase of 21.6 percent in one year. That figure represented 6.2 percent of the overall population.

In 2009, a further 700,000 immigrants entered Italy, and their numbers have increased through natural reproduction to the point where it is estimated that they will reach 10 million by the year 2020.

Greek government figures released in 2009 showed that in the previous year, some 1.1 million (out of a total population of 11.1 million), or 10 percent of all residents in Greece, were foreign born. In Athens, this figure climbed to 20 percent.

Denmark

Denmark's total population in 2009 was put at 5.4 million, of which, government figures estimated that at least 8 percent or some 430,000 people, were of Third World origin.

In 1980, less than 1 percent of Denmark's population was made up of Third World immigrants, according to figures released by the Danish Immigration Service.

According to Statistics Denmark, the number of resident persons from what they described as "non-Western" countries increased by 520 percent between 1980 and 2005, or by 268,902 individuals, whereas the corresponding growth rate for "Westerners" in the same period was a meager 19.8 percent, or 30,000 people.

This means that 90 percent of the total increase of resident foreigners in Denmark originated in the Third World.

Scandinavia

Norway's population in 2009 was estimated to be some 4.7 million, of whom around 10 percent (465,300 persons) were either Third World immigrants or of immigrant descent. As of January 2005, Norway's refugee population was more than 107,000, or 2.3 percent of the population of that country.

The nonwhite immigrants continue to have much higher birthrates than native Norwegians. In 2005, 64,000 children were born in Norway of two foreign-born parents, compared to only 13,800 people born to parents of European origin. At those rates of growth, Norway will have a nonwhite majority by the year 2035.

Sweden's population in 2009 was set at about nine million, of whom at least 16 percent were foreign-born. Not all of these immigrants were of Third World origin, and the actual number of nonwhites was estimated to be 10 percent, or just fewer than one million.

According to a July 2008 estimate, the total population of Finland was 5.2 million, of which official figures claim, just over 3 percent were foreign. These figures do not, of course, include illegal asylum seekers, but they do include immigrants from other EU countries and Russia. Hence the Third World element is likely to be just slightly smaller than the 3 percent total estimated in 2008.

This is set to change. According to Statistics Finland, 26,050 persons immigrated to Finland from foreign countries during 2007—of whom only 4,000 came from EU countries.

ISLAMIC GROWTH IN RUSSIA

Russia's large Muslim population has a much higher birthrate than white Russians, and represents the single greatest demographic and security challenge to western Russia. Muslims from Chechnya and elsewhere were responsible for a large number of high profile terrorist attacks in Moscow and other Russian cities.

Russia

The 2010 census estimated the population of Russia to be 142,905,200. Of this number, ethnic white Russians made up 80 percent, with the majority of the nonwhite population concentrated in the far east and south of the country.

This means that there are around 109 million whites in Russia, as of 2010, and in excess of 35 million people of other races, which include central Asiatic and Mongoloid. Russia's most pressing problem is not immigration from Africa (although an influx is increasing year-on-year) but in immigrants from the mixed south and Muslim former Soviet republics: Georgians, Armenians, Azerbaijanis Tajiks, and others. In 2009, it was estimated that there were 12 million illegal immigrants in Russia, most from these regions.

It has been predicted that the Chinese population in the eastern portions of Russia, that is, beyond the Ural Mountains, will become the dominant ethnic group there by the year 2030.

Eastern Europe

The states of Eastern Europe were, in 2010, those areas least affected by mass Third World immigration. This is primarily due to their comparative isolation until the time of the fall of the Soviet Union, and by the economic damage inflicted by five decades of Communism. This economic backwardness resulted in relatively (compared to western Europe) poor societies, which did not attract Third Worlders. As these nations develop and advance economically, this is sure to change.

The only significant non-First World population element in these nations is either Gypsies or Turks, with both of those groups dating to pre-twenty-first century migrations. All of the figures below were accurate as of 2008, unless otherwise specified.

Poland had a population of just over 38 million, of whom less than a few hundred thousand were of recent non-European extraction. Some 96 percent of the population was ethnically Polish, with more than half of the remaining 4 percent being European of some other nationality. The estimated 1.5 to 2 percent of the remaining population was thought to be Gypsy in origin.

The Czech Republic had a population of some 10.4 million, of whom less than 100,000 were of recent Third World extraction. It was estimated that between 250,000 and 350,000 Gypsies lived in the Czech state.

The Slovak Republic had a population of some 5.4 million, of whom less than 1 percent were of recent Third World extraction. However, the Gypsy population was estimated to be anywhere between 5 and 10 percent of the population.

Hungary had a population of just fewer than 11 million, of whom less than 1 percent were of recent Third World extraction. The number of Gypsies was estimated to be in excess of 600,000, although the exact figures were disputed.

Romania had a population of just over 22 million people, of whom around 92 percent were ethnically European in origin. The rest were either Gypsy, or, bizarrely enough, Chinese, who had an identifiable presence in the capital city of Bucharest.

The majority of the Third World-origin population was either Turkish (10 percent) or Gypsy (at least 5 percent, and possibly more).

The population of the Ukraine was some 46 million, of whom less than 2 percent were non-European in origin. Belarus is another former Soviet state bordering the Ukraine. It had a population of some 10.3 million, with less than 1 percent of non-European origin.

Moldova had a total population of around 4.4 million. Less than 2 percent of the population were of non-European origin, according to that country's government.

The six constituent parts of the former Yugoslavia had, as of 2010, an extremely low Third World immigrant origin population, estimated to be less than 1 percent. Slovenia had, in 2002, a population of just over two million, of whom less than 1 percent was identified as non-Slovenian. All of the Baltic States—Estonia (population 1.3 million), Latvia (2.3 million), and Lithuania (3.3 million) —had Third World populations of less than 1 percent as of 2009.

CANADA SET TO LOSE MAJORITY WHITE STATUS BY 2050 AND POSSIBLY EARLIER

CATHAY RESTAURANT
共同建設加拿大
TOGETHER- we are Canada

A 2009 procession of Chinese immigrations in a Canadian main street illustrates the racial demographic change underway in that country. If current immigration and natural reproduction levels are maintained, Canada is set to lose its white majority status by 2050 at the latest, and probably earlier.

Canada

According to Canadian government estimates, the total population of that nation reached just over 34 million in 2010, a huge leap from the 28 million figure of 1996. Third World immigration is almost exclusively behind this population growth. In Canada, Third World immigrants are called “visible minorities” and according to the 2006 census, their numbers increase at a rate five times the growth in the population as a whole.

In the five years between 2001 and 2006, the Third World population increased 27.2 percent to nearly 5.1 million individuals, with the majority coming from China, the Philippines, and India. In 2009, Third World immigrants made up 42.9 percent of Toronto’s residents, and 41.7 percent of Vancouver’s population.

As of 2007, nearly 20 percent of Canada’s population was born elsewhere, and official government projections are that by 2031, 33 percent of the country’s population will be of Third World immigrant origin.

This figure is most likely an underestimate, as the higher reproduction rate of Third Worlders has not been factored in. In reality, Canada is set to lose its white majority population by 2040.

ILLEGAL LATINO INVASION SET TO TURN AMERICA INTO A THIRD WORLD COUNTRY

A Mexican photographed climbing over US–Mexico border. Illegal immigration from Latin America is America's single largest demographic issue, and if allowed to continue unabated, will see much of the US turned into a Third World country within a few decades.

America

The 2010 US Census reported that the total population of America was 310,233,000. Of this number, the census said, 246,630,000 were "white alone," 39,909,000 were "black alone," 3,188,000 were "American Indian and Alaska Native alone," 14,415,000 were "Asian alone," 592,000 were "Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone," 5,499,000 were "Two or more races," 49,726,000 were of "Hispanic origin" (although the report cautioned that "Persons of Hispanic origin may be any race"), and that the "Not Hispanic, White alone" category numbered 200,853,000 (Table 11. "Resident Population Projections by Race, Hispanic-Origin Status, and Age: 2010 and 2015," US Census Bureau, Statistical Abstract of the United States: 2011).

It is the latter figure which approximates the actual white population of the US, which means that the European-origin element of the American population stood at 64 percent at the beginning of 2010. This is a dramatic decline from 1960, where whites made up 88 percent of the US's population (158,831,732 out of a total of 179,323,175 people).

This figure masks an even more serious factor for the future of white America, namely that in 2009, the majority of live births there were to nonwhites. In 2009, non-Hispanic whites made up just under half of all children three years old, which was the youngest age group shown in the Census Bureau's survey.

Just ten years earlier, more than 60 percent of children in that age group were white. According to the 2010 data, nonwhites babies under the age of two outnumbered white babies for the first time.

The data showed that in 2009, twelve states and the District of Columbia had white populations below 50 percent among children under age five: Hawaii, California, New Mexico, Texas, Arizona, Nevada, Florida, Maryland, Georgia, New Jersey, New York, and Mississippi. Just ten years earlier, "only" six states and the District of Columbia had nonwhite majorities.

The massive increase is almost exclusively due to immigration, mainly from Mexico, Central and South America, and other Third World nations. An August 2008 report from the US Census Bureau (USCB) projected that by 2042, whites in America would be an absolute minority.

Population projections made by the USCB in 2008 predicted that white Americans would be 68 percent of the population in 2010. This estimate was 4 percent out, and when it is considered that nonwhites became the majority of live births in 2009, it is likely that even the 2042 cutoff date is optimistic. The only slightly positive news for white Americans from the USCB is that even though their percentage of the total population is set to drop further, their real numbers will remain relatively constant for several decades.

After the year 2050 there will be a sudden and dramatic decline, however, as old age takes its natural toll (unless the white birthrate increases).

Australia

Australia's population in 2007 was 21 million, an increase of 2 million from five years previously. Almost all of this growth was from Third World immigration.

During the 2006 census, 1,696,568 Australian residents declared that they had ancestral backgrounds from Central Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia, or East Asia, either alone or in combination with one other ancestry. This represents about 8.1 percent of the total population.

Between 1984 and 1995, 40 percent of all migrants entering Australia were of Asian origin. In August 2003, a newspaper report revealed that 14 percent of the residents of Perth, one of Australia's largest cities, were born in Southeast Asia.

Over half of the population of inner city suburbs such as Highgate and East Perth (well-known Vietnamese enclaves) were born outside Australia. At current levels, demographic trends are that Australia will be at least 27 percent Asian by 2025.

MOSQUE IN SYDNEY SYMBOLIZES THIRD WORLD IMMIGRATION INTO AUSTRALIA

OPEN DAY
ALL WELCOME
AUBURN GALLIPOLI
MOSQUE

The largest mosque in Australia, deliberately named the "Auburn Gallipoli" (after the World War I battle where Australian troops were defeated in an attempt to invade the Islamic Ottoman Empire) is located in Sydney, New South Wales.

According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics, in mid-2006 there were 4,956,863 residents in Australia who were born outside Australia, representing 24 percent of the Australian resident population.

This figure included people born in the following countries: China (Excluding Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Macau), 279,447; Vietnam, 180,352; India, 153,579; Philippines, 135,619; Malaysia, 103,947; Lebanon, 86,599; Sri Lanka, 70,908; Indonesia, 67,952; Fiji, 58,815; Pakistan, 19,768; and Bangladesh, 13,751.

Counting immigration from Asia and the Middle East, and discounting the still numerically insignificant Aboriginal population, Australia's Third World element in 2008 was estimated to be around 12 percent of the country's total population, and was growing rapidly. Given Third World reproduction rates and the natural shrinkage of the First World population, Australia will be close to a Third World majority population well before 2050.

New Zealand

In June 2008, the official government count of the total population of New Zealand was 4.27 million. The population had grown by 40,300, or 1 percent, in the previous calendar year. Of the 2008 population, some 68 percent were of First World extraction.

At current rates of immigration, the First World element of New Zealand's population is projected to drop to less than 60 percent by 2026. The Maori element, set at 14 percent in 2006, will not increase dramatically, and the vast majority of the increase in nonwhite population will come from immigration.

In June 2006, Statistics New Zealand (SNZ), the official government census bureau, estimated that the Asian population would grow from 400,000 to at least 790,000 by 2026. Calculated from 2001 to 2021, SNZ said, the Asian population is set to increase by 145 percent from an estimated 270,000 to 670,000.

The age spread among the population will, however, radically change matters after 2026. According to the 2001 census projections, by 2021 European children will make up 63 percent of all New Zealand children, compared with 74 percent in 2001.

The 2006 census showed that the number of people of Asian descent had increased by 48.9 percent since 2001. This dramatic increase has seen those of Asian ethnicity overtake Pacific peoples as the third largest ethnic group, and demographers believe those of Asian ethnicity will overtake the Maori as the second largest group within twenty years.

Given the increased immigration rates, natural indigenous and immigrant Third World birthrates, and continued First World population decline, it is likely that New Zealand will lose its majority First World population status before the year 2050.

Global White Decline

The racial population figures and projections, as outlined above, mean that, unless mass immigration is halted and reversed, western Europe, North America, Australia, and New Zealand will cease being majority white before the year 2060.

The exponential and explosive growth of the earth's nonwhite population—which doubles itself every thirty years—means that by the year 2100, only 3 percent of the earth's population will be white—a dramatic drop from 1900, when whites made up 30 percent of the globe's population.

CHAPTER 69: Ragnarök—the Coming Fall of the West

Readers who have persevered this far will by now have seen that all the great events of history have a racial basis. The ebb and flow of history is the product of racial and subracial changes, of tribes or nations conquering one another, of lands changing hands between ethnicities.

Once this common thread and underlying cause is understood, history no longer appears to be a meaningless jumble of seemingly unconnected events, but welds into a connected and, ultimately predictable, flow. An understanding of the racial basis of world events allows the reader to predict the future on the basis of what is already known. This is particularly relevant in light of the facts which were overviewed in the previous chapter. The increasing number of nonwhites flooding Europe, North America, Australia, and New Zealand will lead to the changing of the nature and form of those societies. In practical terms this means that European civilization, as it has developed since the Late Paleolithic Age some twenty-seven thousand years ago, will vanish. It will be replaced by a culture and civilization which reflects the character and norms of the new Third World population. This prediction is founded in fact, not conjecture. Already, the effects of the racial change in Western society can be seen by those who have the courage to look.

MICHIGAN CENTRAL STATION—PORTEND OF AMERICA'S FUTURE

According to the 2010 US census, 90 percent of Detroit's population was nonwhite. This percentage is even higher in the city center. A huge nonwhite population, combined with bankruptcy, crime, decay, and annual arson attacks, have made Detroit—once the US's leading automotive industrial center—into a ruin. The cause has been identical to that which wrecked the ancient civilizations: the replacement of the white population with nonwhites. Above is Michigan Central Station, which used to be the main railway station in Detroit. Today it is a vast multistory ruin, standing as an eerie silent monument to the previously great city whose white inhabitants have long since fled.

Belgium and Sub-Saharan Africa

There are those who dismiss such predictions as being of no consequence. Such an opinion is shortsighted. If the Third World moves en masse to the lands of the First World, and the First World population disappears, then all that will happen is that the entire globe will slip to Third World status.

This is not a desirable state of affairs, for either the First or the Third World. Sub-Saharan Africa is the most backward continent on earth. A famous 1989 World Bank report which dealt with development levels on that continent reported that all of sub-Saharan Africa (excluding the oil-rich Arab states and what was then white-ruled South Africa) had a gross domestic product (GDP) less than that of one tiny European country, Belgium.

The prospect of this impoverishment and social chaos being transferred to the First World through mass immigration is something that should be resisted by people of goodwill of all races.

IMMIGRATION MOVES POVERTY FROM THIRD WORLD TO FIRST

Despite living on the richest continent in the world (in terms of natural resources), Africans live in dire poverty. This, combined with irresponsible reproduction rates, makes many Africans seek better conditions by fleeing to white countries. The end result, as the statistics show, is that the Third World conditions which accompany a Third World population are replicated in those First World countries to which they flee.

Social Discordance

Signs of what sociologists call "social discordance" are already visible to any objective observer. There is, for example, overwhelming evidence which proves a clear link between race and crime. Criminal activity is one of the most prominent of all social indicators and serves as a window into society which reflects a large number of factors such as social status and societal alienation.

In every First World nation that has a significant Third World immigrant element, the crime rate among the nonwhite element of the population is significantly higher than among whites.

This phenomenon occurs in identical format in every nation, without fail. Liberal apologists claim that this high nonwhite crime rate occurs because of "deprivation," "discrimination," "the legacy of slavery" (in the US), "racism;" and a host of other reasons which almost always hold white people responsible in one way or another. There is, of course, never any attempt to explain what causes this "deprivation" in nations which have no "legacy of racism" or history of colonialism.

The backwardness of Africa, for example, referred to above, is inexplicable when the history of Ethiopia is considered. This African state has never been occupied or ruled by a foreign nation, and has had its own formal state structure since at least the first century AD. It is, therefore, older than any formal European state, yet Ethiopia is still classed as a "developing nation."

Ethiopians who have immigrated to European nations have just as high criminal conviction rates as immigrants from former European colonies. In the US, official figures from 2005 showed that over 68 percent of the prison population was nonwhite (black and Hispanic). According to studies produced by "The Sentencing Project" (a liberal advocacy group), on any given day more than one in eight black males in their twenties is in prison.

This has created a political crisis, because many US states have laws which prohibit convicted felons from voting. According to media reports, some 14 percent (or in excess of 1.5 million individuals) of black males have been disenfranchised because of the felon laws.

Similar jailing rates have been replicated in other First World nations, notably in France, where in May 2008 it was revealed that 70 percent of the prison population was Muslim. Given that not all nonwhite immigrants in France are Muslim, the total nonwhite prison population of France must have been even higher.

Nonwhite Racial Mobilization

Another firm indicator of growing social discordance in Western society is the growing phenomenon of nonwhite racial mobilization. This encompasses a wide range of activities which varies from affirmative action to ethnocentric cultural institutions and political activism. The one overriding characteristic of this phenomenon is that the participants, and their ardent supporters among white liberals, would be aghast should whites try to mirror any of these activities.

Separate Political Institutions for Indigenous People

The Canadian government has given separate political rights to Amerinds in terms of the Indian Act of 1951, which allows Canadian Indians to define for themselves who is a “band” (or tribe) member, presumably on grounds of descent (in other words, on racial grounds).

The law also sets aside Indian reservations over which the federal government has limited or no authority. There are in excess of six hundred Indian “regional councils” which cater specifically to the needs of that community. Only Canadian Indians can vote for and be elected to these councils.

In March 1993, the Cree-Naskapi of Quebec and the Sechelt Band of British Columbia became formally self-governing with municipal status and accountability to an “indigenous”-only electorate.

In 1999, the Canadian government set aside a federal territory, created out of the Northwest Territories, called Nunavut. This state, equal in geographic size to western Europe, is specifically for the Inuit people (also known as “Eskimos”). Nunavut means “our land” in the Inuit language.

The Indian reservations in America are far more well-known. There are about 310 such territories, which together comprise 2.3 percent of the area of the United States. These reservations are under what is known as “tribal sovereignty” which means that the Indians have the right to govern themselves. They are officially recognized as “domestic dependent nations,” and one tribe, the Navajo, rules over a territory which is equivalent in size to the state of West Virginia.

In Australia, Aborigines are given preferential treatment. They have a large number of associations organized exclusively on racial lines, such as the Aboriginal Law Council, the National Aboriginal Community Controlled Health Organization, a large number of Aboriginal cooperatives and, of course, an entire government department devoted to administering their affairs. The Native Title Act of 1993 allowed Aborigines to formally claim land on “ancestral” (i.e. racial) grounds. By the first decade of the twenty-first century, nearly 13 percent of Australian territory had been handed over to Aborigines.

There is, of course, nothing inherently wrong with the concept of indigenous people having the right to their own territory as well as political institutions which look after their own communities' interests.

The real point is that these same rights, if claimed by white European people anywhere in the world, would, in the political climate of the early twenty-first century, be dismissed as "racist." It is an obvious case of double standards, where nonwhites are given rights which are denied to white people—even though European peoples are just as indigenous to their homelands as any Third World people.

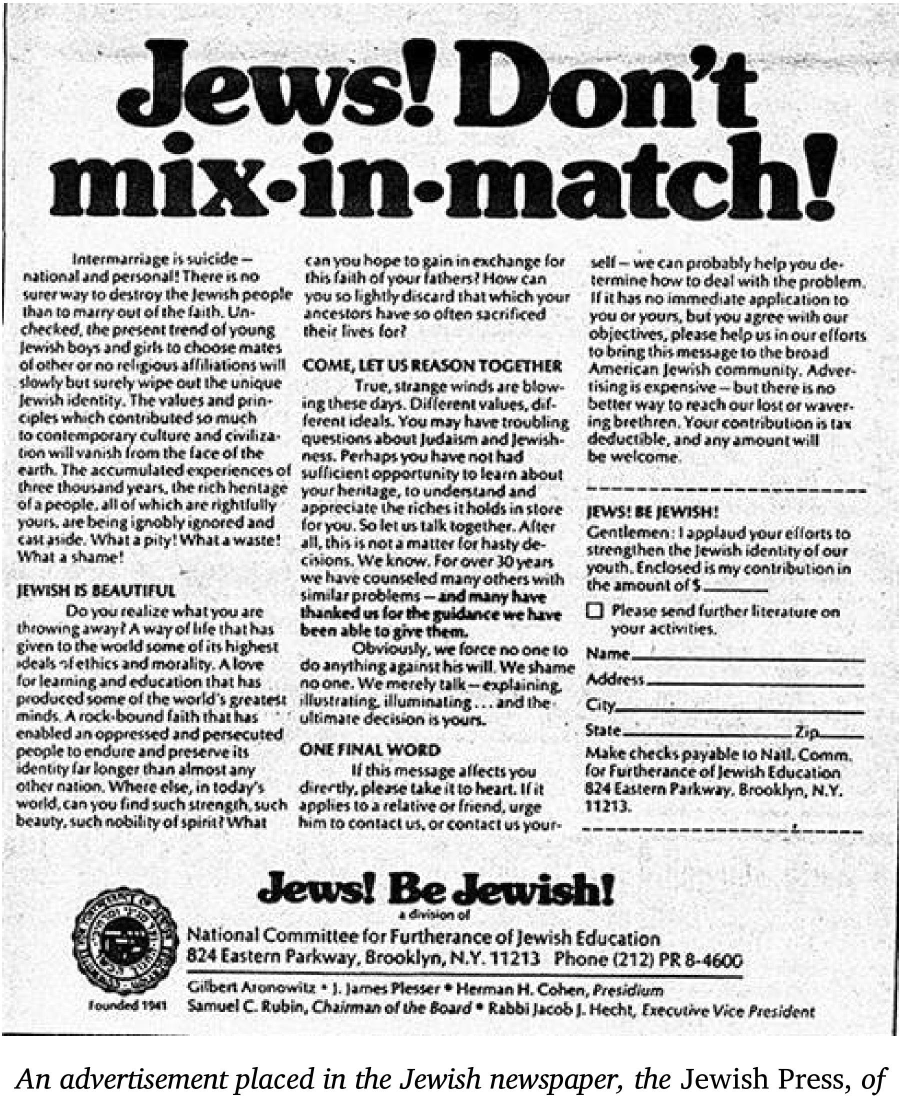
Nonwhite Political Organizations

Yet another example of the blatant double standards applied on racial grounds is the existence of a large number of openly racially-exclusive interest groups—only for nonwhites, of course.

In the US Congress, there is a formally established "Black Congressional Caucus," which is open only to blacks. There are two Hispanic caucuses: the "Congressional Hispanic Caucus" for Hispanic Democrats, and the "Congressional Hispanic Conference" for Hispanic Republicans. In 1994, a "Congressional Asian Pacific American Caucus" for Asians and Pacific Islanders was created.

This organizing on overtly racial lines is not limited to the US Congress. Socially, there are blacks-only television channels ("Black Entertainment Television") and a Miss Black America pageant. Other black organizations include the Association of Black Psychologists, the Black Data Processing Associates, the International Association of Black Actuaries, the National Association for Black Veterans, the National Association of Black Accountants, the National Association of Black Journalists, the National Association of Blacks in Criminal Justice, the National Black Farmers Association, the National Black Law Students Association, the National Black MBA Association, the National Black Nurses Association, the National Black Police Association, the National Conference of Black Lawyers, the National Organization for the Professional Advancement of Black Chemists and Chemical Engineers, the National Organization of Black Women in Law Enforcement, the National Society of Black Engineers, and many more. There are, in fact, too many to list here.

These racially-exclusive organizations have been duplicated in Canada and most European nations where there are significant nonwhite immigrant populations. As with the indigenous land claims issue, any attempt by whites to form a "White Congressional Caucus" or "White Farmers' Association" would, in the politically-correct atmosphere of the early twenty-first century, be dismissed and attacked as "racist."



Jews! Don't mix-in-match!

Intermarriage is suicide – national and personal! There is no surer way to destroy the Jewish people than to marry out of the faith. Unchecked, the present trend of young Jewish boys and girls to choose mates of other or no religious affiliations will slowly but surely wipe out the unique Jewish identity. The values and principles which contributed so much to contemporary culture and civilization will vanish from the face of the earth. The accumulated experiences of three thousand years, the rich heritage of a people, all of which are rightfully yours, are being ignobly ignored and cast aside. What a pity! What a waste! What a shame!

JEWISH IS BEAUTIFUL

Do you realize what you are throwing away? A way of life that has given to the world some of its highest ideals of ethics and morality. A love for learning and education that has produced some of the world's greatest minds. A rock-bound faith that has enabled an oppressed and persecuted people to endure and preserve its identity far longer than almost any other nation. Where else, in today's world, can you find such strength, such beauty, such nobility of spirit? What can you hope to gain in exchange for this faith of your fathers? How can you so lightly discard that which your ancestors have so often sacrificed their lives for?

COME, LET US REASON TOGETHER

True, strange winds are blowing these days. Different values, different ideals. You may have troubling questions about Judaism and Jewishness. Perhaps you have not had sufficient opportunity to learn about your heritage, to understand and appreciate the riches it holds in store for you. So let us talk together. After all, this is not a matter for hasty decisions. We know. For over 30 years we have counseled many others with similar problems – **and many have thanked us for the guidance we have been able to give them.**

Obviously, we force no one to do anything against his will. We shame no one. We merely talk – explaining, illustrating, illuminating . . . and the ultimate decision is yours.

ONE FINAL WORD

If this message affects you directly, please take it to heart. If it applies to a relative or friend, urge him to contact us, or contact us yourself – we can probably help you determine how to deal with the problem. If it has no immediate application to you or yours, but you agree with our objectives, please help us in our efforts to bring this message to the broad American Jewish community. Advertising is expensive – but there is no better way to reach our lost or wavering brethren. Your contribution is tax deductible, and any amount will be welcome.

JEWS! BE JEWISH!

Gentlemen: I applaud your efforts to strengthen the Jewish identity of our youth. Enclosed is my contribution in the amount of $________

☐ Please send further literature on your activities.

Name________________________

Address______________________

City_________________________

State________________ Zip______

Make checks payable to Natl. Comm. for Furtherance of Jewish Education 824 Eastern Parkway, Brooklyn, N.Y. 11213.

Jews! Be Jewish!

a division of

National Committee for Furtherance of Jewish Education
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Founded 1941

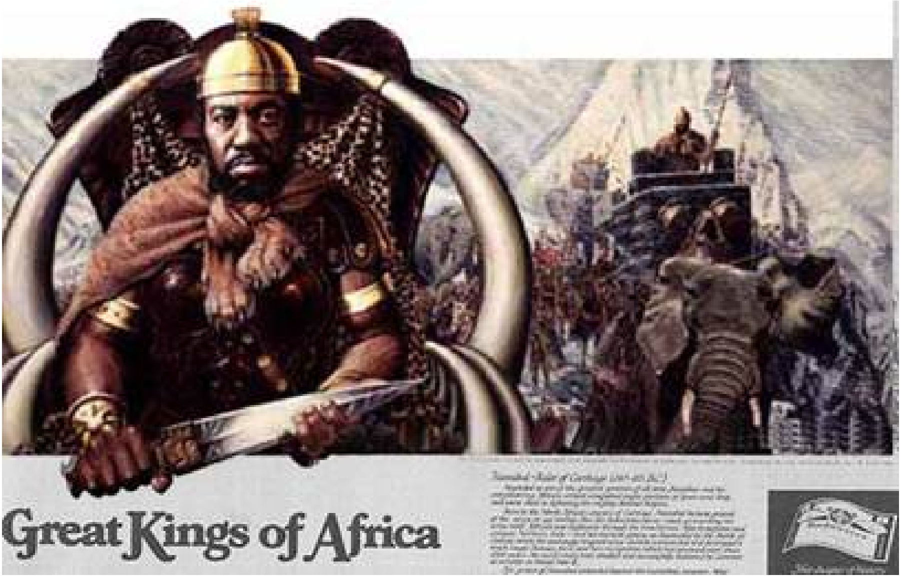
Gilbert Aronowitz • J. James Plesser • Herman H. Cohen, *Presidium*
Samuel C. Rubin, *Chairman of the Board* • Rabbi Jacob J. Hecht, *Executive Vice President*

An advertisement placed in the Jewish newspaper, the Jewish Press, *of January 26, 1973, by an organization called "Jews! Be Jewish." The advertisement correctly points out that Jewish culture will disappear if Jews continue to marry outside of their religion and people. Mixing, the advertisement says, will lead to the disappearance of Jews. This principle is absolutely sound and correct. If the Jews, or any other group, seek to maintain their identity, they must avoid integration. The double standards involved here are, however, obvious: no commercial newspaper would carry an advertisement calling on whites to only marry other whites to preserve white identity.*

Racial History Months

In the US and Britain, officially-endorsed Black History months became an enshrined part of the cultural calendar by the end of the twentieth century. In addition, the US also acquired a Filipino American History Month, a National Hispanic Heritage Month, a Jewish American Heritage Month, a National Tibetan American Heritage Month, and a Puerto Rican Heritage Month. Each of these celebratory months have received recognition from the state, and are subsidized by taxpayers. Yet no consideration has been given to a “White History Month.”

AS RACIAL DEMOGRAPHICS CHANGE, SO DOES CULTURAL INTERPRETATION OF HISTORY AND SOCIETY



The distortion in history has accompanied the shift in racial demographics: the poster (above) was one of several widely distributed in American schools which claimed that the Punic general Hannibal was a black African. A contemporary coin (below) shows his actual racial features. As nonwhite numbers grow, an ever-increasing amount of similar historical distortions have occurred in educational institutions in the West.

Western Civilization in Peril

A civilization rises and falls according to its homogeneity—or otherwise—and whether or not its founding population continues as the majority-dominating element in society. History has shown, time and time again, that when the founding population of any society changes or loses its dominant majority position, then the culture and nature of that society changes accordingly.

There are four ways through which a nation's population can vanish:

1. Obliteration in war;

2. The swamping of its lands through labor-driven immigration;

3. Physical mixing with newcomers; and

4. A decreased birthrate, combined with factors two and three above.

Ancient Mesopotamia, Egypt, Greece, and Rome vanished because those civilizations allowed their lands to be swamped by newcomers, and the same scenario is playing itself out in the present-day Western nations. Unless the demographic trends are checked, whites will be a minority in North America, Europe, Australia, and New Zealand before the end of the twenty-first century. After that, it will only be a matter of time before the white race vanishes completely.

Ragnarök—the Fall of the Gods

In Norse mythology, the end of the world came in the Ragnarök, a series of disasters and a great battle which result in the destruction of the world. This ancient prophecy appears to be coming true. Unless there is a conscious and determined shift in current political, demographic, and societal trends, the end of Western civilization seems imminent, as it is swamped under a wave of Third World immigration.

This is the great lesson of history. May it not fall on deaf ears.

POSTSCRIPT: The Final Call, or, What Can Be Done?

In the Norse legend of the Ragnarök, a new world emerges after the world is immersed in fire and water, and in the new world, the gods and man live in peace ever after.

In the real world, things are not that simple. When the white civilizations of the ancient world were overrun, there were always new territories and new lands to be opened. When Mesopotamia fell, Egypt arose. When Egypt fell, classical Greece arose. When classical Greece fell, Rome arose. When Rome fell, the European states arose. Then the New World was opened, and North America, Australia, and New Zealand were added as white heartlands.

Now, however, these are all threatened by mass Third World immigration. There are no more new territories or lands to be opened. It is the final call for white Western civilization.

Can the West survive? The simple answer is yes, provided some basic steps are taken.

1. First and foremost, white people must have more children. All other political activity is meaningless without this fundamental building block. History, politics, and human affairs are the product of demography. A failure to breed is punished by Nature with extinction.

2. Political activity must be directed at awakening as many white European people as possible to the reality of race and its underpinning of world events.

3. This political activity must always be done in the idiom of the time. All attempts at political necrophilia (which seek to recreate certain past time periods, such as the Ku Klux Klan/Confederacy or National Socialist Germany) are doomed to failure. The era of “white supremacy” is gone, and all attempts to recreate it are foolish. The white race will live or die in the twenty-first century, and not in the centuries gone by.

4. This political activity must always be directed in reasonable, moderate, and socially acceptable language, terms, and presentation. There is, after all, nothing wrong with demanding the same rights which are accorded to all Third World nations (freedom from colonization and the right to self-determination) for First World

nations. It is, in fact, entirely reasonable and normal.

5. This political activity must not be restricted to “only” publishing the odd book, website, or journal. It is a non sequitur to argue that there “are no politicians who support the interests of white people” when the people who make that complaint are not involved in practical politics. Of course there will be no pro-white politicians if all the politically-aware people who are pro-white, do not campaign and stand for office.

6. Political realism must be the watchword for all activists. Too many enter politics with false expectations of instant victory, and burn out when the expected glory does not materialize. Activists must be aware that the racial worldview goes against nearly a century of leftist indoctrination. The mass media is, for the greatest part, completely hostile and in the hands of those who applaud the racial destruction of the West. It is no easy ride, and victories on a pro-white political platform are, simply put, the hardest-to-achieve objectives which any activist will experience.

7. Fortunately, it is not necessary to win outright. All that is needed is for a significant minority of Western people to be awakened to the racial realities. The biggest threat to the future existence of the white race does not come from other racial groups, but rather from the sway which white liberals hold over society. All other races and groups do what they do because the ruling white liberal elite allows it.

And therein lies the rub; the nature of modern liberalism is suicidal. Liberals will, given enough time, destroy themselves. They will stop having children; they will miscegenate, and they will then cease to exist. As long as pro-white political activists have had sufficient children and engaged in sensible, reasonable political activity, their political views will be unopposed among the surviving white community.

Those who might argue that the racially-conscious surviving numbers will be too small to matter, should be aware that the founding European population in Upper Paleolithic times was no more than a few hundred thousand at most. There are already more people than that—millions, in fact—who have voted for pro-white or anti-immigration parties in Europe.

There is no cause for pessimism about numbers.

8. Finally, the surviving white communities will have to be realistic about their geographic circumstances. It is no good to be a

racially-conscious minority in a sea of hostile nonwhites, as the Afrikaners in South Africa discovered to their cost. As such, serious consideration will have to be given to white geographic consolidation once the time comes. In this regard, Eastern Europe and “white Russia” are likely to play a decisive role in providing a homeland in which white people from around the world will be able to reform, regroup, and survive—and hopefully learn from the lessons of history.

Is any of this possible? You, dear reader, and your actions, will help decide the answer to that question.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Genetic Evidence for the Aryan Invasion of India

"Analyses of the male Y chromosome, plus genes hidden in small cellular bodies called mitochondria, show that today's genetic patterns agree with accounts of ancient Indo-European warriors' conquering the Indian subcontinent. The invaders apparently shoved the local men aside, took their women and set up the rigid caste system that exists today. Their descendants are still the elite within Hindu society. Thus today's genetic patterns, the researchers explained, vividly reflect a historic event, or events, that occurred 3,000 or 4,000 years ago. The gene patterns 'are consistent with a historical scenario in which invading Caucasoids—primarily males—established the caste system and occupied the highest positions, placing the indigenous population, who were more similar to Asians, in lower caste positions.' The data implies then 'that there was a group of males with European affinities who were largely responsible for this invasion 3,000 or 4,000 years ago,' said geneticist Lynn Jorde of the University of Utah. Further, 'when we look at the different components within the upper caste, the group with the greatest European similarity of all is the warrior class, the Kshatriya, who are still at the top of the Hindu castes, with the Brahmins,' Jorde said." — "History of Ancient Indian Conquest Told in Modern Genes, Experts Say," *San Francisco Chronicle,* May 26, 1999.

Appendix 2: Genetic Evidence of Europeans in Ancient China

“After years of controversy and political intrigue, archaeologists using genetic testing have proven that Caucasians roamed China’s Tarim Basin 1,000 years before East Asian people arrived. The research, which the Chinese government has appeared to have delayed making public out of concerns of fueling Uighur Muslim separatism in its western-most Xinjiang region, is based on a cache of ancient dried-out corpses that have been found around the Tarim Basin in recent decades.” — “Genetic testing reveals awkward truth about Xinjiang’s famous mummies” (Agence France-Presse), April 19, 2005.

“(T)he 2,500-year-old Linzi population showed greater genetic similarity to present-day European populations than to present-day east Asian populations. The 2,000-year-old Linzi population had features that were intermediate between the present-day European/2,500-year-old Linzi populations and the present-day east Asian populations. These relationships suggest the occurrence of drastic spatiotemporal changes in the genetic structure of Chinese people during the past 2,500 years.” — “Genetic Structure of a 2,500-Year-Old Human Population in China and Its Spatiotemporal Changes,” *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 17:1396–1400 (2000).

Appendix 3: Western European Genetic Remnants in Egypt

“We analyzed Y-chromosome haplotypes in the Nile River Valley in Egypt in 274 unrelated males, using the p49a,f TaqI polymorphism. These individuals were born in three regions along the river: in Alexandria (the Delta and Lower Egypt), in Upper Egypt, and in Lower Nubia. Fifteen different p49a,f TaqI haplotypes are present in Egypt, the three most common being haplotype V (39.4%), haplotype XI (18.9%), and haplotype IV (13.9%).

It is interesting to relate this peculiar north/south differentiation, a pattern of genetic variation deriving from the two uniparentally inherited genetic systems (mtDNA and Y chromosome), to specific historic events. Since the beginning of Egyptian history (3200–3100 BC), the legendary king Menes united Upper and Lower Egypt. Migration from north to south may coincide with the Pharaonic colonization of Nubia, which occurred initially during the Middle Kingdom (12th Dynasty, 1991–1785 BC), and more permanently during the New Kingdom, from the reign of Thotmosis III (1490–1437 BC).

The main migration from south to north may coincide with the 25th Dynasty (730–655 BC), when kings from Napata (in Nubia) conquered Egypt. Concerning less frequent Y-haplotypes in Egypt, haplotype VII distinguishes itself by increased preponderance north of the Mediterranean and in Eastern Europe (Lucotte et al., [1996]). Haplotype XV is the most widespread Y-haplotype in Western Europe (Lucotte and Hazout, [1996]), where its frequency decreases from west to east (Semino et al., [1996]; Lucotte and Loirat, [1999]).” — “Y-chromosome haplotypes in Egypt,” *American Journal of Physical Anthropology,* Volume 121, Issue 1, Pages 63–66.

Appendix 4: Genetic Evidence of Racial Mixing in Greece

*"Greeks are found to have a substantial relatedness to sub-Saharan (Ethiopian) people, which separate them from other Mediterranean groups. Both Greeks and Ethiopians share quasi-specific DRB1 alleles, such as *0305, *0307, *0411, *0413, *0416, *0417, *0420, *1110, *1112, *1304 and *1310. Genetic distances are closer between Greeks and Ethiopian/sub-Saharan groups than to any other Mediterranean group and finally Greeks cluster with Ethiopians/sub-Saharans in both neighbor joining dendrograms and correspondence analyses. The conclusion is that part of the Greek genetic pool may be sub-Saharan and that the admixture has occurred at an uncertain but ancient time."* — "HLA genes in Macedonians and the sub-Saharan origin of the Greeks," *Tissue Antigens,* February 2001, vol. 57, no. 2, pp. 118–127.

A study of mtDNA in Greece revealed the presence of the HpaI morph 1 sequence, which is a Mongoloid marker, introduced either through slavery or the mixed race Ottoman occupation. — "Mitochondrial DNA polymorphism in northern Greece," *National Library of Medicine,* PubMed, 1: Hum Biol. 1994 Aug. 66(4):601–11.

African Blood Groups in Greece: *"As usual in the Mediterranean area CDe is high, and cDe, presumably from African admixture, reaches about 6 percent." (p73) Cyprus: ". . . the presence of over 5 percent cDe suggests African immigration."* (p73) — Mourant AE, Kopéc AC, Domaniewska-Sobczak K. *The distribution of the human blood groups and other polymorphisms,* London, Oxford University Press, 1976.

According to a study conducted by Lluís Quintana-Murci et al and published in *The American Journal of Human Genetics,* (Volume 68, 2001, pages 537–542), the Middle Eastern Haplogroup HG9 runs at 28% in Greece. — "Y-Chromosome Lineages Trace Diffusion of People and Languages in Southwestern Asia," *The American Journal of Human Genetics,* 68:537–542, 2001.

Less than 50% of Greek Y-Chromosomes are of European origin, with the majority being 25% sub-Saharan/North African; 25% Middle Eastern; a small portion Asiatic. — "The Human Y Chromosome: An Evolutionary Marker Comes of Age," *Nature Reviews Genetics* 4, 598–612 (2003), August 2003 Vol 4 No 8.

Appendix 5: Classical Literature References to Race

References to race abound in the works of Homer, the blind poet to whom credit is given for the two classic epics, *The Iliad,* and *The Odyssey*. Some selected quotes:

"While he was thus in two minds, and was drawing his mighty sword from its scabbard, Minerva came down from heaven and seized the son of Peleus by his yellow hair." — The Iliad, Book I.

"As a cow stands lowing over her first calf, even so did yellow-haired Menelaus bestride Patroclus." — The Iliad, Book XVII.

"There fair-haired Rhadamanthus reigns, and men lead an easier life than anywhere else in the world." — The Odyssey, Book 4.

"Trust me for that," said she (Minerva, talking to Odysseus), *"I will begin by disguising you so that no human being shall know you; I will cover your body with wrinkles; you shall lose all your yellow hair." — The Odyssey,* Book 13.

"On this Minerva came close up to him and said, "Son of Arceisius—best friend I have in the world—pray to the blue-eyed damsel, and to Jove her father." — The Odyssey, Book 24.

The following quote is from Euripides, the ancient playwright: *"Ye gods! What joy to hark them on, to grasp the barbed dart, to poise Thessalian hunting-spears close to my golden hair, then let them fly."* — *Hippolytus*.

Appendix 6: The Negro Presence in Ancient Greece

The classical Greeks most commonly described Negroes as "Ethiopians." In the works of Diodorus Siculus (Book 3.8.2), Ethiops, for example, are associated with black skin, woolly hair, and a flat nose. Arrian's *Indica* 6.9 states that the natives of southern India, though blacks, are not so flat-nosed or so woolly-haired as the Ethiopians.

Aristotle, in his *Physiognomia* 6.812A, said that those with "woolly hair" and those who were too swarthy (*Phgn*. 6.812B.) were cowardly. He meant this about Ethiopians. Xenophanes (*Fragments* 16, Diels) in a similar contrast recounts that the Negroes represent their gods as black faced and flat nosed, while the Thracians show their gods to be blue eyed and red haired.

Aristotle mentions a woman of Elis whose daughter by a Negro, was not Negroid but whose grandson was (*Generation of Animals,* 1.18.722A; *History of Animals,* 7.6.586A). This passage would be meaningless unless it referred to the offspring of a black-white union.

Plutarch (*De Sera Numinis Vindicta,* 21) relates a similar story about a Greek woman whose black baby caused her to be accused of adultery, although an investigation of her lineage revealed that she was the great granddaughter of an Ethiopian. Reference was made to a mulatto priest of Isis: his racial appearance is described as follows: "... *this man, whose cranium belongs to the type of Asia Minor and whose lower face and neck are those of a Negro, is obviously of a mixed race; we are dealing with a mulatto . . ."* — Poulsen P, 1913 *Tête de Prêtre d'Isis Trouvée a Athènes* (Mélanges Holleaux, pp. 217–223. A. Picard, Paris, p. 218 and pl. VI).

Mixture between blacks and whites in the Greek world is confirmed by the evidence of sculpture. A vase of a temple boy from Olynthus is described by Robinson as a boy with *"almost negroid features"* (Robinson D. Y., 1931 *Excavations at Olynthus, Part IV, The Terra-cottas of Olynthus Found in 1928,* The Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, p. 78, no. 384 and pl. 42).

Another Olynthus head whose features Robinson also regards as "almost negroid" is another obvious product of racial mixing (ibid p. 87, no. 405 and pl. 45). Both Aristotle and Plutarch discuss the racial characteristics of second and third generation black-white racial mixes in their works: *“Further, children are like their more remote ancestors from whom nothing has come, for the resemblances recur at an interval of many generations, as in the case of the woman in Elis who had intercourse with the Aethiop; her daughter was not an Aethiop but the son of the daughter was.”* — Aristotle, *Gen. An.* 1.18.722A.

“But parents may pass on resemblance after several generations, as in the case of the woman in Elis, who committed adultery with a negro; in this case it was not the woman’s own daughter, but the daughter’s child that was a blackamoor” — Aristotle, *Hist. An.*, 7.6.586A.

Further references to racially mixed types stretching over generations can be found in Plutarch’s *De Sera Numinis Vindicta,* 21.

Appendix 7: Genetic Evidence of Racial Mixing in Italy

"Each of the subregions analysed (NW Africa and SW Europe) shows sequences that originated on the opposite shore of the Mediterranean. This is particularly clear in the case of U6 and L in SW Europe. L sequences are found at frequencies 3% in Iberia and 2.4% in Italy. Three Italian L sequences have been described throughout Africa, and the remaining five are not found in >1,000 sub-Saharan individuals. Thus, the presence of L sequences cannot be attributed to migration from NW Africa, and may instead represent gene flow from other sources, such as the Neolithic expansion or the Roman slave trade." — "Joining the Pillars of Hercules: mtDNA Sequences Show Multidirectional Gene Flow in the Western Mediterranean," *Annals of Human Genetics,* Vol. 67 Issue 4 Page 312, July 2003.

"Among 64 individuals from 21 families with at least one known hemoglobin S carrier, African blood group markers were detected in 7 (11%). These findings indicate that hemoglobin S is only one of multiple African genes present in contemporary Sicilian populations." — "Blood group phenotypes and the origin of sickle cell hemoglobin in Sicilians," *Acta Haematol,* 1978, 60(6):350–7.

"Sicilian Hb S was identical to that found in USA black patients in electrophoretic mobility on both starch and citrate agar media, solubility, mechanical precipitation rate of oxyhaemoglobins, and minimum gelling concentration, as well as by peptide mapping and amino-acid analysis of all beta-chain peptides. Taken together with the presence in Sicily of African blood group markers and certain historical considerations, it seems clear that the source of Hb S in Sicily is Africa." — "Sickle cell disease in Sicily," *National Library of Medicine,* PubMed, 1: J Med Genet. 1980 Feb. 17(1):34–8.

According to a study conducted by Lluís Quintana-Murci et al, the Middle Eastern Haplogroup HG9 runs at 20% in Italy. — "Y-Chromosome Lineages Trace Diffusion of People and Languages in Southwestern Asia," *American Journal of Human Genetics,* 68:537–542, 2001.

Appendix 8: Classical Roman Writers on Race Mixing in Rome

Interracial unions were common enough in the time of the Roman satirist Juvenal (55–27 AD) for him to make specific mention of them. In his *Satire VI,* Juvenal, while discussing the advisability or otherwise of abortions, warns husbands that their wives may bear mulatto children: *"Rejoice, poor wretch; give her the stuff to drink whatever it be, with your own hand: for were she willing to get big and trouble her womb with bouncing babes, you might perhaps find yourself the father of an Ethiopian; and someday a coloured heir, whom you would rather not meet by daylight, would fill all the places in your will."* — Juvenal, *Satire VI,* lines 596–600.

The Roman writer Martial (38–104 AD), in attacking misconduct by Roman wives, mentions a Roman woman who bore her husband seven children, none of whom was of his *"race."* Martial says: *"One of them, with woolly hair, like a Moor, seems to be the son of Santra, the cook. The second, with a flat nose and thick lips, is the image of Pannicus, the wrestler . . . of the two daughters, one is black . . . and belongs to Crotus, the flute player."* — *Epigrams* VI, 39.

Roman women who had mulatto children were often charged with adultery in Roman courts, with the accusation being that the mixed race nature of their children was evidence of their adultery with slaves or nonwhite males other than their husbands. A common defense used in Roman courts was that of "maternal impression" which claimed that babies in the womb could be affected by the mother merely viewing, or being close to, nonwhites. As ridiculous as this defense was, it was used by the famous orator Quintilian (35–96 AD) to successfully defend a Roman woman on an adultery charge (St Jerome, *Liber de Nominibus Hebraicis (de Genesi*), ed. J. P. Migne, p. 985).

Another famous Roman orator, Calpurnius Flaccus, (circa second century AD) also discussed the issue of *"maternal impression"* as an explanation for mulatto children, writing in a work entitled *De Natus Aethiops* ('Of Ethiopian Birth') he makes the white mother of a mulatto child say: *"Tell me then, did I love a Negro?"* She did not, and asserts that *"the element of chance may effect a great deal within the womb."* Of the child's color she says: *"You see there the skin scorched by an imperfection of the blood."* — *Bibloteca Latina*, Vol. 80.

Plutarch (*De Sera Numinis Vindicta*, 21 [563]) tells the story of a woman who gave birth to a black child and was accused of adultery, but subsequent investigation revealed that her great grandfather was an Ethiopian.

The Roman scholar Pliny (23–79 AD) mentioned yet another example of mulatto children: *“One certain example is that of the renowned boxer Nicaeus, born at Byzantium, whose mother was the daughter of adultery with a Negro. Her complexion was no different from that of the others [other white women], but her son Nicaeus appeared like his Negro grandfather.” — Naturalis Historia* VII.12.51.

Racial mixing also took place in the Roman colonies, and specifically the colony they called “Africa.” Claudian (365–408 AD) raged against the racial mixing taking place under the “Moor” (‘Maur’) Gildo, who had been appointed ruler of the colony of Africa by the emperor Valentian. Claudian wrote: *“When tired of each noblest matron, (Gildo) hands her over to the Moors. These Sidonian mothers, married in Carthage City, must needs be mate with barbarians. He thrusts upon me an Ethiopian son-in-law. This hideous hybrid affects the cradle.” — De Bello Gildonico* I, 189.

Appendix 9: Famous Historians on the Racial Decline of the Roman Empire

Although many historians have ignored the racial factor in the fall of the Roman Empire (and some have never even thought about it), there have been many who recognized race as the critical element. Amongst the more famous of these was Professor Tenney Frank, from Johns Hopkins University. Professor Frank, a recognized authority on the history of ancient Rome, is most famous for his work *An Economic History of Rome,* but his other works included the important *Race mixture in the Roman Empire,* published in the *American Historical Review* (July 1916, vol. 21, no. 4: 689–708).

Along with Frank, many other well-known and respected historians dealt with the issue of the Roman population change. Amongst these were Professor A.M. Duff, Charles Merivale, George La Piana, Theodor Mommsen, and the multiple authors of the *Cambridge Ancient History* and the Encyclopedia Britannica's *Historians History of the World*. Below follows a selection of quotations from these sources, discussing the change in the racial makeup of classical Roman society.

In his work, *Race Mixture in the Roman Empire,* Frank outlined how he first realized that race mixture was the cause of the change in Roman society. By studying the names of graves on the Appian Way in Rome, he found that huge numbers of late Roman Republic inhabitants had names which originated in the Levant, or Middle East, in strong contrast to the early inhabitants of Rome, who had Latin names. *"Unfortunately, most of the sociological and political data of the empire are provided by satirists. When Tacitus informs us that in Nero's day a great many of Rome's senators and knights were descendants of slaves and that the native stock had dwindled to surprisingly small proportions, we are not sure whether we are not to take it as an exaggerated thrust by an indignant Roman of the old stock"* (ibid).

"It is probable that when these men wrote a very small percentage of the free plebians on the streets of Rome could prove unmixed Italian descent. By far the larger part—perhaps ninety percent—had Oriental blood in their veins" (ibid).

Frank made a determined study of the tombs and monuments in Rome and the surrounding area, drawing up a database of over 13,900 different names. His analysis of those names concluded that about 70 percent were Greek, not Latin, in origin. These "Greek" names for the greatest part belonged not to true Greeks, but to Middle Easterners who had adopted Greek names, particularly after the conquest of their region by Alexander the Great.

The writer Juvenal, speaking of the Roman population, pointed out the Levantine origin of many of these people in his writings, referring to the Syrian River, the Orontes: *"These dregs call themselves Greeks but how small a portion is from Greece; the River Orontes has long flowed into the Tiber."* — Juvenal, *Satires III*, 62.

Frank went on to describe where these people with Greek names had come from: *"Therefore, when the urban inscriptions show that seventy percent of the city slaves and freedmen bear Greek names and that a larger portion of the children who have Latin names have parents of Greek names, this at once implies that the East was the source of most of them . . . by far the larger portion came from the Orient, especially from Syria and the provinces of Asia Minor, with some from Egypt and Africa (which for racial classification may be taken with the Orient). Some are from Spain and Gaul, but a considerable portion of these came originally from the East. Very few slaves are recorded from the Alpine and Danube provinces, while Germans rarely appear, except among the imperial bodyguard"* (Frank, ibid).

Frank explained the push and pull effect that led to the racial makeup change in Rome. He pointed out how native Romans were drawn away from Rome by colonization and military service, and of how their places were taken by slaves, in serfdom and as freedmen. *"During the early empire, twenty to thirty legions, drawn of course from the best free stock, spent their twenty years of vigor in garrison duty while the slaves, exempt from such services, lived at home and increased in numbers. In other words, the native stock was supported by less than a normal birthrate, whereas the stock of foreign extraction had not only a fairly normal birthrate but a liberal quota of manumissions to its advantage"* (Frank, ibid).

It is estimated that the slave population of Rome and its immediate surrounding area at the time of Augustus (circa 30 BC) was some 300,000–350,000 out of a population of about 900,000–950,000 (Hopkins, K. *Conquerors and Slaves, Sociological Studies in Roman History,* Vol. 1 Cambridge, 1978). For all of Italy, the figure was approximately the same. A figure of around two million slaves out of a population of about six million at the time of Augustus is accurate—this means that at this early stage one in every three persons in Rome and Italy was a slave (John Madden, *Slavery in the Roman Empire—Numbers and Origins,* University College, Galway, Classics Ireland, 1996 Vol. 3, University College, Dublin, Ireland).

The historian George La Piana said the following about how native Romans were drawn away from Rome by colonization and of how "new races" took their place in Rome: *"To this increase in the population the native stock seems not to have contributed much. Decimated by long wars, fought by citizen crimes, which secured to Rome a Mediterranean empire, its ranks were thinned still further by the withdrawal of colonies of citizens to the provinces beyond the sea and by a heavy decline in the birthrate even among the poorer classes. The native Roman and Italian population steadily dwindled and the gaps were filled by a new race"* (George La Piana, "Foreign Groups in Rome During the First Centuries of the Empire," *The Harvard Theological Review,* vol. XX, pp. 188, 189).

Far thinking Roman leaders saw the decline in native Roman numbers and the threat it posed. Professor A.M. Duff remarked, *"One of the most serious evils with which the imperial government was called upon to contend was the decline in population. Not only had the Italian stock almost disappeared from the towns, but the descendants of freedmen had not been born in sufficient numbers to take its place. Accordingly, while the Lex Papia Poppaea offered privileges to freeborn citizens for the possession of three children, it used the whole question of inheritances of freedmen and freedwomen for the encouragement of procreation"* (A. M. Duff, *Freedmen in the Early Roman Empire,* Oxford University Press, 1928, p. 191).

Charles Merivale, another renowned expert on Roman history, continued the story: *"The centre of the empire had been more exhausted by the civil wars than any of the provinces. The rapid disappearance of the free population had been remarked with astonishment and dismay, at least from the time of the Gracchi. If the numbers actually maintained on the soil of the Peninsula had not diminished, it was abundantly certain that the independent native races had given way almost throughout its extent to a constant importation of slaves"* (Charles Merivale, *The Romans Under the Empire,* vol. 2. pp. 395–397).

"The remedies to which Caesar resorted would appear as frivolous as they were arbitrary . . . He prohibited all citizens between the age of twenty and forty from remaining abroad more than three years together, while, as a matter of state policy, he placed more special restrictions upon the movements of the youths of senatorial families" (ibid).

Merivale also points out how Julius Caesar saw the danger of slave labor flooding Rome, and actually passed a law forbidding certain types of labor-intensive work from using only slaves: *"He (Caesar) required also that the owners of herds and flocks, to the maintenance of which large tracts of Italy were exclusively devoted, should employ free labor to the extent of at least one-third of the whole. Such laws could only be executed constantly under the vigilant superintendence of a sovereign ruler. They fell in fact into immediate disuse, or rather were never acted upon at all. They served no other purpose at the time but to evince Caesar's perception of one of the fatal tendencies of the age (i.e. race deterioration in Italy), to which the eyes of most statesmen of the day were already open"* (ibid).

Duff pointed out that by the time of Octavian Augustus, there were significant numbers of "Orientals" in Rome: *"Even in Augustus' day the process of Orientalization had gone too far. The great emperor saw the clouds, but he did not know they had actually burst. His legislation would have been prudent and not a whit excessive a century earlier; but in his time Rome was a cosmopolitan city, and the doom of the Empire was already sealed"* (Duff, ibid).

Frank's study of the Roman family lines revealed exactly how native Romans vanished. He wrote: *"The race went under. The legislation of Augustus and his successors, while aiming at preserving the native stock, was of the myopic kind so usual in social lawmaking, and failing to reckon with the real nature of the problem involved, it utterly missed the mark"* (Frank, ibid).

"We know, for instance, in Caesar's day of forty-five patricians, only one of whom is represented by posterity when Hadrian came to power. Of the families of nearly four hundred senators recorded in 65 AD under Nero, all trace of a half is lost by Nerva's day, a generation later" (ibid).

"At the same time many were tempted to emigrate to the colonies across the sea which Julius Caesar and Augustus founded. Many went away to Romanize the provinces, while society was becoming Orientalized at home. Because slave labor had taken over almost all jobs, the free born could not compete with them. They had to sell their small farms or businesses and move to the cities. Here they were placed on the dole because of unemployment. They were, at first, encouraged to emigrate to the more prosperous areas of the empire—to Gaul, North Africa, and Spain. Hundreds of thousands left Italy and settled in the newly-acquired land" (Duff, ibid).

"Such a vast number left Italy—leaving it to the Orientals—that finally restrictions had to be passed to prevent the complete depopulation of the Latin stock, but as we have seen, the laws were never effectively put

into force. The migrations increased and Italy was being left to another race. The Roman thus gave away to the Easterner in Italy, while he made a place for himself in the provinces" (Duff, ibid).

The *Cambridge Ancient History* adds: *"Augustus, recognizing the serious infiltration of alien blood into the body politic, introduced restrictions on manumission"* (*Cambridge Ancient History,* vol. VI, pp. 755, 756). *"Yet this proved but a slight check, and Tacitus records a significant remark that 'if freedmen were marked off as a separate grade, then the scanty number of free-born would be evident.' This shows how very few native free-born were left in Italy by our era. This freemen were now freedmen—ex-slaves or their descendants. They were taking over the complete population"* (ibid).

Freed slaves, mostly of Syrian or eastern extraction, became numerically strong in Rome. The emperor Philip was born in Syria, and became known as "Philip the Arabian" as a result. *"It seems unquestionable that the slaves from the eastern provinces were numerically preponderant in Rome, and—what is still more important—that they played a more important part in Roman life. Rome's policy of manumitting slaves was very liberal and the grant of freedom and citizenship made it possible for them to become merged in the citizen body of Rome. Former slaves and sons of slaves spread into trades and crafts that required civil standing, and in Cicero's day it was these people who already constituted the larger element of the plebian classes"* (La Piana, ibid).

"One thing which must, most of all, have shocked the aristocracy, even though of recent date, was the large number of Orientals, especially freedmen, who—had been given some of the highest posts in the empire" (*Cambridge Ancient History,* ibid).

Tacitus complained that in Nero's day, most of the senators and members of the aristocracy were now men of ex-slave status—and most of these were of eastern origin. By the third century AD, many of the emperors were actually descendants of the slaves of earlier centuries. La Piana stated it this way: *"The denationalized capital of the great empire came to be ruled by the offspring of races which originally had come to the city only to serve"* (La Piana, ibid).

"This Orientalization of Rome's populace has a more important bearing than is usually accorded it upon the larger question of why the spirit and acts of imperial Rome are totally different from those of the republic. There was a complete change in the temperament!" wrote Frank. *"There is today a healthy activity in the study of the economic factors that contributed to Rome's decline. But what lay behind and constantly reacted*

upon all such causes of Rome's disintegration was, after all, to a considerable extent, the fact that the people who had built Rome had given way to a different race" (ibid).

"The profuse intermixture of race, containing without interruption from 200 BC far into the history of the Empire, produced a type utterly different from that which characterized the heroes of the early republic" (ibid).

The replacement of the original Roman people by immigrants was marked first at the lowest levels of society, but then gradually made its way up through all levels. Septimus Severus was the first Roman emperor who was not of Roman extraction, born in North Africa. His wife was Julia Domna, a Syrian. Severus was succeeded by his two sons, who reigned for a while together, and then successively. The throne later came to two grandsons. In all, the Syro-Phoenicians dominated the Roman Empire from 193 AD to 235 AD.

The *Historian's History of the World* describes this period so: *"The Syrian emperors, as far as political traditions are concerned, inasmuch as they were not Romans and had none of the Roman prejudices, often give proof of an openness of mind which would have been impossible to the great emperors of the second century, all of whom were intensely conservative. They flung the doors of the empire wide open"* (*The Historians' History of the World, A Comprehensive Narrative of the Rise and Development of Nations from the Earliest Times as recorded by over Two Thousand of the Great Writers of All Ages,* edited by Henry Smith William,s et al, Encyclopedia Britannica, 1904 [5th ed., 1926] vol. 6, p. 404).